# Table of Contents

**Undergraduate Students’ Voices on Developing Cultural Competence**  
Comfort Ateh, Providence College  
1

**Facing Forward: Assessing the Impact of Transporting Spent Nuclear Fuel (SNF)**  
James David Ballard, California State University – Northridge  
Fred Dilger, Black Mountain Research  
Robert Halstead, State of Nevada, Nuclear Waste Project Office  
7

**Changes in Female Participants’ Self-Descriptions After a Self-Defense Course**  
Leanne R. Brecklin, University of Illinois - Springfield  
14

**Mobile Screening Van: Initial Results From Community Outreach to Identify Developmental Risks or Delays in Children Ages 0 – 8 Years**  
Joannie Busillo-Aguayo  
22

**Not That Kind of Scientist: Creating an Online BA Program in Social Science**  
Adam Criblez, Lily Santoro, Southeast Missouri State University  
39

**Macroeconometrics of Survey Measures of Consumer Inflation Expectations**  
Abdullah A. Dewan, Steven C. Hayworth, Eastern Michigan University  
47

**Social Norms and Perceptions of HIV/AIDS Among Young Adults**  
Praphul Joshi, Cherika Fills, Lamar University  
64

**Combating Childhood Obesity: Placement and Marketing of Foods in Restaurants**  
Praphul Joshi, Chaniqwa Fills, Lamar University  
74

**European Standards of Beauty and the Relation of These Assimilated Beauty Ideals Among African American Women**  
Cherika Fills, Praphul Joshi, Lamar University  
83

**Working in the Cloud, Chinese Social Media Censorship, Why the Chinese Government Blocks Western Social Media, & Chinese Military Beijing Spying Builfding**  
Harvey C. Foyle, Jingwei Chen, Muxin Wang, Lixiazi Lu,
The Successful Experiences of Higher Vocational Education In Serving the Local Economic and Social Development
Xiao Han, Central Washington University

Thinking Outside the Forms: Retraining Teachers to Write IEP’s for Students in an Independent Study Program
Patrick Hill, Donald Baggott, Learn4Life Concept Charter Schools

Enhancing the Quality of Life of Baby Boomers and Their Traditionalist Parents with Technology
Catheleen Jordan, David Cory, Scott Sainato, Peter Lehmann University of Texas at Arlington

Aw Yeah: Let’s Read!
Patricia Kirtley, Terry Lovelace, Independent Scholars
William M. Kirtley, Central Texas College

America Cries, “I’m Sorry!” - Five Apologies
William M. Kirtley, Central Texas College
Lem Londos Railsback, Patricia M. Kirtley, William R. Curtis, Terry L. Lovelace, Independent Scholars

Hate Speech in America
Kathleen Kreamelmeyer, Ball State University

Compulsive Buying Tendencies
David Lester, Stockton University
Bijou Yang, Drexel university

Content Analysis of NSSA National Technology and Social Science Conference Presentations from 2012-2014
Robin Lindbeck, Robert W. Lion, Natalie Wells, Idaho State University

House Call Counselors: An Educator’s Guide to Making House Calls
James Todd McGahey, Jacksonville State University

Lethal Injection: A Fatally Flawed Method of Execution
Joseph A. Melusky, Saint Francis University

“We are More Alike than Unalike:” mtDNA Deep Ancestry Testing and Diversity Awareness in Undergraduate Social Science Courses
Johanna Moyer, Miami University
An Independent Study Charter School Program for Secondary Students: A University Model Approach
Constance Petit, Patrick Hill, Learn4Life Concept Charter Schools 203

The Viability of an Independent Study Model for Students with Disabilities
Constance Petit, Heather Stuve, Learn4Life Concept Charter Schools 224

The Rise and Fall of Religious Toleration: Is the Settlement Collapsing?
Richard H. Reeb, Jr., Barstow Community College 232

Retrofitting Instructional Strategies in the Math Classroom: Technology Becomes the “New Classroom Tradition”
Sydne Endorf, Judith Ruskamp, Peru State College 242

The Stigma of Stupid: A Quantitative Analysis of College Students’ Use of Disability-Related Language
Nicole Sims, California State University – Chico 249

Port of Liuzhou
Xifang Wang, Central Washington University 265

Liuzhou’s Housing Supply: Affordable Quality Housing for Everyone
Huazhi Zhang, Central Washington University 272
Undergraduate Students’ Voices on Developing Cultural Competence

Comfort Ateh
Providence College
Introduction

World migration and the political and economic aspects of globalization are challenging nation-states and national borders. With the increasing number of United Nations member states, from 80 in 1950 to 191 in 2002 (Castles 2004) there is a need to rethink citizenship education that should help students acquire the knowledge, attitudes, and skills needed to function in their nation-states as well as in global societies. The post-1970 immigration surge impacted the racial composition of the U.S. population. The quest by ethnic, cultural, language, and religious groups for recognition implies there is no place for assimilations that existed in the United States prior to the Civil Rights Movement of the 1960s and 1970s. Students of various cultural background have right to their original cultures, languages, and ethnic identities. The increasing diversity and the quest by marginalized groups for cultural recognition and rights suggest students must be helped to develop reflective and clarified cultural identifications. It is crucial that students acquire the knowledge, attitudes, and skills needed to function within and across diverse racial, ethnic, cultural, language, and religious groups (Bank, 2004). Schools continue to be segregated almost 60 years after the landmark Supreme Court ruling of Brown versus Board of Education that desegregated schools which has been a setback for one of the core goals of the civil rights movement. Findings of the Civil Rights Project’s study showed a steady increase in integration in public schools from the late 1960s to 1980s, which enhanced quality of education for all races. However, the gains in integration have been lost with the present state of re-segregation across America resulting in part from less enforcement of desegregation of schools. Re-segregation is causing students to grow up interacting only with others who look like them.

Findings of a UCLA multipart study by Civil Rights Project indicate diversity is increasing in the nation with 43 percent of Latinos and 38% of African Americans attending what are called “apartheid” schools, which are intensely segregated schools with minorities making 90 to 100 percent of the student body. The current change in demographics at the national level as well as the increasing segregation in schools are likely to result in an increase in isolation of students of color and poor from their more privileged peers, which will deprive them of the opportunities and resources they need to be successful. No school reform efforts are more important than making sure all students have access to knowledge and resources they need to be successful in life.

It is empirical that schools provide experiences in every classroom where students from different backgrounds can learn from each other. Unfortunately, federal and state policies perpetuate segregated school systems: one set of schools for a majority of middle class and white students, and a dramatically inferior system for those who are Latino, black and poor. Students should be educated in a way that they can interact with others of different cultural background considering the trends in the diversity composition of the nation and the need to be competitive in global engagement. Education is the hope for the poor and the means to break the cycle of poverty. It is the solution to inequity among the marginalized. Unfortunately, the current educational system continues to fall short in creating equality for different cultural groups locking the marginalized in a cycle of poverty associated with multiple social issues. Nevertheless, schools still have a responsibility to break this cycle of poverty. This paper is based on a study that engaged undergraduate students to reflect on diversity and ways to develop
knowledge and skills to become cultural competent. The assumption was that students who develop cultural competence are likely to become justice-oriented professions.

Cultural competence is a critical skill that every employee and employer should have for the institution to be successful. In the case of a school, teachers working with students of diverse cultural background are expected to be knowledgeable in the different cultures represented in their classrooms so as to creating instruction that meets the learning needs of every student. Similarly, in hospitals, medical staffs are expected to be knowledgeable about different perspectives that patients bring with them to the hospital so as to create an intervention system that would enhance treatment.

Becoming justice-oriented implies being sensitive to others different than you and accepting them for who they are. It means moving beyond ones beliefs and values to the boundary of others appreciating their beliefs and values without relinquishing yours or expecting same from others. Cultural beliefs and values are at the forefront in making decisions about any group. Everyone will be everyone's keeper with the ultimate goal of creating a nation where everyone is successful and not a selected few.

This study focused on the impact of an urban education course on students' appreciation of the essence of diversity and the need for every citizen to appreciate our diversity, to become culturally competent and justice-oriented professionals. The premise for these expectations was the increasing diversity in our nation and the failure of different institutions in dealing with issues that are related to our diversity-in this case, especially, racial diversity. Students' reflections to prompts about their K-12 experiences and communities; their experience during service learning interacting with inner city students; and how the course will impact their lives in their future careers were examined. The reflections were coded and categories identified in discussing the extent to which they had developed cultural competence during the course of the semester.

Theoretical framework

Microaggressions and stereotype threats presented the framework within which to examine students' cultural competence and resolve in becoming justice-oriented. The term racial microaggressions was first proposed by psychiatrist Chester M. Pierce, MD, in the 1970s, but psychologists have significantly amplified the concept in recent years. The term 'stereotype threat' was first identified by Claude Steele in the mid-1990s: He showed that when people who are about to take a test are reminded of negative stereotypes about their racial, ethnic or other group, the subconscious worry that they might confirm those stereotypes undermines their performance by sapping cognitive resources that they could be using to do better on the exam.

Stereotype threat is conceptualized as “being at risk of confirming, as self-characteristic, a negative stereotype about one's group.” (Steele & Aronson, 1995, p. 797) Stereotype threats can result from microaggressions and especially “racial microaggressions”, which refer to “subtle, stunning, often automatic, and non-verbal exchanges which are ‘put downs’” (Pierce, Carew, Pierce-Gonzalez, & Willis, 1978, p. 66). These microaggressions can be subtle insults (verbal, nonverbal, and/or visual directed toward people of color, often automatically or unconsciously (Solórzano et al., 2000). Although brief, and often unconsciously delivered in the form of subtle snubs or dismissive looks, gestures, and tones, these microaggressions easily become “threats” to their victims, which can impair performance by sapping the psychic and spiritual energy that can result in inequities (Franklin, 2004; Sue, 2004).
African-Americans and women have been shown to perform worse on academic tests when primed with stereotypes about race or gender. Women who were primed with stereotypes about women's poor math performance do worse on math tests. Blacks' intelligence test scores plunge when they're primed with stereotypes about blacks' inferior intelligence. Developing cultural competence and the ability to become justice-oriented can thus be examined within the contexts of microaggressions and stereotype threats that underpin diversity issues.

**Location and participants**

This study was conducted in a small liberal art college located in Northeast region of the United States. The context was an urban education course and data was collected during four semesters (fall 2013, spring 2014, fall 2014, and spring 2015). The students were mostly Caucasian and a few minorities (African American, Asians, Native Americans, and Middle East) of a variety of majors that included: education, finance, political science, health management and policy, sociology, biology, computer science, accounting, English language, Spanish and a few undeclared. Every grade level was represented but the majority of the students were juniors and seniors.

**The Urban Education Course**

The goal of the urban education course goal is for students to understand the challenges that inner city students encounter in school and their communities and hopefully to become culturally competent to work with others different than them and to be justice-oriented citizens. The course content include the following topics: (1) the characteristics of urban communities and schools; (2) achievement gap in inner city schools; (3) challenges inner city students encounter in schools; (4) federal laws like the ESEA—for example the no child left behind and affirmative action and their impact on inner city schools; and (5) principles of becoming culturally competent, a multicultural individual. The ultimate goal is for students to become aware of the essence of diversity and be prepared to interact with an increasing diverse community for a common good.

**Data and analysis and preliminary findings**

The study focused on students’ voices through their reflections that depicted their perspectives about discrepancies between the mainstream and minority groups. Students enrolling in the course were from different programs pursuing different majors that ultimately lead to different careers including: teachers, counselors; social workers; lawyers; medical services; business; bankers; accountants; and entrepreneurs. Students’ perspectives on developing cultural competence and becoming justice-oriented were thus mostly based on their ultimate careers. Their reflections were coded themes ensued for discussing the extent to which they developed cultural competence, which is the first important step in becoming justice-oriented professional: perspectives on self; perspectives on inner city students; perspectives on racial groups. In the section that follows I present a myth followed by excerpts of students’ voices to that debunks the myth suggesting cultural competence awareness.

**Based on Reflections on Service Learning Experience:**

**Challenges inner city students face:**

Myth: Inner city students are responsible for their poor performance.

Student’s voice: I may have been ignorant to the challenges these students face, and may have blamed the students themselves for a lack of high academic achievement. However, upon learning so much this semester, it is clear to me that this
is not the fault of the students. The urban education system is flawed, and leaves urban students at an unfair advantage. As long as urban schools lack an abundance of positive adult influences, and necessary resources, the students within them will be bound to struggle academically.

**Aspirations of inner city students:**

Myth: Inner city students lack inspiration to perform well in school.

Student’s voice: I’ll admit that I was scared at first, thinking that the kids were going to be rough and tough and wouldn’t want to attend the service learning program. However, I realized that I was wrong the first minute that I stepped into the room. There were about fifteen high school kids of all ages there, attentive and ready to hear what we had to say. It was at this moment that I knew my service would be of value to these kids throughout the rest of the semester.

**Communication barriers between school and home:**

Myth: Inner city parents are not involved in their students’ education.

Students’ voices: I did not realize the major impact that a communication barrier can have between the school and the families of its students, as that was never an issue when I was growing up. For orientation, we went to the service learning site where, after meeting the staff, our job was to call all 150 families and inform them that their child had been accepted into the program set to begin that upcoming week. This ended up being a lot tougher than I originally thought it would be. Many of the family’s names were extremely difficult to pronounce, and we were not even able to call some families at all, because it was noted that the parents did not speak any English.

**Based on reflections on cultural group project**

Students were assigned different cultural groups they researched and presented their findings to the class on the characteristics of the cultural group; the sub groups; the diversity within the group; the stereotypes associated with the group; challenges students of this group face in school; how teachers can accommodate these students in the main stream classrooms.

Making assumptions about people you do not know: Students’ reflections suggested their increased knowledge on stereotypes and how microaggressions could hurt the victim as depicted in the following excerpts of students’ voice:

It is important to identify where someone is from and what they specifically value. For example, knowing the difference between Latino and Hispanic. I am more equipped to understand differences and values of people from other cultures.

I now have a greater respect and acceptance to all of the different cultures. Knowing the struggles all different cultural groups endure when they came to America has made me more culturally competent. I believe these struggles have made the different cultures to be closer than most think. Also, I have been exposed to different cultures, which has prepared me to be able to interact with and understand people of other cultures.

Each ethnic group faces unique challenges, many of which I was completely unaware of. It is important that teachers get a sense of who their students are and understand their background to help improve the teacher/student relationship. An example is assuming that all Asians are good at math and not giving attention to Asian students in the class might impact these students who might not be good at math. Holding such assumptions can easily lead to microaggressions – micro-insults that are
statements, which might be unintentionally harming the students: You know how to do it right? Or, you can’t do that? Hiding the message ‘as an Asian you are supposed to know how to do this’

Voices of students can tell us a lot about the students. It is important to explore students’ voices in different domains to be able to make substantive statements on their knowledge. Triangulation of students’ voices from different sources is crucial in determining the extent to which they have attained cultural competence. Students’ reflections consistently suggest their appreciation of diversity in different forms; similarities and differences between and among cultural/ethnic groups; challenges faced by mostly inner city students; knowledge and skills in being culturally competent. Students’ awareness and empathy for marginalized groups of students (mainly inner city minority students) suggest a potential for becoming citizens who will be justice-oriented.

Are students prepared for the increasing multicultural community? Are they prepared to interact with others different than them? We have no choice but to be prepared for the rising increase in diversity and to appreciate what marginalized groups have to go through. There is urgency for all to stand up and be the voice of the voiceless. However, the first important step is to be educated on different cultural groups and the essence for equity and equality for the common good of all. The urban education course in an undergraduate program seems to present a forum for educating future citizens on diversity and the need to develop cultural competence.

References
Facing Forward: Assessing the Impact of Transporting Spent Nuclear Fuel (SNF).

James David Ballard
California State University, Northridge

Fred Dilger
Black Mountain Research

Robert Halstead
State of Nevada, Nuclear Waste Project Office
Introduction

The United States has struggled with the disposal of spent nuclear fuel (SNF) for over 60 years. This struggle has culminated in the failure of the Yucca Mountain project and decades of delays in starting any program to deal with this highly radioactive hazard. A new direction is needed for the problem of America's nuclear waste to be resolved. In order for the storage of nuclear waste to take place, it will have to be transported from existing and closed reactor sites situated around the country and to a storage or disposal facility. As a result there will be various environmental, social, legal, political and economic impacts from the transportation of the SNF. The current processes for impact assessment do not adequately consider the range of likely impacts.

For any storage program to proceed, it will be necessary to examine a more complete range of impacts. This paper describes the characteristics of the hazard posed by nuclear fuel rods, the current process for assessing the impacts of their transportation and finally, suggests additional impacts that should be considered. In the next section the hazard of SNF is discussed.

The Hazard

Nuclear energy accounts for approximately 20% of the power generated in the United States (NEI 2015). Nuclear energy is generated by the process of nuclear fission, in which uranium atoms are split in a reactor vessel. The uranium is in the form of small ceramic pellets in closed metal tubes approximately 1 in in diameter and approximately 13 feet long. They are placed into bundles (either 14 by 14 or 17 by 17). The bundles are referred to as fuel assemblies.

The fuel assemblies are used in nuclear reactors to generate heat to boil water and thus to generate electricity. The fuel rods have a useful life of approximately five years (NEI 2015). After that time, they are so radioactive that they are no longer useful as fuel. They must be removed from the reactor core and cooled in a pool of borated water for at least five years.

After that five year period, they can be left in the cooling pool or stored in above ground storage containers at the reactor site. The industry norm for transfer from a spent fuel pool is ten years (NRC 2015). The final disposition of fuel from the pools or from such temporary storage is the issue since it will involve transportation to an interim or permanent storage facility (NRC 2015).

As of 2009, there are currently 62,683 metric tons of SNF in storage at various sites around the country. A total of 13,856 metric tons (22%) are in storage at 63 interim storage sites. The remaining 48,818 metric tons (78%) are in cooling pools around the country. The total amount of waste increases by 2,000 to 2,400 tons annually (NRC 2015).

Spent nuclear fuel is unlike any other hazardous material because the hazard is manifested even during transportation. The casks are not thick enough to contain all of the gamma radiation emitted. The US Department of Energy (DOE 2008) defines the radiological region of influence for these shipments as 800 meters on either side of the route traveled by the cask. Therefore, even during routine shipment people living and working within 1600 meters (~1/2 mile to either side) of a transportation route will be exposed to gamma radiation.
The routine radiation doses from such exposures are extremely low, but where the numbers of shipments accumulate over time, so will the dose. Another characteristic of these doses is that they will be involuntary since many of the people exposed may never know of that exposure as they travel in proximity too, or live near, such transportation routes.

**Yucca Mt and Beyond**

The solution to the problem of the inventories of SNF in fuel pools and in temporary dry storage containers was intended to be the Yucca Mountain Project (YMP). After an attempt to identify multiple sites proved too costly, Congress identified a single site. That site, Yucca Mountain, was the subject of an $11 billion dollar, multi-decade characterization program. That program collapsed due to cost overruns, poor management and political opposition from the State of Nevada. Although the program has not yet completely ended, a search for a new approach has begun. The Blue Ribbon Commission on America's Nuclear Future (BRC 2011) was formed by the Secretary of Energy in 2010 at the request of the President. This Commission was tasked to recommend a new strategy to manage spent nuclear fuel. Among the recommendations made by the BRC were a consent-based siting program and a project to consolidate and store the waste at an interim storage facility until such time as a final storage facility could be determined.

The problem posed by these highly radioactive wastes is an urgent one. The Federal Government agreed to remove the waste from nuclear power plants as part of the original provisions of the Atomic Energy Act of 1954 (AEA). Because it has failed to do so after six decades, the utilities have successfully sued the Federal government to collect damages for that failure to act. As of 2014, over $500 million in damages have been paid. The damages will continue to increase as long as the waste remains on-site.

The DOE’s Office of Nuclear Energy (ONE) is currently preparing a prototype campaign for spent nuclear fuel (SNF) shipments from shut-down reactor sites to a pilot interim storage facility. When the program begins, the current target date is 2021, there will be substantial shipments of spent fuel throughout the United States and for an extended period of time (as long as fifty years). A framework for assessing the impacts of these shipments and that shipment campaign (during routine and accident conditions) will be necessary.

**Existing Method**

In several Environmental Impact Statements, the DOE has developed a process for identifying the impacts related to the shipments of SNF and other high level radioactive wastes. This process has been codified in by the DOE. The existing method places impacts into four categories. They are:

- **Onlink dose** refers to the dose emitted that affects people using the same transportation system as the waste cask (e.g. people driving ear a cask on the same highway).
- **Offlink dose** refers to the dose emitted that affects people near the transportation system on which the waste cask is being shipped (e.g. people living near a highway on which the casks are shipped).
• **Occupational dose** refers to the dose emitted by the waste cask that affects people working on shipping and handling the waste cask (e.g. train operators).
• **An appraisal of the risk of transporting the materials.** The degree to which the shipments are risky and the consequences of routine exposure, accident exposure or deliberate exposures are also considered.

There is significant dispute about the methods used to assess risk and the possible severity of any accident or terrorist attack on a waste cask while in transit. The DOE’s FSEIS (2008) estimated the consequences of a Maximum Reasonably Foreseeable Accident (MRFA). The FSEIS estimated that based on 2 million curies of radioactive material in a rail cask loaded with spent nuclear fuel, about 13 curies (mostly cesium) would be released in a maximum reasonably foreseeable accident. The economic model for the software used to model these risks (RADTRAN) estimates the cost to remove the contamination from three types of area (urban, rural and suburban). The model aggregates all other factors (Weiner et al. 2013).

It should be noted that remediation for nuclear contamination of this type is very limited. In no real sense is the material “cleaned up.” Instead, it is removed. The material must be contained as quickly as possible to limit the size of the area to be removed. Human exposure to microscopic particles of the materials could result in death or serious illness. Removing the contamination from an area essentially means tearing down all of the buildings and infrastructure in an area, placing them in metal containers and disposing of the containers in a nuclear waste repository. As is obvious the release of these radioactive materials in an urban area would result in extremely complex and costly disposal problem.

**Shortcomings**

The current approach is simple to model using computer software and decades old technology, but such analysis provides a very limited and one-dimensional appraisal. This may be sufficient for the purposes of meeting the requirements of the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA), but it does not provide sufficient information for decision makers and potentially affected parties/stakeholders. Further, such simplistic assessments provide an artificial confidence in our ability to easily assess the consequences of accidents involving these shipments.

The most recent and illustrative example of efforts to assess the consequences of radiological damage is the result of the Fukushima Daiichi accident in Japan. This accident, now three years old, has prompted the development of a wide range of assessments of impacts. The range of assessments in itself suggests that there is wide disagreement on the problem of how much the accident cost.

This disagreement about assessment of impacts means that a future accident involving the shipment of SNF will also result in wide disagreement. Additionally, the wide range of possible SNF incident conditions (be they accidentally or human initiated) and locations (rural, suburban or urban) means that there will be inherently different ideas about how to assess the impacts as well as what is actually effected.
For example, it will be difficult to justify and compare the computer-generated results from releases that occur in an urban area like central Las Vegas and in a more rural area like Shelton, Nebraska.

An improved method for assessing these risks would rely on a series of analogous cases to develop a realistic framework for identifying impacts that occur based on the severity of the accident. The next section will provide some insight into what such a methodology would entail

**Suggested Improvements**

To some stakeholders the current approach to impact assessment is not sufficient to satisfy the requirements of NEPA. The courts may ultimately decide that issue. However, the current approach certainly will not deliver an adequate representation of the impacts that are likely to occur. As a result, the authors suggest substantial changes to the current approach. These changes require the use of different methods and are based on existing work on the likelihood and severity of accidents.

**STEPS Approach to Assessment**

The suggested approach uses analogous cases matched to the accident probabilities with analogous cases studies. The NRC publication NUREG 6672 summarized accident probabilities and consequences into a table that classifies accidents by their severity. Accident Class I is the least severe and accident class VIII is the most severe. *(See Table 1)*

This typology is directed at rail incidents, but to illustrate this to highway shipments, Class I would be a slight collision that results in property damage only. This type of accident has a very low probability of the loss of containment and most likely would not result in a release of radiation. The Type VIII accident is exemplified by the truck accident that occurred in San Francisco’s “Macarthur Maze.” In this 2007 accident, a tanker truck carrying gasoline overturned on the connector from Interstate 80 to Highway 880 (Bulwa 2007). The fuel in the truck ignited and burned so intensely a 168 foot section of the bridge collapsed. This type of accident could present a threat to the integrity of an SNF cask and thus create the conditions that may see a significant release of the radioactive contents of the shipment container.

To implement the suggested process of analogous cases for each accident category would be studied. Separate studies would be undertaken for each mode of transportation. That is, separate studies would be performed for highway, rail and barge transportation. Accident categories I-V would be very straightforward because there is such reduced probabilities of contamination. Accident Categories VI-VIII, however, would require extensive study to match contamination events to accident consequences.

In some cases, different kinds of contamination might be studied to determine consequences. For example, the recent Lac Megantic disaster (Star 2015), in which a 74-car train of crude oil exploded, may be useful as an analogous case. Ideally, three analogous case studies for each of the accident categories would be performed (low, moderate and catastrophic release). Each severe accident would be studied to isolate effects in several different domains.

A suggested list of domains is:
• Occupational Health effects: Exposure to employees and first responders exposed due to the incident
• Health: effects due to the radiation exposure to the public
• Direct Economic: Costs necessary to restore the location to its pre-accident condition
• Indirect Economic: Lost revenue, opportunity costs, mitigation, and preventive costs
• Political: Political Problems arising attributable to the incident
• Social: Permanent changes that occur in the society as a result of the accident (e.g. social displacement similar to that which occurred due to hurricane Katrina)
• Legal: Regulatory, criminal and civil law changes resulting from the incident

A series of carefully crafted analogous studies for each type of accident would probably detect most of the likely possible consequences and impacts. Unfortunately, the upper boundary of the indirect economic costs is unlikely to be captured by this method. The results of the assessment would be placed in a matrix for each class of accident and mode of transportation. (See Table 2)

Conclusion

This paper describes the problem associated with SNF management in the United States. The paper reviewed the issues associated with transporting spent nuclear fuel. The paper described the hazard of SNF and the current program being developed by the DOE. The paper described the current method for assessing the impacts, and their shortcomings. The paper then proposed a different method that relies on analogous case studies to identify ranges of possible impacts.

Managing the risks of spent nuclear fuel transportation has been performed on only a very small scale over the last 60 years. The US is on the verge of a massive campaign to ship these materials. An improved process to assess the effects of these shipments is necessary and should be tried as a prototype prior to a major campaign.

References


Table 1: Suggested Matrix for Presenting Results of Analogous Cases

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<th>Occupational effects</th>
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<th>Direct economic costs</th>
<th>Indirect economic costs</th>
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Changes in Female Participants’ Self-Descriptions After a Self-Defense Course

Leanne R. Brecklin
University of Illinois - Springfield
Introduction

The main objective of women’s self-defense training is to increase their ability to defend themselves against potential victimization. Research has shown that a victim’s use of physical resistance against a potential attack is related to rape avoidance (Ullman, 1997), similar to those strategies primarily taught in a self-defense course. Two recent studies have shown that women who complete self-defense courses are less likely to experience victimization than comparison groups approximately ten months (Sinclair et al., 2013) and one year after training (Hollander, 2014). Sinclair et al. (2013) also found that more than half of the females (56.4%) who completed the self-defense program reported actually using the skills they learned to successfully fight off and avoid victimization during the follow-up period. Both of these recent studies highlight that self-defense may be a potentially powerful strategy for decreasing sexual assault (Hollander, 2014; Sinclair et al., 2013).

However, there are many other benefits that stem from women’s completion of self-defense training. A recent literature review of twenty evaluations of women’s self-defense training demonstrated that benefits include several positive outcomes such as increases in assertiveness, self-esteem, perceived control, self-efficacy, and physical competence (Brecklin, 2008). The purpose of this study was to further examine how females’ self-descriptions changed as a result of completing a self-defense course.

Methodology

Program

According to the RAD website, RAD is “a program of realistic self-defense tactics and techniques for women…it is a comprehensive, women-only course that begins with awareness, prevention, risk reduction and risk avoidance, while progressing on to the basics of hands-on defense training” (http://www.rad-systems.com/). RAD is taught on several college campuses throughout the U.S. and in five other countries. The course consists of four 3-hour classes co-taught by two RAD-certified law enforcement officers (one male and one female). During the final class, the students participate in various mock attack scenarios, where they fight back against padded male “offenders” to demonstrate their learned skills and techniques.

Sample

The current study involved structured interviews with female participants of the RAD program. Participants included women aged 18 and over who completed the RAD course at a small Midwestern university between Fall 2003 and Spring 2007 and agreed to be interviewed. Thirty-four women were interviewed in total. Based on 67 potential respondents, the response rate was 50.7%. Twenty-nine women were interviewed in person by the primary researcher. Five interviews were conducted over e-mail; these women had moved away from the area but were still interested in participating in the study. All subjects consented to having their interviews tape-recorded; the interviews were then transcribed.

Sample Characteristics
The mean age of the 34 participants was 32.18 (SD = 16.42), with a range from 19 to 74. The majority of respondents were Caucasian (82.4%), whereas 8.8% were African-American, 2.9% were Asian/Pacific Islander, 2.9% were Hispanic, and 2.9% were bi-racial. More than half of the sample were not married (58.8%). About 62% of participants were current students (equally split between undergraduate and graduate students). The remaining one-third were a combination of alumni (5.9%), staff (11.8%), faculty (11.8%), administrators (2.9%), and retired (5.9%).

**Interview Analysis**

The interviews were analyzed using a grounded theory approach to discern themes within the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Responses to the following questions were analyzed for this study in terms of participants’ self-descriptions: “Did you learn anything surprising in the class?,” “What was your favorite thing about the course?,” “Did you learn anything new about yourself as a result of the training?,” and “How has the training affected your life? Specifically describe any changes you’ve noticed in yourself as a result of RAD participation.”

**Results**

Interview questions were analyzed for this paper in terms of themes related to the self-descriptions of female self-defense participants. Some quotes have been edited in the interest of readability.

Themes of participant changes were discovered around these three main areas: emotional descriptions, safety concerns, and perceived abilities

**Emotional descriptions:**

**Less shy**

Female participants commonly explained how their personalities changed, particularly in terms of becoming less shy, after the course. As a 22 year old Caucasian undergraduate stated, “I think that class helped me to not be quite as shy as I used to be, and as timid as I was, because I’m definitely a different person now.”

**More emotionally expressive**

Some of the participants revealed that after completing the self-defense course, they were able to express their feelings better. This was especially true in relation to past victimization, according to a 72 year old Caucasian staff member:

“I had some violent episodes...about thirty-seven years ago, and there’s a part of me that was lost in that process, and I gained it back. I was able to express emotion, I can feel that emotion that comes up, of the sadness, and it’s okay and I’m not ashamed of it, and I know that eventually it will go away, but so often when we’ve suffered trauma, we have to be able to express it and get rid of it, because it’s been hidden for many, many years.”

**More courage and self-confidence**
Another theme discovered in the interviews was increased feelings of courage and self-confidence as a result of the course. This is exemplified by a 26 year old Caucasian graduate student who said, “It just gave me more courage to do, you know, what I can do.” Likewise, a 20 year old Hispanic undergraduate explained: “I felt more confident....So, it was a confidence booster, which I appreciated because it kind of let me know more about myself.”

Empowered

A new feeling of empowerment was a common response of the female participants in terms of how they changed as a result of the course. For example, a 22 year old Caucasian graduate student simply responded, “I felt very empowered after the class.” While this next participant went into much more detail about how the course empowered her:

“When one is attacked violently, I lost a part of myself. A lot of that was buried deep within me. There were years that I could hardly speak above a whisper and being empowered of learning how to use my voice gave me so much confidence... it was like that inner spirit of mine began to blossom again and to be able to say I am okay. I am just like anyone else. I cannot speak too highly of how empowering it was for me, an old lady.”

More aggressive/angry

Some of the women mentioned experiencing changes in terms of feeling more aggressive and angry after the course. For instance, a 20 year old Hispanic undergraduate student stated “I’m more aggressive, honestly.” Another participant (22 year old Caucasian undergraduate student) revealed how she was surprised at her newfound anger:

“I get really angry. At the very end, the very last class, you have to do a simulation, and I’ve always been kind of timid, kind of shy, and in one of the parts, they have you close your eyes, and you can’t see an attacker. And, they kind of mock you, and I got angry and screamed and went after him, basically what I was supposed to do. It was kind of surprising. It was like, wow, (omit name), little timid person got really angry.”

Safety concerns:

Safer

Interviewees spoke of feeling safer after the course. For example, a 72 year old Caucasian staff member explained how her activities didn’t change but her feelings of safety did: “I have always found it acceptable for me to go someplace on my own, even if no one else wanted to go. But, I feel safer doing that now.” Likewise, a 21 year old Caucasian undergraduate student explained, “I feel a little bit more safer. Like I know I could probably at least defend myself a little bit.”

Less afraid
Somewhat similarly, women typically felt less afraid after completing the course. According to a 20 year old Hispanic undergraduate, “I’m not as scared as I thought I really was….I’ve always been afraid of the dark, and after this, it almost kind of went away a little.” A 22 year old Caucasian graduate student responded “Yeah, I did feel a lot more powerful, and self assured if I was going to be by myself. I didn’t feel so scared.”

More aware of surroundings

Many participants discussed how they became more aware of their surroundings after completing the course. A 22 year old Caucasian graduate student spoke of being “just more conscious of my environment, and watching and listening and looking around.” Another participant (22 year old Caucasian undergraduate student) focused on this awareness:

“I’m definitely more aware of people around me now. And, I always have been ever since that class, like if somebody’s behind me, like little hairs on the back of my neck kind of stand up, and I know that there’s somebody behind me.”

More cautious

Several women mentioned that they were more cautious and took less risks as a result of the class. For instance, a 56 year old Caucasian retired employee explained:

“I also probably take less risk because I’m more aware….I also think that I realize that I don’t have to prove anything to myself or to anybody else. If something doesn’t feel comfortable, I just won’t do it. If I get, if I get a spooky feeling going to an ATM, or going, or you know, doing something, I’ll just go somewhere else.”

Similarly, a 22 year old Caucasian undergraduate student said, “I’ve been more careful in where I park, walk, where I go. I’ve developed more of a sense.”

Perceived abilities:

Stronger

Many of the interviewees discussed how they felt stronger and more powerful after the course. When asked what she learned new about herself, a 22 year old Caucasian undergraduate student described:

“Mainly, just that I’m a strong person. I’m a lot stronger than I’ve always given myself credit for. You know, I’ve always been told I’m smart, but I’ve never been told that I can, you know, kick butt if I need to.”
Likewise, a 22 year old Caucasian alumni stated “I learned that I was capable of taking care of myself. I was strong and had the power to protect myself as a woman.”

*Increased confidence in ability to defend themselves*

The final theme is that participants often explained how the course made them feel more confident in their abilities to defend themselves. This is exemplified by a 24 year old Caucasian graduate student’s statements: “I was surprised at how confident I felt at the end. I felt really good about being able to defend myself at the end, which surprised me.” This increase in confidence was seen right away by a 46 year old Caucasian faculty member, who said, “I noticed immediately that I felt much more confident, that I could defend myself.” Finally, a 56 year old Caucasian retired woman responded about what she learned about herself as a result of the course,

“I don’t know if I’d say that it was new, wasn’t like anything shocking, but I did things that I didn’t know I could do. I think if you had said to me, ‘do you think you can do this?’ I probably would have said, well, ‘yeah, if I needed to.’ But, I learned that I really could.”

**Discussion**

Based on these findings, it is apparent that female self-defense participants do change their self-descriptions in a positive manner as a result of the course. These changes are focused around emotional attributes, such as being less shy and more expressive, empowered, and confident. These traits are particularly important in light of experiencing potential future victimization, as women need to value themselves enough to actually fight back (McCaughey, 1998). Women also reported feeling more aggressive and angry after the course, which in terms of self-defense, can be seen in a positive light, as the women may be more likely to use the skills learned in the course. In addition, past research has shown that women who reported feeling more anger and less fear during an attack were more likely to avoid rape (Bart & O’Brien, 1985; Levine-MacCombie & Koss, 1986; Scheppele & Bart, 1983), highlighting the importance of self-defense affecting these feelings in participants. Related to this, RAD participants mentioned feeling safer and less fearful but at the same time being more cautious and aware of surroundings. It appears that the women’s reduced fear is balanced by being more alert and cautious. The increased feelings of safety also likely results from the women being more prepared to deal with a potential assault. Respondents also felt stronger and more confident in their abilities to defend themselves through the use of physical and verbal techniques taught in the class, in other words, increased self-defense self-efficacy. It is argued that if a woman believes that she can successfully defend herself against assault, she may be more likely to resist if faced with an actual assault (Ozer & Bandura, 1990). Women need to believe that they are capable of fighting back. As explained by a 25 year old Caucasian graduate student,
“If there is somebody coming at me, I’m not going to let them, I’m not going to be a passive victim. I’m going to at least fight. And I think that a lot of women were surprised about that; that they don’t just stand there and take it. I think that that’s something that society would be kind of interested to know too; that when you are under the gun, you really do your best to defend yourself.”

However, there are limitations of this study that need to be discussed. Only 34 interviews with female RAD participants were conducted, and interviewee experiences discussed here may only generalize to the specific RAD course at this Midwestern university. In addition, it is possible that the participants with the more positive experiences agreed to be interviewed. More research needs to be conducted on the wide range of potential benefits of women’s self-defense training.

In summary, self-defense training can lead to several beneficial changes in female participants. Self-defense training may provide women not only with the skills to effectively fight back against future assaults but also many other positive emotional and behavioral changes. In addition, similar to Hollander’s (2004) findings, it seems that self-defense training can affect women in unexpected ways and in many different areas of their lives, as evidenced by the following two quotes. According to a 23 year old bi-racial undergraduate student,

“Change wise, I’d have to say I’m a much stronger person. I can handle any situation that comes my way. Be it issues with school, issues with friends, issues with my living situation, I now have a much better idea of how to handle situations and what my first line of backup would be in handling the situation.”

Furthermore, a 72 year old Caucasian staff member explained “I know that it (the course) helped me back in many areas of my life. Life is just more joyful. I feel confident, I feel like I could whip the world.” In conclusion, self-defense seems to be a strategy that helps women to fight back effectively against sexual assault, but just as importantly changes the female participants in several beneficial ways.
References
Mobile Screening Van: Initial Results From Community Outreach To Identify Developmental Risks or Delays in Children Ages 0 – 8 Years

Joannie Busillo---Aguayo, Ed.D. Ivor Weiner, Ph.D.
Victoria Berrey, MPH

Introduction
The Importance of Development in the Early Years

- Brain development is most rapid in the first few years and is highly malleable.
- The first five years of life form the foundation for higher level critical thinking, problem solving, and social emotional skills.
- Low-income and disadvantaged children are at high risk for developmental, learning, or behavioral challenges.
- Early intervention can be highly effective – and less costly – in modifying brain architecture and improving children’s developmental and academic trajectories.

"It is critical to intervene early in life, in the crucial window when the brain is developing and the foundations for adult life are being laid.”

Nicholas Kristof and Sheryl WuDunn
A Path Appears

LEARN MORE AT HECKMANEQUATION.ORG

(Heckman, 2014; National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, 2007; Shonkoff et al., 2012a; Shonkoff et al., 2012b; Tout et al., 2013)
The Need for Developmental Screening

1 in 68 children have an autism spectrum disorder*

- 15% to 17% of children 0-18 years have an emotional, behavioral, or developmental concern. (CDC, 2014)
- The average age of diagnosis for autism is between 4 and 5 years old – even though it can be reliably diagnosed at 2 years of age. (Rosenberg et al., 2013)
- Only 30% of children under 6 years of age receive a developmental screening. (Shattuck et al., 2012b)
- Children are less likely to be screened and identified if they are low-income, Hispanic, or Black. (Mandell et al., 2009)
- Less than 3% of children < 3 years of age and 5% of preschool-aged children receive early intervention – even though 13% would be eligible if identified. (Rosenberg et al., 2013)

* 2014 Community Report from the Autism and Developmental Disabilities Monitoring (ADDM) Network

Recommendations for Developmental Screening and Surveillance

"American Academy of Pediatrics and Centers for Disease Control and Prevention recommend universal developmental surveillance to assess developmental (and behavioral) risk and determine whether a standardized screening is necessary at the majority of well visits in the first 5 years of life." (Marks et al., 2011, p. 8)

General Developmental Screening at: 9, 18, 24 months
Autism Screening at: 18 and 24 months

- Early identification of risk or delay
- Referral for further assessment and early intervention services when needed
- Monitoring/tracking children with developmental concerns
- Follow-up and coordination with medical, educational, and community resources

Only 6% of children identified by their physician as being at risk for delays are referred for comprehensive developmental assessment
CVS Caremark Foundation provided a grant to purchase and equip the van with bright, cheerful colors, English/Spanish graphics, and an inside seating area for private consultation with parents after the screening.

The Van traveled to locations and events centrally located within “hard to reach” low-income, Hispanic communities that frequently face barriers in accessing well-child visits with a medical provider.

FFRC developed partnerships with family and child agencies that provided assistance and support for further medical care, developmental assessment, early intervention services, or resources for low-income families, such as WIC or Head Start.
The FFRC Mobile Developmental Screening Project Involved Partnerships with Multiple Agencies Serving Children and Families*

*Links to these resources are located in reference section

(Busillo-Aguayo et al., 2015)
FFRC Leveraged Resources Through Cross-Agency Collaboration

- Trained CSUN Early Childhood Education master’s students as part of their coursework to administer screening and to communicate with families using family-centered, culturally responsive family interactions.

- Accessed community events through Child Care Resource Center (CCRC) that provides programs, projects and services to 35,000 children and families each month within Los Angeles and San Bernardino Counties.

- CCRC notified families of events and informed child care providers of importance of developmental screening.

- Developed prior agreements of understanding with state agencies responsible for finding and assessing children for early intervention and early childhood special education.

- Facilitated referrals to agencies to ensure that families and children accessed recommended assessments and services.

(Busillo---Aguayo et al., 2015)
The FFRC Mobile Screening Van in the Community

Graduate Students Volunteers

FFRC Staff University Faculty
(Busillo-Aguayo et al., 2015)

Methods
Reaching our Target Population

- We took the Mobile Screening Van into “hard to reach” low-income, ethnically and culturally diverse communities at events where large numbers of families and young children would be attending. (Bricker et al., 2013; Illand et al., 2012; Mandell et al., 2009;)
- We set up a play area with toys and activities designed to be inviting and friendly to families and young children.
- Each child received a coloring book (English and Spanish) and box of crayons – whether they were screened or not.
- Families were not obligated to complete a screening in order for their children to participate in the play area.
- We provided materials on development and community resources.

We used the Parent’s Evaluation of Developmental Status (PEDS) questions asked on the PEDS

1. Do you have any concerns about your child’s learning, development, and behavior?
2. Do you have any concerns about how your child talks and makes speech sounds?
3. Do you have any concerns about how your child understands what you say?
4. Do you have any concerns about how your child uses his or her hands and fingers to do things?
5. Do you have any concerns about how your child uses his or her arms and legs?
6. Do you have any concerns about how your child behaves?
7. Do you have any concerns about how your child gets along with others?
8. Do you have any concerns about how your child is learning to do things for himself/herself?
9. Do you have any concerns about how your child is learning preschool or school skills?
10. Please list any other concerns.

(Busillo-Aguayo et al., 2015; Hanson et al., 2011)
### Positive Concerns at Specific Ages on the Peds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>Concerns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 4 – 5 months | 1. Overall concerns about learning, development, or behavior  
2. Speech (talking)  
7. Social Skills (relationships)  
10. Any concerns not previously recorded |
| 18m – 2 years | 1, 2, 3, 10  
1, 2, 10 As above  
3. Language (understanding) |
| 3 – 4 ½ years | 1, 2, 3, 5, 10  
1, 2, 10 As above  
5. Gross Motor |
| 4 ½ --- 8 years | 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 9, 10  
1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 9, 10  
4. Fine Motor  
9. Learning and preschool or school skills |

* Items 1 and 10 are open ended and are always coded as concern when expressed by parent.  
* Items 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9 are predictive concerns depending on age of child 

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### Procedures

Volunteers and staff invited parents and children to engage in play activities. We explained that all children should have a developmental screening and that we were offering free screenings; then we asked if they would like to complete a short questionnaire.

- **If Yes**
  - Parents signed an informed consent form that included information about child’s age, gender, ethnicity, and zip code. We instructed parents about the purpose of the PEDS and how to complete the PEDS Response Form.
  - Provided a private place for parents to complete the PEDS. Volunteers engaged children in age-appropriate play activities near parent.
  - If 2 or more predictive concerns  
    - Staff shared results with family privately and with sensitivity. We offered assistance with next steps (referral for further assessment).
  - No --- predictive concerns  
    - Staff and volunteers scored the PEDS with parent and asked follow-up questions to ensure that parent understood questions and that all concerns were identified.

- **If No**
  - We shared materials on development and community resources for families and young children.
  - Assured parents that child’s development was on track and offered community resources should they have questions in the future.
Results

(Busillo—Aguayo et al., 2015; Hanson et al., 2011)
Characteristics of Children Screened
N = 96

- Over the course of 6 months we screened 96 children.
- A slightly larger number of males were screened and almost 60% were Hispanic and 11% identified themselves as being bi-racial.
- The majority of children were between 15 to 36 months of age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Screened</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bi-Racial</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Child's Age

- 33% of children screened had 2 or more predictive concerns
- 30% of children had 2 or more non-predictive concerns based on parent report

Screening Results

*Two or more predictive concerns indicates high predictability for delays and should be referred for further assessment; or at any time when parents express concerns about their child's development.*

- 38% were referred for further assessments to state agencies designated to evaluate and provide early intervention when needed.
- 23% were referred to community programs such as Head Start or programs in the community for families and young children.
Discussion and Next Steps
Discussion

- Results showed that using a mobile screening van in communities where low-income and Hispanic families live can effectively reach these “hard to reach” populations. (Bricker et al., 2013; Guevara et al., 2013)

- A higher than expected percentage of children exhibited at least 1 predictive concern (56%) – or 3+ non-predictive concerns (9%) that indicate need for monitoring or assessment.

- 33% had 2 or more concerns that met PEDS criteria for further assessment.

- Findings suggest that large numbers of children are not being screened in spite of the increase in prevalence of developmental-learning challenges and the CDC/AAP recommendations for universal developmental surveillance at all well-child visits. (Marks et al., 2011; Rosenberg et al., 2013)

Limitations

- While our findings are similar to what is described in other larger scale studies, the results cannot be generalized because of the lack of randomized sample and small sample size. (Maltese et al., 2011; Roux et al., 2012; Schonwald et al., 2009; Shattuck et al., 2009)

- The population was predominately Hispanic and was not representational of the diversity of Los Angeles County (e.g., Caucasian, Black, Asian, Armenian, Russian).

- The Project was a pilot to determine the feasibility of reaching families and children in their communities with the Mobile Developmental Screening Van. (Busillo-Aguayo et al., 2015)
Next Steps

- Leverage existing partnerships and create new ones with agencies that provide resources and supports to families. (Bricker et al., 2013)
- Strengthen follow-up with families after children are screened to ensure they are able to access services and resources. (Marshall et al., 2014)
- Follow families for longer period of time to understand what happens after the screening and referral process. (Marshall et al., 2014)
- Expand community screening to reach a higher number of children from a cross section of diverse cultural, linguistic, and ethnic backgrounds. (Illand et al., 2012; Lakes et al., 2009; Mandell et al., 2009)
- Explore strategies to train the early childhood education workforce to increase the capacity and sustainability of developmental screening. (Bricker et al., 2013; Johnson--Staub et al., 2012; Shonkoff et al., 2012; Tout et al., 2013)
- Reach out to family child care providers who care for large numbers of children 0–3 and may not know how to administer screening as part of their practice. (Johnson--Staub et al., 2012)

References
References


The Heckman Equation http://heckmanequation.org/


References Continued


Selected Resources
California Early Start (California’s lead agency for early intervention services --- birth to 3 years of age) http://www.dds.ca.gov/earlystart/

California Department of Education (California’s lead agency for special education services – 3 to 21 years) http://www.cde.ca.gov/sp/spca/

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (Information related to developmental disabilities) http://www.cdc.gov/ncbddd/developmentaldisabilities/index.html

Child Care Resource Center http://www.crrcca.org/

Family Focus Resource Center http://www.csun.edu/familyfocus/resourcecenter

First 5 Los Angeles http://www.first5la.org/

211-LA https://www.211la.org/

Contact:
Joannie Busillo---Aguyao
Assistant Professor – M.A. in Early Childhood Education--- Program Option
Department of Educational Psychology and Counseling
Phone: (818) 677---5725
Email: jaguyao@csun.edu

California State University, Northridge
18111 Nordhoff St.
Northridge, CA 91330
Not That Kind Of Scientist:
Creating an Online BA Program in Social Science

Adam Criblez
Lily Santoro
Southeast Missouri State University
Abstract:
Having identified a need for a skills-based degree option for online-only students at Southeast Missouri State University, the History Department began planning and implementation of the Bachelor of Arts in Social Science in 2012. Focusing on the initial design and first year implementation (2013-2014), this paper explores some of the technical and pedagogical challenges faced by the faculty in the pilot year. The authors also identify several changes made in an effort to improve student success in as the program continues to grow in the coming years.

Introduction:
In 2012, the History Department at Southeast Missouri State University proposed the creation of a new Bachelor of Arts in Social Science (B.A.S.S.). The program, it was hoped, would address at least two growing concerns:

1. Rectify declining enrollments facing many history departments across the nation by tapping into the growing demand for online-only degree programs.
2. Improve employment opportunities for online undergraduates in the College of Liberal Arts by offering a more marketable/skills-based program meeting the needs of a population that had been - by and large - enrolled in the BA of General Studies (a degree that gave the students almost no clear path, and tended to be rejected by employers as one that did not provide students with a well-defined skill set).

The BA in Social Science was intended to equip students with the reading, research, and analytical skills integral to social science disciplines. Students enrolled in the Social Science BA program would have the opportunity to concentrate on a single discipline, but would be given the flexibility that comes with online learning and a broad-based curriculum. As originally designed, students would benefit from a partnership among several social science departments, while also enjoying the bureaucratic ease of having their major located in a single department.

To ensure that Social Science majors received a base level of knowledge (something lacking in the BA of General Studies program), all Social Science students would be required to complete a three course sequence of requirements:

- OS-200- Survey of Social Science
- OS-300 – Problems in Social Science
- OS-400 – Social Science Research Methods

Together, these three required courses would provide students a familiarity with the methods and practices of the major social science disciplines and supplement their intended field of specialty.
First Year Pilot:

The Social Science program was first implemented in Fall 2013, when Dr. Lily Santoro taught OS-200 (Survey of Social Science) online. By the first day of class, we had 18 majors (most having migrated from the General Studies program)—reinforcing the History Department’s argument that a demand for such a program already existed at the university.

In planning and teaching OS-200, we had three learning goals in mind:

1. Introduce students to the main disciplines within social science.
2. Enable students to identify the research and thinking methods that separate social science disciplines from the physical sciences and humanities.
3. Give students practice identifying topics and questions that are regularly studied by social scientists.

In the first few weeks, it became apparent that achieving these goals would be more difficult than expected. Even before the term, several students emailed to ask if they could add the course because they needed to fulfill their science requirements. After the course was underway, students’ introductory forum posts demonstrated their concerns about being enrolled in a “science class.” To achieve any of the course goals, we would need to start by answering the most basic question: “What is social science?” As the class discussed each new discipline, Dr. Santoro consistently reminded the students to consider what made this field a social science and how it differed from the humanities and physical sciences.

For this introductory course, we adopted an “appreciation model.” Much like an art or music appreciation course, students were expected to demonstrate the ability to identify and analyze the work of social scientists, but they were not required to do any original research. In essence, we hoped students would be able to identify the major concepts and methods used by each of the major fields of social science and then identify social science research and applications in the world around them. To achieve these goals, Dr. Santoro assigned her students a survey textbook and quizzed them over its content each week. Students were also asked to identify important terms and provide definitions for a course-level glossary to be shared by all students. To help students think about the application of social science research to the world around them, the instructor required students to identify current news articles that featured topics and issues being discussed in the week’s textbook assignment and explain how social scientists were (or were not) helping to address or explain the issues at hand. Students were expected to write a brief essay explaining the application of course material to these outside topics and were expected to post their chosen article for class discussion in the weekly forum. The topics and case studies chosen by students ranged from the application of sociological methods to study “gamers” as a subculture to the limits of basic economic principles for
understanding the price of chocolate. Over the course of the semester, weekly discussion forums were used to gauge student understanding of the course material and their ability to apply social science thinking to the world in which they lived. In the final two weeks of class, students were encouraged to consider all that they had learned about the methods and principles of the social sciences as they debated an age-old question—is History a social science?

In the Spring of 2014, the growing number of social science majors were required to take the next required course in the Social Science sequence, OS-300 (Problems in Social Science), taught one of the leaders in developing the new major, Dr. Dalton Curtis. Having conceived of the course as one that would rotate among faculty across the disciplines, the course was supposed to take a different specific discipline as its focus for each semester. In Spring 2014, that discipline was history. Students were introduced to the basic principles of historical thinking and research methodology. They were asked to consider major problems in the field of history and the methodologies used to study the past. Assignments included a literature search and annotated bibliography with an emphasis on understanding how historians reinterpret the major problems over time.

Assessment of the First Year – Institutional Concerns:

In its first year, the History Department faced two fundamental challenges in implementing the Bachelor of Arts in Social Science: the limitations inherent to being housed with in a history department and the challenges of working with students in an exclusively online environment.

History’s status as a social science or a humanity is a discussion that continues beyond our survey classroom. Many historians use social science tools and methodologies in their research; some supplement their own work with the findings of anthropologists, sociologists, and economists, for example. And many historians consider their approach to studying the past as a social scientific method (especially cliometricians, environmental historians, and economic historians). But others in the field skew closer to the humanities. For these historians, social science can be a tool, but they do not consider their own work “scientific” per se. Focusing more on close reading of texts and objects, these scholars might be uncomfortable being classified as social scientists.

Beyond philosophical concerns, the History Department also faces logistical challenges in supporting the B.A.S.S. While OS-200 and OS-400 are permanent additions to the history department’s teaching load, OS-300 was meant to be passed between social science departments. Thus far, however, such a partnership has not emerged, and all three courses continue to be taught by history faculty - creating problems within the structure of OS-300 and limiting the number of traditional history courses that can be offered by those faculty involved in the program. However, these particular concerns are likely to be improved in the coming year. The University has approved a new faculty line for the Social Science program and it is hoped that the new faculty member will have a doctorate in history in addition to a broad-based training in the social sciences.
The much greater challenge in the implementation of the new program has been that of serving a diverse student body in an online-only environment. The demographics and educational background of Social Science majors varies widely. Many of our students are second-career working adults or military veterans. While there are a few traditional college-age students, there is a significant population of working mothers and fathers, and the median age of B.A.S.S. students is much higher than that found in most face-to-face courses. The educational background of these students is also very diverse. While there are a few recent high school graduates, the majority has had some time off from school (some have had decades), and most enter the program with no background in the social sciences. In general, the students do share one goal, to complete a Bachelor’s degree that will give them skills required to succeed in the workforce.

Assessment of the First Year – Student Concerns:

After our first year of teaching OS-200 as a pilot program, we had to revisit our original pedagogical questions to determine what worked well and what did not, basing our findings almost wholly on the experiences of Dr. Santoro and Dr. Curtis. In seeking to overcome the challenges described above, we understood the need to be proactive, rather than reactive, in redressing student and faculty concerns.

First, we recognized the need to reach out to students for whom this program would be particularly beneficial. To that end, we have collaborated extensively with our University’s online degree-granting department (Southeast Online) to identify potential majors who might benefit more from a degree in Social Science than from their current major. Thus far, there have been two primary reasons why students have become Social Science majors. As detailed earlier, a majority of our students migrate from the University’s General Studies major because they want a more focused degree. We have also added a number of students interested in the Social Sciences who are unable to, or uninterested in, completing a face-to-face degree. For example, at present, our University’s Psychology department does not offer a fully online Bachelor’s degree. Psychology majors who want an online-only experience, then, have been drawn to the B.A.S.S. program.

In addition to identifying and recruiting existing student populations, we are evaluating how we deliver course materials. Fortunately, the three existing Social Science courses utilize an asynchronous online approach, allowing students to work on their own time within the parameters of the course. Most assignments are broken down by week, with firmly established due dates. Using the Moodle learning platform, students are able to log-in and participate at any time over the course of the week, allowing for a great deal of self-directed learning in which the instructor can act as learning facilitator rather than dominating instruction time.

While the asynchronous nature of the courses works well with students’ complicated schedules, many students struggle with self-directed learning in the first year of the program. Like most online courses, the drop-out rate for OS-200 and OS-300 was high (Carr, 2000; Moody, 2004; Nash, 2005). As few as 60% of
the students whose names appeared on the first week roster of OS-200 in Fall 2013 actually completed the course with a passing grade. Even the strongest students in OS-200 missed multiple weekly tasks and very few students even completed every assignment. Many students chose to complete only some requirements for a particular week, while others might complete all of the work for a few weeks, and then complete none for the following few weeks. Plagiarism was an issue in weekly forum discussions and some student papers reflected a misunderstanding of essay formatting and style.

We realized that students need more clearly written guidelines and rubrics for assignment submissions and discussion posts. Additionally, use of rubrics clears up confusion as to instructor expectations, benefitting student and teacher by clarifying course objectives. We would also need to make these guidelines and rubrics more accessible to ensure student success.

Second Year Improvements - OS-200:
As the program entered its second year, the revision process for OS-200 benefitted from a new program available at Southeast Missouri State University. In the spring of 2014, University faculty began implementing the Quality Matters (QM) rubric for new and existing online courses on a voluntary basis. In an effort to improve the success rate for students enrolled in the Survey of Social Science, Dr. Santoro completed QM training and redesigned the course to meet the QM rubric over the summer of 2014 (MarylandOnline, 2014). The course passed peer review in time for the beginning of the Fall 2014 semester. At the heart of QM redesign was an emphasis on making requirements and expectations clearer and easier to find. The redesign of the course included both visual and instructional changes. Visually, the course page included more images, and the page layout was changed from a weekly view (where students scrolled down the page to each week) to a grid view (with all of the course weekly topics represented by a clickable image). While this change appeared merely aesthetic, the resulting reduction of scrolling did allow students to think of the course as a whole, and it gave students a visual indication of upcoming topics. Photos of the instructor and the teaching assistant appeared in the upper right corner of the course page beside their contact information. Dr. Santoro also created a screen-capture video tour of the course page, to help orient students to the course content, by pointing out exactly where to find the necessary rubrics, guidelines, and University resources they might need throughout the semester.

The more significant changes made during the QM review process were instructional. More detailed assignment instructions and rubrics were created and moved to the top of the course page to improve access and visibility. Each week’s lesson now included clearly written unit learning objectives, informing the students of the goals of each week’s lesson. Quizzes were re-written, incorporating more short-answers that would allow students to demonstrate their understanding of the topic in more detail. A detailed lesson on citation strategies for papers and online discussions was added as a course requirement. This addition has significantly reduced instances of plagiarism in Fall and Spring
2014-5. We also included an untimed syllabus quiz that encourages students to become familiar with due dates and class policies early in the semester.

While attrition rates remain higher than is typical for face-to-face courses, the improvements made to the OS-200 did improve the student success rate, bringing successful completion closer to 70% in Fall 2014. In the final weeks of the class, student discussions of the history as a social science demonstrated more nuance and careful analysis of the concept of social science than the previous year’s class had.

**Second Year Improvements – OS-400:**

Utilizing these evolving understandings, we constructed the final class in the cycle – OS-400 (Social Science Research Methods) – to serve as a means to identify student comprehension over the three-course series. In OS-400, students are required to go beyond identifying particular social sciences or studying problems within those disciplines by developing a more holistic approach to research methodology. In this course, students debate ethical considerations and differentiate between various research strategies, discussing the relative merits of inductive versus deductive reasoning and types of sampling that might prove useful in real world applications. In fact, applicability is an oft-repeated notion in this course, forcing students to establish ways in which their theoretical understandings can be utilized by social scientists in various real-world settings.

As a culminating project, OS-400 students are required to develop a research proposal for a type of social science experience. Utilizing their backgrounds in OS-200 and OS-300, students might choose to compose a proposal for a history-related topic involving archival research or oral interviews; they may decide to propose a survey of their peers regarding the Ferguson, Missouri race riots; others might delve into topics of religiosity or socially constructed gender identities in compiling statistics about tolerance utilizing random sampling methods. The possibilities are endless – which brings up the biggest potential pitfall in this project. Students could be easily overwhelmed by the variety of choices. Recognizing that potential, we encourage students to begin thinking about potential research topics from the first week of the course. In fact, their very first assignment in the course asks them “What topic would you focus on if you could design a social research project without any concern for costs? What are your motives for studying this topic?” (Chambliss & Schutt, 2013). From day one, then, students begin indirectly considering their culminating project and are constantly reminded of it through the semester via mass e-mails, discussion forums, and writing assignments preparing them to compose their own original research proposal.

**Looking To the Future:**

In May of 2015, we will have completed one entire cycle of our new Social Science program with a cadre of students having taken OS-200, OS-300, and OS-400. Once again, we will need to evaluate the program with an eye toward clearly defining exactly what each of the three courses adds to student
understandings and how they work in harmony to present a well-rounded experience in the social sciences. Ideally, this three-course offering streams seamlessly from one to the other, with students experiencing them as cohorts in which they become increasingly familiar with one another, adding to the shared learning experience. So far, that approach is proving fruitful. This semester, 18 of the 24 students currently enrolled in OS-400 took OS-200 and are succeeding to a higher degree than their peers who did not first enroll in OS-200. This high correlation between success in OS-400 and a background in OS-200 is encouraging as we move forward with this program, though more research is needed before we can determine any definitive results.

The future of the Bachelor of Arts in Social Science program at Southeast Missouri State is very bright indeed. Our increasing number of majors is astounding. When the program began in the fall semester of 2013, we started with 18 majors. By the next year, we had more than doubled that number and counted 43 majors. Now, we have jumped again to 52 majors, making ours once of the fastest growing programs on our entire campus. By implementing a three-course cycle through which our students progress linearly, and through constant reevaluation of the pedagogical processes utilized in these Social Science courses, we hope to establish an environment into which our new faculty could begin growing a fully functioning program in the social sciences.

References:
Macroeconometrics of Survey Measures of Consumers Inflation Expectations

Abdullah A. Dewan
Steven C. Hayworth
Eastern Michigan University
Abstract
This paper employs a vector auto-regression framework to uncover what variables influence the inflation expectations of consumers. The paper then tests whether these expectations are unbiased and efficient. The efficiency tests are conducted using information sets derived empirically from inflation models. The results indicate that consumers form their inflation expectations based on the prices they pay and the news they hear and read about inflation. Their expectations are found to be biased and inefficient.

Introduction
Understanding the economic processes that generate inflation has been an important, yet elusive, objective for macroeconomists and monetary policy authorities. The Phillips curve notion of a trade-off between unemployment and inflation provided an early theoretical framework, but in its original form failed to provide a reliable basis for forecasting and policy-making. Efforts to augment the Phillips curve with inflation expectations and supply shocks followed and led to more sophisticated models. However, the last decade has provided yet another example of the failure of inflation and unemployment to follow a predictable relationship. Staiger, Stock, and Watson (1997) argued that the average inflation rate may fall when the unemployment rate is high, but the relationship is not particularly close (also see Gordon (1998) and Stock and Watson (1999)).

One piece of the puzzle is the role of inflation expectations in the inflation generating process. Inflation expectations affect interest rates and, consequently, investment expenditure, aggregate demand and actual inflation. They affect labor negotiations and, consequently, wages, production costs and actual inflation. Economic policies work not only through their direct effects, but also through their effects on expectations, including expectations of inflation. Thus, expectations of inflation play an important role in macroeconomic theory and policy making.

This paper seeks to understand how consumers form their inflation expectations, as reported in the University of Michigan's Surveys of Consumers. We analyze the following questions:

- Are inflation expectations formed arbitrarily?
- If not, what are the elements of the information set which the survey respondents used to generate inflation expectations?
- What are the relative contributions of the variables in the information set in explaining the formation of inflation expectations?
- Are these expectations unbiased and efficient?

Gramlich (1983) considered a vector of variables plausibly related to inflation as the basis of the inflation expectations of consumers and professionals. His variables were current and past rates of growth of money supply, unemployment or capacity utilization rate, budget deficits, the GDP gap, and supply shocks. However, it seems unlikely that consumers incorporate such
technical information into their thought process at the time of responding to a telephone survey. As Carroll (2003) argued, consumers do not solve macroeconomic models to arrive at their expectations of inflation. We believe that they base their inflation expectations on their own direct personal experiences with the market prices of goods and services, and on the news they see on television, hear on the radio and read in newspapers. The more technical variables influence consumer inflation expectations only indirectly, through their effects on the market outcomes which, in turn, are believed to influence their survey responses.

Section 1 discusses the data and methodological considerations. Sections 2 and 3 present the empirical results for consumer inflation expectations. Section 4 presents the unbiasedness and efficiency tests. The paper ends with a brief summary and conclusion.

I. Data and Methodology
A. Measures of Inflation Expectations

There are three frequently used measures of inflation expectations that are publicly available. These are obtained from the University of Michigan’s monthly Surveys of Consumers (MSC)\textsuperscript{1}; the quarterly Survey of Professional Forecasters conducted by the Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia (SPF)\textsuperscript{2}; and the semiannual Livingston Survey (SLS), also provided by the Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia. The low frequency and the resulting limited number of observations of the SLS data render it unsuitable for the vector autoregression (VAR) methodology employed in this paper. The MSC data set contains both mean and median responses to a question asking by what percent the respondent expects prices to change over the subsequent 12 months. Since the individual responses include some extreme values, which exert a disproportionate influence on the mean responses, the results reported below are based on the median responses. The SPF questionnaire gathers forecasts of the annualized inflation rate expected to occur in each of the subsequent 4 quarters. The median forecast for each quarter is calculated, and then these median forecasts for the next 4 quarters are averaged to obtain the professionals’ expectations of inflation over the next year. Our analysis focuses on monthly inflation expectations to be compatible with monthly CPI which is the most widely watched inflation measure and has the most influence on consumers, interest rates, wage contracts, financial markets and so on. The estimation begins with 1985:1, with 1984 data reserved for initial conditions. The period prior to 1984 was excluded so as to avoid any potential distorting effects from the monetary policy regime changes in October 1979 and October 1982.

We cut off the sample period after 2004:02 for several compelling reasons. Preliminary analysis showed serious anomalies in the data because of the influences of the financial market chaos that began in the fourth quarter of 2007 followed by debilitating layoffs and job losses triggered by the Great Recession that began in 2007:Q4. The data between 2004:02 and 2005:01 were reserved for initial conditions.
Most of the variables used in the analysis are expressed in percentage change form to make them conform to the MSC series as they appear in their primary source. 

**B. Testing Unbiasedness and Efficiency**

The unbiasedness and efficiency of inflation forecasts have been the subject of many empirical studies (see, for instance, Mehra (2002), Thomas (1999), Ehrbeck and Waldman (1996), Gramlich (1983), Bryan and Gavin (1986), Brown and Maital (1981), Pearce (1979)). To test the unbiasedness of an inflation forecast, the widely used procedure is to estimate the following regression equation:

\[ \Pi_t = \alpha + \beta \Pi_{t-1} + u_t \]

where \( \Pi_t \) = actual inflation at time t, and \( \Pi_{t-1} \) = previously made forecast of inflation at time t. Under the null hypothesis that forecasts are unbiased, \((\alpha, \beta) = (0, 1)\) jointly.

To test for efficiency we estimate the regression of the forecast errors \( (\Pi_t - \Pi_{t-1}) \) on the set of inflation generating variables that are obtained from our empirical analyses. The test equation has the following form:

\[ e_t = \delta + \phi Z_{t-1} + \mu_t \]

where \( e_t = \Pi_t - \Pi_{t-1} \). The information set \( Z_{t-1} \) includes ‘relevant variables’ that are believed to be determinants of inflation.

A pertinent question when testing for efficiency is which variables should be included in this information set. Several studies have used information sets which appear to be based on variants of traditional theories of inflation. Mehra (2002) used a one period lag of inflation, the GDP gap, money growth and crude oil prices to test the efficiency of inflation expectations from the SLS, MSC, and SPF. Thomas (1999) also used a one period lag of inflation, the GDP gap, M1 and M2 money growth, and the producer price index for fuel to test the efficiency of inflation expectations from the MSC and SLS series. In addition, Thomas included consumer inflation expectations as an independent variable in testing the efficiency of the expectations of professionals, and vice versa. It thus seems that there is no unique information set, justified by economic theory, with which to test the hypothesis of efficiency.

An additional concern with earlier studies is that some of the variables included in the information set may have theoretical appeal but little or no predictive content for inflation (e.g. the unemployment rate, federal government expenditures, budget deficits, money growth, and credit growth). In fact, it has not been common practice to test whether the variables included in the information set used in tests of efficiency are empirically relevant or not for forecasting inflation. Our approach is a two-step procedure: We first specify a VAR model with variables that have substantial predictive component of inflation. We then proceed to conduct tests for efficiency of survey responses of inflation expectations against this information set.
C. Methodology

The empirical analysis of this paper uses the VAR technique popularized by Sims (1980). Within this framework, we use Granger causality tests and Sims’ innovations accounting, also called forecast error variance (FEV) decomposition (see Abdullah (1994), Cooley and Leroy (1985)). These techniques are used to assess the relative importance of variables and to select those which have the most predictive content.\(^\text{13}\)

Stationarity of each series was checked by conducting the Augmented Dickey-Fuller unit root test.\(^\text{4}\) To specify the optimal number of lags in the VAR, we use the likelihood ratio test implemented in Abdullah and Rangazas (1988) and in numerous other studies. Our analysis required specifying two VAR models for the monthly MSC series. The first model identifies the variables that best explain the survey respondents’ inflation forecasts, and the second model is used to identify the relevant information set for the efficiency test.

To specify the monthly models of inflation expectations, we examined a number of variables in our preliminary analysis. These included factors available from the MSC, such as consumer sentiment and news about prices and unemployment, and economic variables such as the components of the CPI for college tuition and fees, for prescription drugs and medical supplies, and for food away from home; money growth; budget deficits; and wages. The final specification was selected by examining the adjusted $R^2$, the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), the Schwarz Information Criterion (SIC), the S.E. of the forecast, and the size of the unexplained proportion of the variance of inflation expectations.

II. Empirical Expectations Model

The results of our analysis specify a monthly model for consumer inflation expectations (CIE) that includes the percentage change in the price of regular, unleaded gasoline (GAS), the percentage change in the food component of the CPI (FOOD), the percentage change in the medical care component of the CPI (MCARE), the CPI inflation rate (INF), and unfavorable news about unemployment (UNEWS). The variable UNEWS records the number of respondents replying that they heard unfavorable news about unemployment. The inclusion of UNEWS reflects the argument of Carroll (2003) that consumers do not track economic statistics for themselves, but rather their macroeconomic views are obtained from and influenced by the news media. UNEWS is expressed in first difference form to induce stationarity. Despite the fact that FOOD and MCARE are components of INF, they are included as separate regressors to capture their independent effects. The model reflects the idea that gasoline prices, food prices, and medical care costs are experienced by people daily, whereas the inflation rate is a news item about which they hear or read.

As noted above, we estimated and analyzed 12 lag VAR models over two sample periods, namely, (a) 1985:01 – 2003:07 and (b) 2005:01 – 2011:12. Estimations of two periods have been dictated by economic events during the Great Recession. The beginning of the estimation periods were chosen by the
availability of data for all variables at a common date. We were also required to leave enough observations for setting initial conditions for model specifications and post estimation dynamic analyses.

For the variance decompositions, it is necessary to select an ordering of the variables from most exogenous to most endogenous (see Appendix). This establishes a nested hierarchy according to which innovations in each variable either do or do not influence the other variables contemporaneously. Although we are not attempting to infer any structural interpretations, the estimated FEV would purge the effects of the potential conditional correlations emphasized by Cooley and Leroy (1985). The ordering in the variance decompositions for the CIE model is: GAS, FOOD, MCARE, NEWS, INF, and CIE. This ordering is intuitively motivated and based on the idea that energy prices are relatively exogenous. Food and medical care prices may depend to some extent on energy prices, for example via production and transportation costs, and so are placed next in the ordering. UNEWS and INF reflect the overall macroeconomic situation, and thus are placed toward the end. The orderings used in the subsequent variance decompositions presented below are based on similar logic. In all cases, we examined the correlation matrix before deciding on the ordering, but found no clear pattern to suggest any particular sequencing of the variables. We also computed the variance decompositions under alternative orderings, but found no sensitivity of the results.

The results of Granger causality tests and variance decompositions are presented in Tables 1a and 1b. Table 1a shows that all variables, except FOOD, Granger cause CIE at a marginal significance level of 2%. However, as argued by Cooley and Leroy (1985), Granger non-causality is not a sufficient condition to reject the importance of a variable. As shown in Table 2a, FOOD accounts for 31.76% of the FEV of CIE at the 18 month horizon, and hence is considered the most important variable influencing consumers’ formation of inflation expectations. The other 4 variables in the model account for between 10% and 17% each. The remaining variance of about 18% is explained by CIE own-innovations. These findings appear consistent with our a priori notion that consumers’ inflation expectations are based essentially on what they see, what they hear, what they read, and what they pay. However, as we argued above we find some inconsistency in Granger causality over the second sample period (the period of Great Recession) – only Gas and INF Granger cause CIE. The FEV decompositions in Table 2b show that over the 2005:01 - 2011:12 the FEV of CIE explained by FOOD is only 8.81%. During this period GAS prices accounted for 23.62% of the variance of CIE followed by INF (14.48%), UNEWS (13.04%), FOOD (8.81%), MCARE (6.25%) and own innovations (33.77%). Comparing the FEV decompositions presented in Table 2a and 2b we find that past inflation and UNEWS remained virtually invariant over both sample periods.

It is notable that the variable UNEWS Granger causes CIE and accounts for approximately 13% of its variance, whereas the actual unemployment rate (results not reported) was found to have no role in the formation of consumer inflation expectations. The unemployment rate is a lagging indicator and, as such, might be expected by professionals to have little predictive content for
inflation. However, the typical consumer is not likely to be aware of this. It seems that consumers do not factor the unemployment rate into their inflation expectations, unless it increases enough to register in their minds as “newsworthy” (unfavorable news about unemployment). This may indicate that there is a threshold level for unemployment rate changes, below which consumers ignore it, but beyond which they react to it. This finding suggests that consumers also might react when making decisions, such as spending decisions, not to the unemployment rate per se, but rather to changes in it that are sizable enough to qualify as “newsworthy” to them.

A number of other variables were explored in our effort to ascertain what factors consumers rely on when responding to the telephone survey about inflation expectations. One noteworthy finding was that favorable news about unemployment does not seem to play a role, while unfavorable news does. This suggests that bad news is more likely to attract attention and affect the psychology of consumers than good news. There appears to be an asymmetry in the response of consumers to good news and to bad news, at least insofar as inflation expectations are concerned.

A. VAR model for Actual Inflation

Testing the efficiency of expected inflation requires the determinants of actual inflation. Rather than choosing the information set based on intuition or economic theory we decided to identify them empirically. Accordingly, we estimated a VAR model for actual inflation. The variables are carefully selected to capture both supply side and demand side effects. The supply side is represented by variables reflecting the cost of energy, the cost of materials and supplies, and the cost of labor. These variables are the price of crude oil (OIL), the producer price index for intermediate goods (PPIM), and real average hourly earnings for workers in the private sector (EARN). The demand side is represented by the industrial capacity utilization rate (CAP) and real personal consumption expenditures (PCE). All variables are expressed in percentage change form, with the exception of CAP which is expressed in first difference form to induce stationarity. A VAR(12) model was estimated over the sample period 1985:01 – 2004:02. The variance decompositions (based on the ordering: OIL, PPIM, EARN, PCE, CAP, INF), presented in Table 3, show that the variables as a group account for nearly 75% of the variance of INF at the 18 months horizon. OIL is the most important contributor, accounting for about 22.3%. PPIM, EARN, and PCE each account for 12% - 15%, while CAP explains only 8%. These results suggest that the supply side factors are considerably more important than the demand side factors. Granger causality tests (not presented) and variance decompositions in Table 3 clearly suggest the use of OIL, PPIM, EARN, PCE, CAP, and INF as the relevant information set to use for the efficiency test of consumer inflation expectations.

B. Results of Unbiasedness Tests

As discussed earlier, the test for unbiasedness is based on a regression in which the dependent variable is the actual inflation rate during the 12 months subsequent to the survey (INF), the independent variable is the median response to the consumer inflation expectations (CIE) survey data.
The null hypothesis: \[ H_0 : (\alpha, \beta) = (0,1) \].

The estimated equation over the sample period 1985:01 - 2003:07:

\[
\text{INF} = 0.11 + 0.94 \text{CIE} \quad 1a \\
\quad (0.32) \quad (8.74)
\]

\[ R^2(\text{adj}) = 0.26, \quad D-W = 0.23, \quad \text{SER} = 0.98, \quad \text{AIC} = 2.81, \quad \text{SIC} = 2.85 \]

The estimated equation over the sample period 2005:01 - 2011:12

\[
\text{INF} = 6.54 - 1.26 \text{CIE} \quad 1b \\
\quad (9.63) \quad (-6.10)
\]

\[ R^2(\text{adj}) = 0.276, \quad D-W = 0.20, \quad \text{SER} = 1.347, \quad \text{AIC} = 3.45, \quad \text{SIC} = 3.51 \]

where t-statistics are in parentheses, SER = Standard Error of Regression, AIC = Akaike Information Criterion, and SIC = Schwarz Information Criterion. The AIC and the SIC values are useful in assessing the performance of alternative models. For example, the lower the values of AIC and SIC, the better is the fit of the model and the better are both the in-sample and out-of-sample forecast performances.

The Wald test for the joint null hypothesis \((\alpha = 0, \beta = 1)\), that consumer inflation expectations are unbiased, cannot be rejected \((F = 0.70, \text{Prob} = 0.49)\). However, the D-W of 0.23 indicates a serious serial correlation problem. The implication of the presence of serial correlation is that previous period residuals contain information which could be used to improve the forecast of inflation. This finding is consistent with some earlier studies (see Gramlich (1983)). However, the presence of serial correlation as evidence of inefficiency has been questioned by subsequent authors (see, for example, Cukierman (1986)). They argued that it is not unusual even for rational agents to confuse and fail to correctly discriminate between the effects of temporary and permanent shocks to aggregate supply and demand. As a consequence, if permanent shocks are inadvertently viewed as being temporary, agents will make repeated one sided forecast errors. Following Brown and Maital (1981) and Jonung and Laidler (1988), we conducted the joint coefficient test after adding the appropriate error process. The re-estimated equation indicated a D-W statistic of 1.89 and the Wald test for the joint null hypothesis was then convincingly rejected \((F = 301.70, \text{Prob} = 0.000)\). The conclusion is that consumers are biased in their inflation expectations. This finding is consistent with Roberts (1997).

In order to assess the nature of the bias we estimated the regression equation \((1a\) and \(1b)\) in reverse form, with CIE as the dependent variable and the subsequent actual inflation rate (INF) as the independent variable. The estimated equation over the sample period 1985:01 - 2003:07 with second order AR coefficients is:

\[
\text{CIE} = 3.67 - 0.25 \text{INF} + 0.73 \text{e}_{t-1} + 0.21 \text{e}_{t-2} \\
\quad (8.83) \quad (-3.76) \quad (11.03) \quad (3.11) \\
\]

\[ R^2(\text{adj}) = 0.75, \quad D-W = 2.01, \quad \text{SER} = 20.94, \quad \text{AIC} = 0.508, \quad \text{SIC} = 0.569 \]
The estimated equation over the sample period 2005:m01 - 2011:m12 with second order AR coefficients is:

\[
CIE = 3.93 - 0.29\ INF + 0.89\ e_{t-1} + 0.09\ e_{t-2} \\
\text{(8.83)} \quad (-4.41) \quad (7.97) \quad (-0.84)
\]

\[R^2 \text{ (adj)} = 0.74, \quad \text{D-W} = 2.01, \quad \text{SER} = 0.36, \quad \text{AIC} = 0.856, \quad \text{SIC} = 0.972\]

The negative coefficient on INF indicates that consumer inflation expectations tend to be too low in periods when inflation is high. Similarly, consumers tend to expect higher inflation that will actually occur in periods of low inflation. This may reflect a time lag in the process of the adjustment of inflation expectations to changes in actual inflation.

**C. Results of Efficiency Tests**

1. Consumer Inflation Expectations

   The efficiency test for CIE is conducted by regressing the forecast error in consumer inflation expectations (CIEFE) on the information set (OIL, PPIM, EARN, PCE, CAP, INF) determined by the monthly inflation model presented above. The estimated equation (over the sample period 1985:01 – 2003:07) is:

\[
CIEFE = 0.052 - 0.002OIL_{t-1} - 0.131PPIM_{t-1} - 0.146EARN_{t-1} + 0.014PCE_{t-1} + 0.375CAP_{t-1} - 0.032INF_{t-1} \\
\text{(3)}
\]

\[\text{(0.320)} \quad \text{(-0.220)} \quad \text{(-0.724)} \quad \text{(-0.391)} \quad \text{(0.113)} \quad \text{(-0.84)}
\]

\[R^2 \text{ (adj)} = 0.033 \quad \text{D-W} = 0.279 \quad \text{SER} = 0.980 \quad \text{AIC} = 2.829 \quad \text{SIC} = 2.936\]

where * denotes significant at 1%

The significance of the coefficient associated with CAP suggests that consumer inflation expectations are inefficient with respect to capacity utilization. This finding seems plausible, since the typical consumer is not expected to process information embedded in CAP in forming inflation expectations. However, the Wald test for the joint null hypothesis that all of the coefficients are equal to zero cannot be rejected (F = 1.268, Prob = 0.268).

**V. Summary and Conclusion**

The primary motivation for this research was to understand how consumers form their inflation expectations, as reported in the University of Michigan's Surveys of Consumers. The empirical analyses were devoted to answering the following questions: What are the elements of the information set which enters the mind of the consumer when making responses to the survey questionnaire about expected inflation? What are the relative contributions of the variables in the information sets in explaining the formation of inflation expectations? Are these inflation expectations unbiased and efficient?
The empirical findings suggest that consumers form their inflation expectations on the basis of gasoline prices, food prices, the costs of medical care, the past inflation rate and unfavorable news about unemployment. Over 81% of the FEV of consumer inflation expectations are accounted for by these five variables at the 18 month horizon. Testing the efficiency of consumer inflation expectations against the empirically determined information set indicates that they are inefficient with respect to industrial capacity utilization. The hypothesis that consumer inflation expectations are unbiased is rejected.

This paper makes two primary contributions to the literature on inflation expectations. The research empirically identifies the variables upon which consumers base their inflation expectations. It then tests the efficiency of these expectations against information sets derived empirically rather than the information sets dictated by traditional economic theory.

Endnotes
1. The Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan publishes the Surveys of Consumers. These report the responses of at least 500 extensive telephone interviews that are conducted each month.
2. The Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia publishes the quarterly Survey of Professional Forecasters. This reports the results from questionnaires returned by approximately 3 dozen professional forecasters. The questions request forecasts of the CPI annualized inflation rate in each of the subsequent 4 quarters. The median responses for the 4 quarters are then averaged to obtain a forecast of the CPI inflation rate over the next 12 months.
3. We have not invoked co-integration tests because all of the variables used in the analysis are not stationary in the same order of integration - a violation of the requirement for co-integration to exist.
4. These estimated statistics and other results not presented in the paper are available upon request.
5. The pitfalls associated with Granger causality tests were discussed at length in Abdullah (1994). Granger non-causality does not imply that the variable has no predictive content and should be excluded from the analysis (Cooley and Leroy (1985)). As discussed in Abdullah and Rangazas (1988), a variable may not Granger-cause another variable, yet it may still explain a substantial proportion of the forecast error variance of the other variable and, hence, cannot be dropped from consideration. A finding of Granger non-causality may arise from misspecified lag lengths, data transformations, data aggregation, omission of relevant variables, collinearity of regressors, and choice of model variables and sample period.
6. It is customary in the VAR literature to quote the FEV at a time horizon of 12 to 18 periods to allow the effects of the initial shock to evolve over time and then attain a stable equilibrium. The decomposed FEVs for several forecast horizons are presented to show the dynamics of the system.
7. In our preliminary specifications, following Gramlich (1983), we considered several other demand side variables such as the unemployment rate, industrial production, federal government budget deficits/surpluses, federal government
outlays, M1, M2, and the monetary base. None of these variables Granger cause the inflation rate, nor do any of these variables account for more than 5% of the variance of inflation. While these variables may (or may not) have information content for future inflation, expecting consumers to relate these variables to future inflation while responding to a telephone survey does not seem plausible.

References

**Table 1a: Granger Causality Tests for Expected Inflation**
Sample period: 1985:01 – 2003:07

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<th>Null Hypothesis</th>
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<th>Conclusion</th>
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<td>MCARE does not cause CIE</td>
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Note:
GAS = %Δ in regular unleaded gasoline price, FOOD = %Δ in food component of CPI-U, MCARE = %Δ in medical care component of CPI-U, UNEWS = first difference of unfavorable news about unemployment, INF = %Δ in CPI-U, CIE = consumer inflation expectations.
### Table 1b: Granger Causality Tests for Expected Inflation

**Sample period: 2004:01 – 2011:12**

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Notes underneath Table 1a applies.
Table 2a: Variance Decompositions of Consumer Inflation Expectations (CIE)  
(standard errors of FEV in parentheses) **Sample period: 985:01 – 2003:07**

Forecast Error Variance Explained by

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<th>MCA</th>
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Notes:
(1) See footnote to Table 1.
(2) The standard errors of variance decompositions in parentheses are estimated by Monte Carlo simulations. The estimates are based on 1000 random draws that are made directly from the posterior distribution of the VAR coefficients (see Runkle (1987)).

**Table 2b: Variance Decomposition of Consumer Inflation Expectations (CIE)**

Sample Period: 2004:01 – 2011:12

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Notes underneath Table 2a applies.
Table 3: Variance Decompositions for CPI Inflation
(standard errors of FEV in parentheses)

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Notes:
(1) See footnote to Table 3.
(2) EARN = %Δ in average real hourly earnings of private sector production workers, PCE = %Δ in real personal consumption expenditure
Appendix

A VAR system can be expressed in stacked form as
\[ \mathbf{X}_t = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}(L) \mathbf{X}_t + \mathbf{\varepsilon}_t \]  \hspace{1cm} (A-1)
where \( \mathbf{X}_t \) is a vector stationary stochastic process, \( L \) is the lag operator such that \( LX_t = X_{t-1} \), \( \mathbf{B}(L) \) represents the polynomial in \( L \) (known as autoregressive polynomial) and \( \mathbf{\varepsilon}_t \) consists of innovations. For the equation system (A-1) to exist, the roots of \( \text{det}(I - \mathbf{B}(z)) = 0 \) have a modulus greater than 1 so as to ensure that \( (I - \mathbf{B}(z)) \) is invertible. To derive meaningful inferences from VAR one uses innovations accounting (also known as variance decompositions) and impulse response functions.

Innovations accounting involves the decomposition of the forecast error variance (FEV) for each variable into components attributable to its own innovations and to shocks to other variables included in the model. The variance decomposition presents a summary of this information by listing the fraction of the overall FEV accounted for by each type of innovation. This variance decomposition can be done for the forecast error of each variable for any forecast horizon. In this way, one can analyze the way in which each variable’s innovations influence the movements (i.e., the variation) in each of the variables in the system.

To quantify the cumulative response of an element of \( \mathbf{X}_t \) to an innovation, it is imperative that the components of \( \mathbf{\varepsilon}_t \) be orthogonal. The effect of the orthogonalization is to allocate the contemporaneous correlation of the innovations among the variables. The standard practice is to choose some particular ordering of the variables, motivated by economic theory, prior to orthogonalization. The most widely used orthogonalization procedure is the Choleski factorization. This procedure eliminates any contemporaneous correlation between a given innovation series and all those series which precede it in the chosen ordering. Thus, the ordering of variables is crucial in interpreting the results of the decomposed FEVs (see Abdullah (1994), Cooley and Leroy (1985)). However, if the contemporaneous correlations are very small, then the ordering of the variables is inconsequential.
Social Norms and Perception of HIV/AIDS Among Young Adults

Cherika Fills
Praphul Joshi
Lamar University
Abstract

HIV related stigma and discrimination continues to endanger people living with the virus, and it still prevents millions of people from coming forward for testing, prevention and treatment services” (Sidibe & Goosby, 2013). Some 50-60% of people living with HIV are unaware of their status. Many others choose to hide it (Sidibe & Goosby, 2013). Prevalence rates of sexual behavior, rates of HIV among youth and young adults will be analyzed. A systematic literature review will be conducted in relation to the social norms and perceptions among young adults in relation to sexual health and HIV. Results of meta-analysis are presented in this paper. Important terms include MSM (men who have sex with men), HIV (Human Immunodeficiency Virus), and AIDS (Acquired immunodeficiency Disease). The purpose of this study was to evaluate and assess the social norms and perceptions of HIV among young adults.

Introduction

HIV/AIDS is a devastating epidemic that has been around the United States dating back since the 1980's (CDC, 2012). At the end of 2011, an estimated 1,201,100 person aged 13 and older were living with HIV infection in the United States, including 160,300 people whose infection had not been diagnosed (CDC, 2014). Of all racial minorities and ethnic groups African Americans face the most severe burden of HIV in the United States. Representing only 14% of the US population in 2009, African Americans accounted for 44% of all new HIV infections in that year (CDC, 2012). In 2012 the Center for Disease Control reported the estimated number of diagnoses of HIV infection in the United States. White Americans had an estimate of 13,291 cases while Hispanics had an estimated number of diagnoses at 9,816. The race that had the lowest number of diagnoses was Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islanders with only 79 estimated number of diagnoses. African Americans came in with the worst hit with 22,581 reported cases. (See Table 1)

There is much data in relation to negative perceptions and stigmas around those not only affected by HIV but within communities where HIV is most prevalent. Data is lacking for positive support from social peers within the community. This study is based on data collected from peer reviewed journal articles with a focus being on one’s general beliefs, attitudes towards promiscuous behavior, and attitudes towards people with STI’s. The results provide the opportunity to bring about areas of needed improvement within communities where HIV is not socially acceptable. It can also possibly help bring forth increased knowledge and new perceptions among young adults.

Methods

A systematic search of published articles was conducted using Pub-Med database through keywords and Mesh-Terms pertaining to “perceptions of HIV”. A list of inclusion and exclusion criteria was established using a PICOS (Population, Intervention, Comparison, Outcomes and Study Design) chart. Examples of the exclusion criteria were children, adults 27 and older, and clinical trials. (See Table 2)

Investigators independently reviewed abstracts and abstracted data. The initial search using the database resulted in a total of 4,325 articles. Upon selecting for the use of only peer reviewed journal articles it yielded in a result of 203 articles. After
limiting text to original research studies only, the results were slashed to 41 articles. Using PICOS criteria and reviewing the abstracts, articles were selected for full-text review. Of the 41 articles, 40 were selected based on the eligibility criteria. The selected 40 full-length articles were reviewed for data abstraction. The data abstraction led to 9 studies that met the study criteria. Of the final 9 studies, two were deleted due to lack of useful information.

Theoretical Framework

How can one’s perception be described? As described by the foundation concepts of global community health promotion and education, the theory of planned behavior, contains several constructs: beliefs, attitudes, intent and behaviors. “The intent of someone’s behavior response is based on individual behavior, or the results of attitudes towards the behavior, and subjective perception of norms similar to the behavior” (Hernandez 2012, pg.107).

The Theory of Planned Behavior is judging someone’s reaction by a person’s beliefs, attitude and other people’s perception of their own behaviors. Attitude toward behavior is described as “an individual's positive or negative evaluation of self-performance of the particular behavior, the concept is the degree to which performance of the behavior is positively or negatively valued” (Fishbein & Ajzen 1985, pg. 217-218). People’s perception of their own behaviors or “perceived behavioral control” comprises two main facets. First, perceived behavioral control depends on the degree to which individuals conceptualize themselves as sufficiently knowledgeable, skillful, disciplined, and able to perform some act, called internal control (Kraft, Rise, Sutton, & Roysamb, 2005). Second, perceived behavioral control depends on the extent to which individuals feel that other factors, such as the cooperation of colleagues, resources, or time constraints, could inhibit or facilitate the behavior, called external control (Kraft, et.al 2005). (See Figure 1)

The Center for Disease Control has noted African Americans as being the racial or ethnic group most affected by HIV/AIDS (CDC, 2012). The Center for Disease Control also reported that the lack of awareness of HIV status can affect the rate of those affected within the community (CDC, 2012). “Almost 85,000 of HIV-infected people in the African American community in 2010 were unaware of their HIV status. Diagnosis late in the course of HIV infection is common, which results in missed opportunities to get early medical care and prevent transmission to others (CDC, 2014). Lack of awareness is an example in which the internal control within the Theory of Planned Behavior can be related to HIV within the African American community. By theoretical reasoning it can be assumed that if black Americans within these disproportionate communities were more knowledgeable about their status it could create positive behavior control that could lead to protection measures during sexual behaviors as well as the sharing of knowledge with the involved partners about each other’s status so that they may be educated on each other’s health. This can help with allowing the person infected to know what health risk they are at as well as the risk in which they may be putting someone else not infected. This could also be helpful in allowing the partner to know and decide what risk they may be at and if they are willing to put themselves in that place to take that risk of engaging in sexual acts with someone who is HIV positive. These actions can create overall positive perceptions among both parties involved. This
positive perceived behavior control could help decrease the percentage in which HIV/AIDS is spread in the black community. It has been said that when you know better you do better. Although knowing one’s status will not completely eliminate HIV it will definitely help to aid in decreasing the spread of the disease within the community. An external control factor in relation to the Theory of Planned Behavior can include for example being rejected or caste out by society including peers, family and friends which creates negative perceptions within the African American community for those affected with HIV. Negative perceptions can create negative behaviors. The National Institute of Health reported that "one area negatively impacting those living with HIV in the African American community is the stigma associated with having HIV" (National Institute of Health, 2008). There are two ways in which this can occur. The first way is perceived, which the fear of societies attitudes regarding a particular condition. Second is enacted which is the discrimination directed to individuals because of specific attributes or conditions that characterize them (National Institute of Health, 2008). "The HIV stigma has been shown to cause negative consequences including being labeled and stereotyped" (National Institute of Health, 2008). "One in three people diagnosed with HIV have experienced HIV-related discrimination at some time" (NAT, 2014). HIV has a negative demeanor within the black community. Positive actions can be taken of those affected with the disease once the black community open up and educate themselves on HIV and realize that it is not a death sentence and that one can live with being HIV positive. Also those that are not affected can learn not to be afraid to interact with those that do have the disease which can create openness about the topic. Positive perceptions create positive actions.

Results
The results of data abstracted in peer reviewed journal articles in light of perceptions and attitudes of HIV perceived among young adults yielded these conclusions. General beliefs showed that communities most affected by this epidemic include sex workers, people who use drugs, MSM and transgender people that remain to be the most highly stigmatized (Grossman CI and Stangl AL, 2013). Support of a theoretical model which was validated with data found that among HIV diagnosed men who have sex with men, internalized heterosexism which is negative attitudes towards homosexuality, and was indirectly associated with greater HIV transmission risk and reduced adherence to antiretroviral therapy (Rönn, M., White, P., Hughes, G., & Ward, H., 2014) Another general belief concluded that exceptionalism has contributed to the increased rates and spread of HIV (Dennin, R., Lafrenz, M., Sinn, A., & Li, L, 2011). HIV exceptionalism emphasize the human rights of people living with HIV/AIDS, in particular their rights to privacy, confidentiality, and autonomy (wiki.org). The HIV infection was set apart from other STI's which had similar routes of transmission which led to a particular form of stigmatization, psychological stress, psychosocial epiphenomenon, and the power of shame which now affects most people infected with HIV (Dennin, R., et al. 2011). Although this may be a form of protection for those who are HIV positive it also causes concern and lack of safety within public health for those who are not diagnosed with HIV. For one there is no mandatory testing, the right not to know one’s HIV status is accepted and public health services are not allowed to carry out contact tracing in the
search for people who may be a source for spreading HIV, causing the failed attempt to interrupt the chains of transmission. (Dennin, R., et al. 2011)

Studies found promiscuous behavior along with the concept of intentional unprotected sex among MSM, this may occur more in HIV positive than HIV negative partners (Ronn, M, et al. 2014). In 2010 there was an estimated 47,500 new HIV infections, nearly two thirds of these new infections occurred in gay and bisexual men (CDC, 2014). The greatest number of new infections (4800) among MSM occurred in young black MSM aged 13-24. In a peer reviewed journal article entitled women and HIV in a moderate prevalence setting, women were perceived as responsible for HIV transmission with women being divided into passive victims and promiscuous vectors which are women who sell sex (Redman-Maclaren, M., Mills, J., Tommbe, R., Maclaren, D., Speare, R., & Mcbride, W, 2013). Individuals who are associated or deemed to live a more risky sexually engaged lifestyle such as prostitutes or MSM are more highly stigmatized as assisting in the transmission of HIV. Victim blaming among these individuals are also common. Others deemed responsible for spreading HIV are "actors", individuals if heterogeneous composition; already infected with HIV, knowingly or unknowingly and those not yet infected with HIV, but at risk (Dennin, R., et al. 2011). These people are categorized as lacking perception of the risk that HIV possess (Dennin, R., et al. 2011). Not only are the people at risk or those possessing HIV are criticized for victim blaming, but also the government has been deemed as a potential cause for the increased spread of HIV. Those who are responsible for designing prevention campaigns have failed to understand that their good advice targets only the cognitive level of those addressed. Acceptance of HIV exceptionalism has misled government into tolerating HIV transmission and its devastating consequences for other citizens (Dennin, R., et al. 2011). Victim blaming may seem harsh but the ideal is to bring about concurrent factors which are aiding in the increased spread of this disease. It is always important to be conscious and aware of the risk of counting STI's when engaging in physical intercourse. The vast majority of those at risk, but who feel and act responsibly, are not to blame, but those who refuse or are unable to act responsibly, thereby disregarding and exploiting liberal attitudes and continuing the spread of HIV degrade human life, and violate the very human right by which they themselves are protected (Dennin, R., et al. 2011).

Discussion

Individuals who are associated or deemed to live a more risky sexually engaged lifestyle such as prostitutes or MSM are more highly stigmatized as assisting in the transmission of HIV. Those of African American descent were those who suffered from this epidemic the most. Victim blaming among these individuals are also common. Victim blaming also occurs among the government from those not infected by HIV. They have been blamed as a factor in the increase of the spread of HIV through the support of confidentiality laws put in place for those who are HIV positive. Victim blaming may seem harsh but the ideal is to bring about concurrent factors which are deemed responsible for spreading HIV. Upon research those who engage in more risky behavior, those of homosexual orientation, and African American descent are the top 3 groups affected by this epidemic. Stigmatization normally occurs from the lack of knowledge regarding these individuals. The best way we can erase and create positive
perceptions about HIV is to educate and change the overall knowledge of individuals. To target areas with high levels of infection can also aid in helping to eliminate these issues. Centered focused interventions and programs based on the topic of stigma which can also be viewed as a form of bullying can help to change perceptions and give knowledge and insight to those not affected by HIV. Intervention or programs with this area focus can give an overall perspective of feelings and views from those who are HIV positive. Talking about the situation can help to lead to resolutions and also hopefully positive perceived perceptions about HIV. On the other hand there should be accountability laws put in place for those who are HIV positive because it is such a high epidemic which kills many people each year. Unfortunately everyone does not take responsibility and practice safe sexual behaviors when they find out they are diagnosed with this disease which puts innocent people at risk. There should be some type of legal responsibility for those who knowingly spread HIV to non-infected individuals.

Overall education is the key and when people are educated correctly they tend to have a total change in the way they think about a specific issue. As noted earlier in regards to the theory of planned behavior persons perceived attitudes towards something guides the outcome of their action. So, if there are positive perceived thoughts it would be more likely that you will yield positive actions behind those thoughts.

References


Table 1: Prevalence of HIV Among Racial / Ethnic Groups in U.S.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race or Ethnicity</th>
<th>Estimated Number of Diagnoses of HIV Infection, 2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American Indian/Alaska Native</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black/African American</td>
<td>22,581</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic/Latino</td>
<td>9,816</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>13,291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Races</td>
<td>1,036</td>
</tr>
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### Table 2: Utilizing PICOS Criteria for Structured Literature Review

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PICOS</th>
<th>ELIGIBLE</th>
<th>INELIGIBLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Population</strong></td>
<td>Adults 18-26 years old African Americans</td>
<td>Children Adults 27+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intervention</strong></td>
<td>Cross-Sectional/longitudinal studies. Behavior data</td>
<td>Clinical trials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Comparison</strong></td>
<td>Perception of those with HIV versus no HIV</td>
<td>RCT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>African Americans versus Hispanics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>STI's (Symptomatic versus Asymptomatic)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outcomes</strong></td>
<td>Knowledge received Perceptions Created</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Study Design</strong></td>
<td>Observational</td>
<td>RCT Case-Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Quazi-Experimental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Systematic Reviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No primary data presented</td>
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Figure 1: Theory of Planned Behavior
Combating Childhood Obesity: Placement and Marketing of Foods in Restaurants

Praphul Joshi
Chaniqwa Fills
Lamar University
Abstract
The concern of obesity in the United States has been a growing issue for many years now; Not only does the issue of obesity focus on adolescents and adults, but play a major role in the lives of infants/toddlers and school aged children (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2014). The implementation of interventions at early ages can help lower the obesity epidemic and many complications that follow. As a current nutrition guide published by the United States Department of Agriculture, MyPlate serves as one intervention in helping lowering obesity through teaching healthy food selection and portions. Because the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) believes that individuals who are considered obese (based upon each individual’s height) are at an increased likelihood of encountering certain diseases and health problems, the stride to lowering obesity has been the center for a healthier lifestyle. This study will assess the menu options at popular fast food restaurants in Southeast Texas. Key indicators in this study include availability of healthy choices, marketing strategies, placement of foods/labels, pricing options and consumer demands.

Introduction
Obesity epidemics for children can be defined on many different levels. The levels can include, but are not limited to, national, state, and local. Prevalence is the amount of people in a particular population and at a specific point in time that has a particular disease (Statistical Measures, 2014). The prevalence rate of childhood obesity, on a national level in the United States, is slowly but gradually increasing. On a national level approximately 17% (or 12.7 million) of children and adolescents aged 2-19 years old are obese (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2014). The CDC, 2014 believes that there are significant racial and age disparities in obesity prevalence among children and adolescents, in fact in 2011-2012 obesity prevalence was higher among Hispanics (22.4%) and non-Hispanic black youth (20.2%) than non-Hispanic white youth (14.1%). On a state level, it is said that in Texas 27% of children are considered obese (Beaumont Enterprise, 2014). As reported in the Beaumont Enterprise, in 2012 the Beaumont-Port Arthur area was ranked as having the 5th highest obesity rate in the United States (33.8%) (Beaumont Enterprise, 2012). The significances of this information makes it even more apparent that interventions are needed in the Southeast Texas area.

Childhood obesity can have complications for the physical, social, and emotional well-being of a child (Mayo Foundation for Medical Education and Research, 2014). Physical, social, and emotional well-being all play essential roles in the status of an individual’s health. Diabetes and nonalcoholic fatty liver disease are some of the major physical complications that can develop from having childhood obesity. Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) is defined as the buildup of extra fat in the liver cells that is not caused by alcohol (American Liver Foundation, 2014). This type of liver disease develop in individuals who are considered overweight or obese, have diabetes, high cholesterol, and poor eating habits. The American Liver Foundation (2014) states that it is normal for the liver to contain some fat; however if more than 5%-10% of the liver's weight is fat, than it is called a fatty liver/stenosis. Thus, maintaining a healthy body weight throughout your life can be protective against the development of these diseases (LSU Health Science Center, 2014). Low self-esteem and depression are some of the
major social and emotional complications that can develop from having childhood obesity. Depression is a common mental disorder, characterized by sadness, loss of interest or pleasure, feeling of guilt or low self-worth, disturbed sleep or appetite, feeling of tiredness and poor concentration (World Health Organization, 2014). Both low self-esteem and depression both can be psychological effects of childhood obesity.

Risk factors such as inactivity and poor nutritional diets can be linked to childhood obesity. Lack of physical activity and play time that consist of running, jumping, walking, and playing outside can aid in the rise of childhood obesity (LSU Health Science Center, 2014). In today's society physical activity has been replaced with TV games and cell phones (National Center for Health Research, 2012). Poor diet raises the likelihood of developing childhood obesity and many other complications that are related to obesity. The most typical reason that people consume foods that are unhealthy is for the simple reason that they are more convenient to purchase and prepare. Both of these risk factors can be modifiable in lowering obesity. In the International Journal of Pediatric Obesity a journal studied child body mass index, obesity, and proximity to fast food restaurants. This study found that students who resided within one-tenth or one-quarter of a mile from fast food restaurants had significant higher values of BMI. This study also found that public health efforts to limit access to fast food among nearby residents could have beneficial effects on child obesity (Dolan, 2011).

The implementation of interventions at early ages can help lower the obesity epidemic and many complications that follow. As a current nutrition guide published by the United States Department of Agriculture, MyPlate serves as one intervention that can possibly lower childhood obesity through teaching healthy food selections and portions. The MyPlate serves as a reminder to help consumers make healthier food choices by emphasizing fruits, vegetables, grains, proteins, and dairy groups (United Department of Agriculture, 2014). In responses to decreasing childhood obesity rates, fast food restaurants have done little in helping achieve this goal. In fact, popular food chain restaurants such as A, B and C have limited amounts of available healthy food choices. Not only do these particular food chain restaurants use marketing strategies and placement of food labels to win consumers, but so do many other restaurants. In the Journal of Public Policy and Marketing an article studied collectible toys as marketing tools and understanding preschool children’s responses to foods paired with premiums. This study found that premiums influence children’s attitudes towards both unhealthy and healthful meal offerings. The study also found that a healthful meal is favored when it is paired with collectible toy premium and the unhealthful meal is presented with no premium (Cornwall, 2012). Another study from PLoS ONE studied how television fast food marketing aimed at the children compares with adult advertisements. This study found that children’s QSR advertisements emphasized giveaways and movie tie-ins rather than food products. Self-regulatory pledges to focus on actual food products instead of toy premiums were not supported by this analysis (Adachi-Mejia, 2012). In efforts to address this problem, I will be conducting interviews with such fast food restaurants in hopes to improving healthy food choice availability and increasing marketing strategies aimed at healthier food choices.

Methods

Participants in this study consisted of local Southeast Texas restaurant managers.
These managers were selected from three different popular fast food restaurants which included A, B and C. In conducting these interviews two of the same like restaurants, totaling a number of six interviews were conducted. The questions were asked in hopes of helping them improve their healthy food choice availability and increasing marketing strategies aimed at healthier food choices. The study used a survey instrument asking 15 questions focusing on the restaurants availability of healthy food choices, marketing strategies, placement of food labels, pricing options and consumer demands. This instrument is not validated and was designed by the study team.

Results
On observation and data collection from each fast food restaurants, it was evident that all three restaurants were unable to provide information about pricing strategies which were used to help consumers choose healthier food options. There were roughly 600 consumers who visited restaurant A location and of those 200 to 300 of them consumers purchased kid meals. Restaurant B served roughly 300 to 400 consumers daily and between 20 and 30 of them purchased kid meals, whereas restaurant C served roughly 400 consumers and of those 15 to 30 of them purchased kid meals. In relations the top 5 most purchased items contained nothing healthy from all three restaurants. Although healthy items for kids were available, they contained minimum items. The top 2 most popular kid items also consist of unhealthy items such as burgers and chicken nuggets. Sample questionnaires and responses are available in table 1. A list of top 5 healthiest choices in the three fast food chains has been presented in tables 2, 3 and 4.

Discussion
In response to decreasing childhood obesity rates, fast food restaurants have done little in helping achieve this goal. Popular food chain restaurants such as A, B, and C have limited amounts of available healthy food choices. Not only do these popular food chains use marketing strategies and placement of food labels to win consumers, but so do many other restaurants.

Discussing marketing strategies in restaurants A, B, and C there were limited marketing done of healthy messages. Although each restaurant stated that they marketed through television promotions, being friendly to customers, and picture displays throughout there restaurants, little or nothing healthy was displayed throughout these advertisements. Restaurant A seemed to promote healthy food options for kids the most through television commercials that promoted items such as oranges, apples, and yogurt which can account for the increase number of kid meals sold there. In result, advertising seemed to be more of a benefit to the business rather than helping promote healthier food selections.

Pricing strategies and labeling such as dollar Menus/value menus seemed to contain one or two healthy food items out of a total of 9 or 10 items listed. Cost of healthy foods are more expensive to purchase as one can see on the charts that displays such things as saturated fats, cholesterol, and pricing (see tables 2-4). Adding to this discussion all three of the restaurants were unable to provide information related to their pricing strategies in relations to helping consumers choose healthier items and observing each business, pricing strategies seemed to focus more on the items that sold the most which were advertised and listed first verses the healthy foods.

It is recommended that these restaurants provide more healthy options for children
and that an increase in placement and promotion of healthy foods in restaurants be done. These restaurants and similar ones should promote healthy foods in “dollar menu” or similar marketing efforts. Recommendation for educational strategies include but are not limited to replacing toys with educational materials, rewarding healthy eating v/s unhealthy options, competitive pricing of healthy foods in relation to others and options that are culturally compatible

References


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interview Questions</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daily number of consumers?</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>300-400</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of children meals per day?</td>
<td>200-300</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>15-30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top 5 popular items sold?</td>
<td>Hot n' spicy, double cheese burger, fries, ice tea, kids meal (nuggets)</td>
<td>Whopper, whopper Jr., Texas double whopper, chicken nuggets, original chicken sandwich</td>
<td>Ultimate cheese burger, tacos, jumbo jack, curly fries, sourdough jack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top 2 choices by kids?</td>
<td>chicken nuggets, cheese burger</td>
<td>Chicken nuggets, cheese burger</td>
<td>Chicken strips, grilled cheese sandwich</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthy options available for kids?</td>
<td>Apple slices, go-yurt, oranges</td>
<td>Apple slices, veggie burger</td>
<td>Apple juice, apple sauce, 2% reduce milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing strategies for healthy options?</td>
<td>Promotions through television for kids</td>
<td>Friendly to customers, promotions around windows</td>
<td>Television commercials, free give away, friendly and fast service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational strategies?</td>
<td>Paper calorie counter, inside and outside menu contains calories, online calorie info.</td>
<td>Nutritional fact chart on every tray, calories posted online and offers paper calorie chart upon request</td>
<td>Calorie counter online, fact sheet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pricing strategies?</td>
<td>Unable to verify</td>
<td>Unable to verify</td>
<td>Unable to verify</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: Top 5 Healthiest Food Choices in Fast Food Chain A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Healthy food items</th>
<th>Saturated fat</th>
<th>Cholesterol</th>
<th>Sodium</th>
<th>Protein</th>
<th>Calories</th>
<th>Price</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Premium wrap southwest grilled</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>1300</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>670</td>
<td>$4.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Premium grilled chicken sandwich</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>820</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>$3.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Premium grilled chicken ranch</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>1230</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>$4.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honey mustard snack wrap (grilled)</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>$1.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filet o fish</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>$3.49</td>
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</table>
### Table 3: Top5 Healthiest Food Choices in Fast Food Chain B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Healthy food items</th>
<th>Saturated fat</th>
<th>Cholesterol</th>
<th>Sodium</th>
<th>Protein</th>
<th>Calories</th>
<th>Price</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kids oatmeal</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>$3.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veggie burger</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>$3.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ranch grilled chicken wrap</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>$3.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ham and cheese sandwich</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>1770</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>490</td>
<td>$3.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ham, egg, cheese biscuit</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>1490</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>$2.79</td>
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Table 4: Top 5 Healthiest Food Choices in Fast Food Chain C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Healthy food items</th>
<th>Saturated fat</th>
<th>Cholesterol</th>
<th>Sodium</th>
<th>Protein</th>
<th>Calories</th>
<th>Price</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Smoothie, mango</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>$3.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chicken teriyaki bowl</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1910</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>690</td>
<td>$4.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egg white and turkey breakfast sandwich</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>830</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>$2.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grilled chicken salad</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>$5.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chicken fajita pita</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>$4.49</td>
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European Standards of Beauty and the Relation of These Assimilated Beauty Ideals Among African American Women

Cherika Fills
Praphul Joshi
Lamar University
Introduction
What exactly does it mean to be healthy? Generally speaking one could state that it's the overall physical health of a person. However, health channels beyond physical aspects of the body and into mental health as well. Health can be defined as "A state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity" (WHO, 2012). With that being said the focus will shift to European standards of beauty and the relation of these assimilated beauty ideals among African American women leading to psychological and emotional effects such as self-hatred, internalized racism, intra-racial racism, and lack of self-identity contributing to diminish overall states of complete mental health. Through the use peer reviewed journal articles I will relate, evaluate, and discuss the relation of European standards of beauty and the psychological effects endured upon women of color due to the assimilation of these beauty ideals.

Beauty is a key aspect that plays a major role within our society. Through years of self-examination and striving to fit one’s self into a dominated Eurocentric culture African Americans have encountered psychological and emotional issues through trying to assimilate to these Eurocentric standards of beauty which have been embraced upon for centuries. Intra-racial racism, self-hatred, lack of self-identity and internalized racism has all become results of non-self-acceptance among African Americans, particularly women. "Any negro who is honest will admit that he is dominated by the standards of the society he is brought up in" (Hill, 2002). For African Americans, views of physical attractiveness is generated through the white man's value and beauty ideals (Hill, 2002) which can go as far as to be traced back "through centuries of slavery combined with a lack of collective African identity which has caused US blacks and descendants of African slaves to dislike their own blackness" (Routledge, 2011). "This color complex is a psychological fixation that causes African Americans to devalue physical characteristics, particularly skin color, and hair texture reflective of African ancestry." (Routledge, 2011). To devalue your own identity and embrace that of someone else can cause internal emotional and mental issues such as "anger, pain and confusion towards traits such as skin color and hair" (Bryant, 2012).

Literature Review

Construction of European Standards of Beauty and Women of Color
Beauty, how one’s characteristic appearances are viewed has been a thing of history since we all can remember. Living in America, the center of beauty is focused solely on one’s outer appearance for centuries. “The European beauty standard is the notion that the more closely associated a person is with European features, the more attractive he or she is considered; these standards deem attributes that are most closely related to whites, such as lighter skin, straight hair, a thin nose and lips and light colored eyes as beautiful” (Evans& McConnell, 2003). In the present article Hair as Race: why good hair may be bad for black females the issue of colorism, hair and slavery is brought to light showing how centuries of slavery “has caused black descendants of African slaves to dislike their own blackness” (Robinson, 2011). “Since 1619, African American women and their beauty has been juxtaposed against white beauty standards, particularly to their skin color and hair” (Patton, 2006). Through the use of creating a dominancy and
superiority of white Americans over black Americans. “African hair was deemed wholly unattractive and inferior by those of European descent” (Thompson, 2009). During slavery there was a caste system generated to separate blacks based on their physical attributes of those most resembling whites. “Women who were lighter-skinned and had features that were associated with mixed progeny {e.g. wavy or straight hair, white and European facial features} tended to be house slaves and those black women with darken skin hues, kinky hair, and broader facial features tended to be field slaves” (Patton 2006). “Skin color and hair are so intertwined that it is hard to separate the two when examining the forces that shape Black People’s lives” (Thompson, 2009). The development of an uncertainty about black beauty definitely evolved during slavery and still dominates in the present due to tragic events that happened centuries ago.

More Barriers

“Internalized racism often results in intra-racial racism which refers to discrimination within black community against those with darker skin and more African features” (Brown, 2011). Intra-Racial Racism creates more barriers through defining beauty now not only among whites but from within their own communities (Thompson, 2009). Upon demolishing of slavery in the late 1900’s mental damage of the superior whites was already done. African Americans were now free and had overcome the bondage of locks and chains. Generally speaking looking outwardly you could count it as a time of celebration and joy which would bring the separateness of black Americans to a state of closeness through the longing of missed family and friends. Coincidently it didn’t, now African Americans had another racial battle to encounter and this time it was not of their superior counterparts, instead it was a battle brewing within their own community, a battle of the lighter toned African verses those of darker skin tones.

African Americans who were of lighter skin tones and straighter hair began discriminating against those that were of darker skin tone “among the light-skinned elite were blue vein societies which excluded blacks whose blue veins were not visible beneath their skin, paper bag test, which allotted entrance into black churches and other organizations based on comparison of one’s skin color to a lighter brown paper bag; and comb test, where acceptance was reserved for black men and women with naturally straight hair able to withstand a fine tooth comb”(Robinson, 2011). Colorism signified a lot in the black community, it was a place of ranking and superiority. Just as the whites had done to all blacks during bondage, the mental brain washing now carried over and ultimately still exist in the present. The history of slavery plays a significant role of the psychological emotional roller coaster of identity and beauty among African Americans.

Transformation

After slavery many products were produced in helping to aid African Americans into the transformation of the European standard of beauty. Things such as skin bleaching creams, hot combs, and relaxers all evolved. Furthermore, allowing African Americans traits to be devalued. In 1905 Madame C.J. Walker invented the first hair straightening comb, Walker's invention “was a way to challenge the predominant nineteenth century belief that black beauty was ugly” (Patton, 2006). Although many black females praised this practice during times following emancipation. “The practice was viewed as a pitiful
attempt to emulate whites and equated hair straightening with self-hatred and shame” (Patton 2006). Three men that were vocal about the disgrace of hair straighteners were black leaders W.E Dubois, Booker T. Washington and Marcus Garvey. “With the regards to the issue of hair, Garvey proclaimed don’t remove the kinks from your hair! Remove them from your brain! (Patton, 2006). On the issue of hair straighteners it was clear that these leaders could see the psychological issues through chemically straightening your hair and the self-hate that could evolve from sub-coming to the ideals of white American beauty. Although their effects were influential, little effect came from their advocacy as chemically straightened hair in the black community is a practice that is done amongst females at very early ages even in today’s time. Not only was chemically straightening one’s hair a ritual among black women but also the use of skin lightening creams.

In the article “The Lighter Side of Marriages: skin bleaching in past colonial years” the issue is brought about upon the importance of skin bleaching and the beneficial gains that comes from having lighter skin. Lighter skin is praised, deemed to have higher societal standards, more beautiful and consume more wealth (Fokuo, 2009). In the study conducted it was proven that Ghana men found women of lighter skin tones more beautiful “ A 2002 study examined the root of skin bleaching in Ghanaian cultures. She asserted that the Ghanaian definition of beauty drove women to bleach their skin” (Fokuo, 2009). Results were from the interviews of 50 women and men in the greater Accra region. “54 % of her sample believed lighter skin tones were very beautiful, attractive, and appealing to the human eye and preferred them to darker tones (42%) (Fokuo, 2009). Also “(82%) of the participants believed that lighter skin tones were more appreciated by other Ghanaians that darker skin tones” (Fokuo, 2009). “52% of her sample believed that the Ghanaian culture influenced the practice of skin bleaching because Ghanaians respect and appreciate lighter-skinned people, particularly women. Participants also indicated that during some special occasions skin bleaching is required if you are of darker skin tone” (Fokuo, 2009).

Discussion

It is clear that these practices have brought about the excluding of a particular beauty and that happens to be black beauty. My question is where does this leave black beauty in American Culture? The answer is low in society rankings due to the unconscious efforts of promoting European beauty. It has disowned anything beautiful of dark tones and kinky hair. The effects of constant neglect of self-worth and identity has caused the negative mental and emotional effects of women of color in their efforts to feel socially accepted. In the journal article “The beauty ideal: The effects of European standards of beauty on black women,” “Hall summarizes the long-term mental health issues that black women may encounter, because black women deviate furthest from European beauty standards they are most likely to suffer feelings of inadequacy and report emotions of anger, pain, and confusion towards traits such as skin color and hair” (Bryant, 2012). “Many black women carry this internalized shame and self-hatred of their appearance from adolescence into adulthood” (Bryant, 2012). Ultimately these internalized feelings can be significant risk factors from depression in black women” (Bryant, 2012).
There is indeed some type of correlation between European standards of beauty and the diminishing overall mental health to African American women and psychological and emotional issues due to the assimilation of beauty standards to fit into mainstream beauty. Although there may be a positive correlation between the two variables these are issues within the black community that can be fixed. Healing would begin first with learning to truly love yourself for who you are, with no regards to how anyone else may view you in order to help any mental issues that may accompany many black women not living their truth, which is accepting their African ancestral roots. Beauty begins within yourself. Once you have found your true beauty, you can create your own standard of beauty without trying to live up to someone else’s beauty because we are all uniquely beautiful in our own special way.
References


Working in the Cloud:
Issues of Reliability, Ownership, and Security

*Harvey C. Foyle*
*Emporia State University*

Chinese Social Media Censorship

*Jingwei Chen*
*Emporia State University*

Why the Chinese Government Blocks Western Social Media

*Muxin Wang*
*Emporia State University*

Chinese Military Beijing Spying Building

*Lixiazi Lu*
*Emporia State University*
Working in the Cloud: Issues of Reliability, Ownership, and Security
This work consists of an overview and three specific examples related to China.

Cloud Computing: Reliability, Ownership, and Security
Cloud computing is the solution to constantly updating technology. Three major issues exist: reliability, ownership, and security. The application of cloud computing to university learning has major impacts. University and other cloud computing users rely on their cloud data. What happens when the cloud is not available? Who owns the user’s cloud data? How is cloud data secured? Can cloud computing be trusted? Solutions will be provided and discussed in relationship to distance learning. University, business, government, and health enterprises are relying more and more upon cloud computing in order to reduce the cost of constantly updating technological equipment and software. In the rush to save money and to keep current technologically, three issues emerge.

Reliability is a major issue. When no cloud computing is used, reliability is in the hands of the individual and/or the local IT department. Only the interruption of access to the Internet can cause cloud computing from being reliable. Reliability is important. Students access their course work. Businesses sell products. Health enterprises provide trusted medical information. Governments share information and collect information regularly in a reliable manner.

Ownership, especially by professors, is a major university concern. Most cloud computer users believe that they own their cloud software and data. In fact, in most cases, software is licensed to the user for free or a fee. Data is stored in the cloud, yet many cloud hosts have Terms of Agreement that allow them to use the data as they see fit, e.g. Google.

Security is the most important concern related to cloud computing. When software applications are stored in the cloud, they can be changed at any time even without notice. When a cloud computing user’s data is stored in the cloud, it can be accessed by the host and/or be vulnerable to hacking. Security software and methods against hackers and other illegal intrusions are constantly updated and implemented online by the host providing the cloud. Multiple backup servers (data farms) are located in multiple locations throughout the world. Data can be restored quickly if lost or hacked. Generally, the fear of the lack of security in the cloud is much lower than a government or organization’s employee carrying sensitive data on a USB drive and losing it or having it stolen.

As university students are asked to use cloud computing during their educational programs, the context of learning is shifting rapidly from face to face to online distance learning. The impact of cloud computing on distance learning changes the security environment for students and faculty.

Chinese Social Media Censorship
Can you believe all the Google services are blocked in Mainland China? The most popular social media such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube are also not available in Mainland China. However, China owns the substitute tools for all of these Internet services. They are producing some large Chinese social media including Tencent, Sina and Renren.
With the development of Chinese economic, China became the country with largest Internet user population in the world. Therefore, the Chinese government has to build the biggest Internet censorship system - the “Great Firewall”.

What is the “Great Firewall”? How does the “Great Firewall” work? Why does Chinese government build this system? If it is possible that people can climb the “wall” in China?

“Golden Shield Project: Also known as the "Great Firewall of China", it is a censorship and surveillance project operated by the Ministry of Public Security (MPS) division of the government of the People's Republic of China.” (Golden Shield Report, n.d.)

The Chinese telecom operators created an IP blacklist for preventing some websites and social media. They cooperate with social media companies use sensitive words and phrases to filter Internet. The Chinese government required self-censorship for all the Internet providers, which are able to use in China.

As other country, Chinese government also want to protect their products, promote their products, such as Tencent and Baidu (Google), Renren (Facebook) and Sina (Twitter). The more important reason is for restricting freedom of speech in order to maintain social stability.

Although the Chinese Internet users are limit behind the “wall”, some people still try to escape this limitation. “The more covert protesters will set up secure SSH and VPN connections using tools such as UltraSurf. They can also utilize the widely available proxies and virtual private networks to fanqiang (翻墙), or "climb the wall." (UltraSurf, 2014)

Why the Chinese Government Blocks Western Social Media. Western social media such as Google, Facebook, Twitter, YouTube and others have been banned in China for several years. Just like the Great Wall stops the invaders from many other counties, there is a complex Internet censorship system designed to restrict information that are bad for China. Here are some reasons why the Chinese government banned western social media.

Restricted government censorship. “China's Communist Party aggressively censors the Internet, routinely deleting online postings and blocking access to websites it deems inappropriate or politically sensitive. (Woollaston, 2013)" Google, Twitter, and Facebook have been banned in China because they spread some information that is not true or harmful to China. The Chinese government has banned them strictly especially after the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games.

A Great Firewall exists within the Chinese Internet that allows the government to keep an eye on all the things on the Internet and just let Chinese citizens get in touch with the information that would not cause troubles to the country. This situation makes sure everything is under their control so that it is easier to manage the nation and keep the country safe. China has censored western social media from a long time. According to BBC news (China Blocking Google, 2002), “more than 30,000 people are employed to keep an eye on websites, chat rooms and private e-mail messages.” It is more than 2 million people in 2013 (Frizell, 2014). The Chinese Government deletes the contents that are harmful on the Internet to control the Chinese speech on the Internet, especially for a website with a server located overseas, such as, Facebook, Twitter, Google. The only thing the government is doing is to block websites like Google and other Western
social media applications (Helft & Barboza, 2010). However, Wikipedia is an exception, only the sensitive entries have been blocked.

The degree of speech freedom and the Chinese censorship have been a great issue in China for a long time. The Chinese government believes that speech freedom is conditional. Chinese have the freedom to speak, but this is under some kinds of restrictions. If those Western websites want to continue to be available in China, they have to abide by the restriction laws.

**Corresponding social media within China**

There are many social websites emerging in China today that are corresponding to those Western social media. They are competitors to western media and easier to be under the government’s control. For example, Baidu, which is the largest search engine within China, is like Google. It is a big competitor to Google in China. and it is “in accordance with the Chinese government’s strict regulations.(Deans & Miles, 2011).” Baidu closely resembles Google, but is the dominant search engine in China because of its censorship and natural Chinese language service. (Deans & Miles, 2011)” Another social media application is Weibo which is like Twitter. Weibo is very popular in China. Celebrities to ordinary people are using it every day. It is really a competitor to Twitter. It is easier for the Chinese government to control. The following table shows the corresponding social media between America and China. *(See Table 1)*

The differences between US and Chinese Internet polices. It is obvious that China has a different way of running Internet than the US. “The Chinese market is probably the most unique in terms of social media sites available and how these sites are being used by consumers as well as the issues associated with government intervention. (Deans & Miles, 2011)” The policy that works in US is different from China. They form two different contexts. If the US social media wants to enter the Chinese Internet market, “it needs resources, expertise and efforts specific to the China market for success.” (Deans & Miles, 2011)

Many western websites have been banned in China, according to uncompleted statistics, those websites include Google, Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, The Wall Street Journal, LinkedIn, Instagram, Tumblr and Wikipedia (which is partial been banned). China is not the only country banning Western websites. Other Asian countries, such as North Korea, Cuba, Iran, Bangladesh, Egypt, Syria, Mauritius, Pakistan and Vietnam, also have banned Western countries for political or religious reasons (Kirkland, 2014). Government censorship is a big issue. US social media companies need to find a way to deal with this context if they want to survive in the Chinese Internet market.

**Chinese Military Beijing Spying Building**

In each country, in order to safely protect the country there are some monitoring organizations. These organizations work for the countries’ governments. In China, there also is a spying building that is about monitoring.

On another side, these organizations have a good effect on public opinions. Chinese websites, Internet Service Providers (ISPs) and other Internet-related organizations across the country were ‘invited’ to sign a self-discipline pact drawn up by the Beijing-based China Internet Association to prevent the spread of anti-government information, porn and anything else that might threaten "national security (and) social stability".
These ways can help the government reduce the number of spreading false rumors and calm the people's moods. (China snoops, 2014)

But critics claim this is another move by Chinese authorities to clamp down on personal freedoms. They insist that the surveillance technology will be used to identify "reactionary" texters, pinpoint those persons who spread "false political rumors" and "reactionary remarks." I don't agree with their opinions. For each country, national security and social stability are most important tasks. The snoop organizations make sure that the government can control public opinion and completely eradicate unstable factors. (Censorship in China, 2014)

Censored media include essentially all capable of reaching a wide audience including television, print media, radio, film, theater, text messaging, instant messaging, video games, literature and the Internet. These fields join together to help the government and people. This type of censorship is mainly used to prevent political conflicts from happening within the social environment. Sometimes, people are allowed to talk about politics on the Internet, but certain websites containing anti-government material would be blocked.
References


### Table 1: Comparison of American Websites and Chinese Websites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>American Website</th>
<th>Corresponding Chinese website</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Google</td>
<td>Baidu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twitter</td>
<td>Weibo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facebook</td>
<td>Renren</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wordpress</td>
<td>Blogbus</td>
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<tr>
<td>YouTube</td>
<td>Youku/Tudou</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ebay</td>
<td>Taobao</td>
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<tr>
<td>MSN</td>
<td>QQ</td>
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</table>
1. Liuzhou and Its Vocational Education

1.1 Brief Introduction of Liuzhou

Liuzhou, which located in the center of Guangxi, is a livable city which gives priority to industry, and with a comprehensive development, a profound culture, and an ecological environment.

Liuzhou has formed a modern industrial system that take auto, machinery, metallurgy as the pillar industry, and pharmaceutical industry, chemical industry, paper making, sugar refinery, building materials, textiles among other traditional industries also exist.
1. Liuzhou and Its Vocational Education

1.2 Brief Introduction of the Vocational Education in Liuzhou

The level and quality of education of Liuzhou always are the tops in Guangxi. There are more than 1,600 all kinds of schools in Liuzhou at present. 29 of them are vocational college or school which has nearly 80,000 current students. Liuzhou attached great importance to developing vocational education. In recent years, Liuzhou put more than 200 million Yuan into vocational education per year. Liuzhou is the first city that starts the construction of a vocational education park in Guangxi. This park covers an area of 2.574 mi² and with a total investment of more than 5 billion Yuan.

2. Liuzhou Vocational & Technical College (LVTC)

2.1 Basic Information

- 8 teaching departments and 46 majors:
- Over 10,000 full-time higher vocational college students: Over 8,000 adult higher education students: Number of employees is 699 (faculty: 510).
- Covered an area of 753,000 m²: Fixed assets are over $64.4 million:
- National Demonstrative Higher Vocational College (The highest level of higher vocational colleges in China)
- Won the award of Guangxi Advanced Employment Work Universities and Colleges for thirteen years (More than 60% graduates work in Liuzhou)

2.2 The Development Orientation and Goal

- **Orientation**: Based on Liuzhou, Services Local, Influencing the southwest (of China), Facing the Whole Country, Well Develop the Higher Vocational Education.
- **Structure of Majors**: Most are related to secondary industry and some related to the tertiary industry.
- **Goal of Development**: A national first-class vocational college that has a distinct characteristics.

Takes the advantage of local regional economic development to develop the college, and serving the local economic and social development at the same time.
3. Main Measures of LVTC in Serving Locals

3.1. Carry Out University-Enterprise Cooperation Education Projects

- Advanced Quality Standards
- Advanced Technical Standards
- Advanced Management Standards
- The International Talent Training Standards

Train Inter-Disciplinary Talents
“Professional quality + Technical skills + Management innovation ability”

Upgrade the Technical Personnel
Supporting the industrial transformation and upgrading of Liuzhou

University-Enterprise Cooperation Projects Example #1:
Auto Parts Precision Manufacturing Teaching Factory

Cooperative Enterprise: Liuzhou ZF Machinery Co., LTD

Highlight of Cooperation:
Introduced the German parts manufacturing quality standards. Lean Manufacturing and Informatization.

University-Enterprise Cooperation Projects Example #2:
Advanced Automation Technology Joint Demonstration Training Center

Cooperative Enterprise: The Siemens (Germany)

Highlight of Cooperation:
College and enterprise cooperated to build production line by independent research and develop. The fusion of automation technology and machining technology.
3. Main Measures of LVTC in Serving Locals

3.2. Build a Platform to Promote the Ability and Level of Social Services

- Technical Services
- Training Services
- Production Services
- Consulting Services

Five Departments + Nine Research Institutions

Production-Study-Research Cooperation Committee

3.2.1. Technical Services

In the last three years, a total of 127 items of technical services were carried out for the enterprise. The income of technical services is more than 320,000 dollars.

Only in 2013, the number of patents is 105, which is the top of all higher vocational colleges in Guangxi.

3.2.2. Training Services

- Liuzhou Small and Medium-sized Enterprise Personnel Training Base
- More than 100 training and Testing project annual
- Trained more than 11,000 testing personnel annual
3. Main Measures of LVTC in Serving Locals

3.2.3. Production Services

- Provide production services to more than 40 enterprises.
- Annual total value of production services output is more than 4 million dollars.

3.2.4. Consulting Services

- Undertaken a lot of significant research subjects which are closely related to Liuzhou economic and social development.
- Signed a strategic cooperation framework agreement with Miao Autonomous County of Rongshui and supports the development of this county's tourism industry.

3.3. Introduced Advanced International Standards and Trained International Technical Talents

**Cooperation Projects Example #1:**
Sino-German Automotive Vocational Education (SGAVE) Project

**Highlight of Cooperation:**
- Cooperated with the GIZ whose members include Five major car manufacturers in Germany, Audi, BMW, Porsche, Mercedes and Volkswagen.
- Introduced the automotive mechanical and electrical talent training standards of German.

**Cooperation Projects Example #2:**
DMG MS NC Professional Field Cooperation Project

**Highlight of Cooperation:**
- The world's most famous high-end CNC machine tool manufacturers.
- The world's most advanced numerical control processing technology and equipment.
- The world's most advanced NC training programs
3. Main Measures of LVTC in Serving Locals

3.4. Lead the Regional Vocational Education Reform and Development

LVTC are:
- The head unit of Liuzhou Vocational Colleges Principal Collaboration Association
- The head unit of Liuzhou Engineering Machinery Vocational Education Group
- The head unit of Liuzhou Logistics Vocational Education Group
- The head unit of Liuzhou Automobile Industry Vocational Education Group

LVTC carried out:
- Pairing-Assistance: More than 30 middle vocational schools or higher vocational colleges.
- External Exchange: More than 150 universities, colleges or schools in or out of Guangxi. About 2000 person-time.

4. Conclusion

Through
- Carry out university-enterprise cooperation education projects;
- Promote the ability and level of social services
- Train the international technical talents
- Drive the regional vocational education reform and development

The higher vocational colleges in Liuzhou effectively served the development of local economy and society.

This is a noteworthy example for
- How to well develop vocational education in an industrial city;
- How can a higher vocational college successfully serve the local economy and society.
Thinking Outside the Forms: Retraining Teachers to Write IEP’s for Students in an Independent Study Program

Patrick Hill, Ed.D.
Donald Baggott
Learn4Life Concept Charter Schools

Retraining Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comprehensive Site</th>
<th>Independent Study/At Risk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stable student population</strong></td>
<td><strong>Continual Influx of Students</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• During academic year and articulating</td>
<td>• Small window for making an impact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Daily contact with students</strong></td>
<td><strong>Most work done independently</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Frequent opportunities for interaction &amp; instruction</td>
<td>• Limited contact (intensive v. extensive)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Recruiting and Retraining

It is difficult to recruit teachers with experience in an Independent Study model, so retraining is critical.

Retraining Solution

A long shadowing and training process

Sequestered Expectations
Challenges

Background
- Poverty
- Lack of education

Outcome
- Lack of clear career goals
- Unaware of opportunities

Challenges: Academic

Unsuccessful Students
- Failed Classes
- Missing Credits
- Drop Out

Outcome
- Discouraged students
- Poor study skills
- Deficits in fundamental skills
Challenges:

Situational

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Drop out</td>
<td>Need for Flexible Schedule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entry Level Jobs</td>
<td>Year-Round School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Responsibilities</td>
<td>Distractions from School Work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dealing with the Challenges

Designing an IEP to Support at Risk Students’ Success in an Independent Study Program

Accurate Picture of Student
- Multiple assessments

Emphasis on Transition
- Determines the Design of the IEP

Relevant Realistic Goals
A Fresh Start

A Clear Picture of the Student

Personalized Learning

Multiple Assessments

Relationship w Student

Supporting Students with the IEP

ITP

Goals
Making it Work

New teachers are trained in using a number of powerful tools

- Appt. times to fit student need
- Schedule tutoring sessions
- Assign 2 classes at a time

More on Making it Work

- Front load electives
- If they will be with us a short time, emphasize basics
- Get students thinking about careers
Summary
Enhancing the Quality of Life of Baby Boomers and Their Traditionalist Parents with Technology

Catheleen Jordan
David Cory
Scott Sainato
Peter Lehmann
University of Texas at Arlington
The group of American citizens over the age of 65 is growing exponentially; this group increased 15.1 percent versus only 9.7 percent for the total population between 2000 and 2010 [http://money.usnews.com/money/retirement/articles/2012/01/09/65-and-older-population-soars]. This trend is an issue for baby boomers (born between 1946 and 1964) and for their elderly parents, the traditionalist generation (born prior to 1946). Baby boomers are referred to as the “sandwich generation” due to boomers being the caretakers for their parents, while at the same time caring for their children and sometimes grandchildren too [http://www.sandwichgeneration.com/]. We assume that technology may improve elders’ quality of life while reducing elder isolation. The goal of this paper is to demonstrate the numerous ways that social networks and online worlds (SNOWS) plus other technology can be used to enhance the quality of life of baby boomers and traditionalists. First we aim to review and understand boomer and traditionalist generations’ in a systems theory framework and then to understand SNOWS and other technology. Finally, we conclude the review with ideas, strategies and implications for furthering practice, policy, research, and education.

**Systems Theory**

Ecological systems theory guides our discussion of baby boomers and their traditionalist parents with its focus on biological, psychological, and social functioning in the environment. It is based upon Greenfield's view of individual functioning, “according to the general ecological model of aging, a person’s functioning is the result of their biological, psychological, and social resources; environmental characteristics; and the “fit” between ever-changing individuals and their ever-changing environments” (2011, p.2). Greenfield's study furthers the work of Bronfenbrenner and Morris (2006). The theory encompasses a unique approach to intervention with the aging population. It uses a multifaceted look into healthy aging of baby boomers and traditionalists. Ecological theory helps us understand human behavior through many contexts. Another unique feature of ecological systems is a holistic view of the individual. By looking at all of the components of an individual, there will be a more comprehensive understanding and more effective approach to working with older adults. The biological, psychological, and social functioning are each important to the individual; the below Figure 1 shows how these areas effect the individual but each other as well.

An effective approach to working with individuals of any age, race, gender, or socioeconomic status is to understand these social, biological, and psychological components of the individual’s ecological system. An example of this interconnectedness for elders is how an older adult’s self-esteem and sense of self may be negatively effected if they can no longer drive a car, for example, taking away their independence and forcing reliance on others for shopping, etc. Another example of the interrelatedness, is an older adult who can no longer stay at home because of health issues and is forced into an assisted living or nursing home. This may cause isolation from friends and family and lead to negative outcomes in the psychological area.

Each generation is uniquely defined by its’ history, characteristics, and values. The three facets in Figure 1, biologic, psychologic and social, help us to understand the functioning of individuals. Figure 2 illustrates some generational characteristics that differentiate the experience of boomers versus traditionalists.
Figure 2 provides an ecological context for boomers and traditionalists. Reviewing the biological, psychological and social functioning of boomers and traditionalists will help assess the numerous ways that SNOWS and other technology can enhance their well-being.

**Biological**

Traditionalists face many medical issues such as high cholesterol, diabetes, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, cardiovascular disease, and osteoporosis. These common chronic diseases may put these individuals out of work, or make them dependent on others for basic functioning. Baby boomers also may encounter serious medical problems including both chronic and lifestyle issues. Obesity is an ongoing and increasingly common among this population despite boomers’ focus youth, health and preventive programs. Obesity leads to high blood pressure, diabetes, and high cholesterol just to name a few issues. Vann (2014) reviews the most prevalent diseases of elders which include: arthritis, heart disease, cancer, respiratory diseases, Alzheimer’s disease, osteoporosis, diabetes, influenza/pneumonia, falls and other injuries, obesity, depression, oral health and poverty.

**Psychological**

Traditionalists are not only faced with biological challenges but psychological ones as well. Depression is a predominant mental health disease among this population. Due to their strong views of mental health problems as embarrassing, they are far less likely to seek help for this problem. Rates of suicide are also at a high rate among older people. Baby boomers also face serious mental health problems such as anxiety and self-esteem. The extra caretaking responsibilities of the boomers create a unique kind of stress. Gingsberg and DiGilio (2015) prepared a fact sheet to educate about the psychological issues of those 65+. These issues include: anxiety, depression and suicide, Alzheimer’s Disease and dementia, and substance abuse.

**Social**

Depending on their good health (or lack of it), traditionalists may be limited in their ability to experience social situations. Due to some of the biological or psychological issues encountered by these individuals, interacting with friends or family becomes an issue. Driving is limited or nonexistent for the traditionalists and therefore spending time with loved ones becomes difficult or near impossible. The children of these traditionalists, baby boomers, are also affected. Boomers are often caretakers of their elderly parents, as mentioned before, they are called the ‘sandwich generation’ due to competing demands on their time from elders and youngsters alike. Boomer self-care may be nonexistent. The time requirements as a care taker for their parents and (grand)children, along with full time employment, hampers the ability to spend extra time with friends and family. Numerous studies show that socially isolated elders are more at risk for poor outcomes including poor health, loneliness, dementia, increased hospitalizations and falls (Anderson, 2013).
“SNOWS” and Other Technology

Social networks and online worlds (SNOWS) plus other technology are evolving and developing in our areas of interest for elders—biological, psychological and social areas. Assessing specific technologies’ benefits and obstacles can aid in differentiating between effective and non-effective technologies for boomers and traditionalists, as well as in identifying needs for new policies and further research/education. Figures 3 and 4 describe what users are spending time doing online and the use of specific types of technology by age.

Benefits

Studies (Anderson, 2013) support the idea that increased connectedness with social supports improves an individual’s sense of wellness in all areas of biological, psychological, and social health and well being. Age related physical deficits may be somewhat alleviated by adaptive technologies such as hearing aids, programmed pill boxes, and wearable buttons that may be pushed by the elder to summon immediate assistance in case of emergency. Technology can assist the individual in paying bills, checking accounts, and conducting other business online, mitigating the impact of dependency for those elders unable to drive. Religious services may be accessed at home for the homebound elder. Chan and colleagues (2009) wrote of ‘smart homes’, technologically connected homes with numerous smart devices to help elders have greater independence, health and connectedness with others. Social programs allow for connects to be made with friends and family from the home. SKYPE is one example. Figure 5 provides other examples of SNOWS that may be useful for elders.

Obstacles

Along with the many benefits the baby boomers and traditionalists receive from SNOWS and technology, come challenges. A Pew Research Center study (Smith, 2014) revealed that younger, more educated and affluent seniors have easier access to technology. They also have a positive attitude toward technology use, unlike the older, less educated/affluent seniors studied. Listed in the article are several barriers to elders adopting new technologies including: physical challenges, skeptical attitudes, and difficulty learning (http://www.pewinternet.org/2014/04/03/older-adults-and-technology-use/). The same study found that elders lag behind younger Americans in tech use, but those elders who do learn and use technology receive a self reported benefit from it.

Conclusions and Recommendations

This paper addresses the traditionalists and baby boomer generations’ use of technology to improve quality of life. Recommendations are offered in the areas of practice, policy, research and education.

Practice

Mentioned previously, Chan and colleagues describe the potential of smart homes for elders (2009). The article reviews some of the available technology that practitioners might access for their elder clients in a homebased health care environment so that elders may remain in their own homes as long as possible and boomer caretakers have real assistance in providing care. These smart houses are characterized by the presence of wearable, implantable and microcapsule devices and
assistive technologies. Examples are environmental sensors in the home that detect the elders’ vital signs as well as safety issues (i.e. falls, energy system problems—too hot/too cold). One smart house has a system for allowing elders to ‘join’ their distant family members for dinner.

Policy
Policy advocates for elder services have many issues to address; barriers to elders obtaining the technology that would make their lives easier. Some of these issues related to service provision to elders include: lack of trained gerontology specialists, lack of specialized service providers, inadequate insurance benefits, stigma/age discrimination, and barriers such as lack of transportation, lack of financial resources or education (http://www.apa.org/about/gr/issues/aging/mental-health.aspx).

Research and Education
The Elder Care Workforce identified educational needs in geriatric service provision (http://www.eldercareworkforce.org/research/issue-briefs/research:education-and-training/). Recommendations include: expanding geriatric education for health care professionals, training for direct care works (including technological innovations), training and support for consumers and caregivers.

Research on elders and technology is reviewed by Blaschke and colleagues (2009). According to the authors, research is focused on assistive technologies and information and communication technologies and developing a substantial evidence base to show that these new technologies actually improve elders’ quality of life.

Summary
This paper focuses on the elder generation’s use of technology to improve quality of life, using a systems framework. Research indicates many new technologies are available to impact the life of traditionalist elders and their primary caretakers, their baby boomer children. Unfortunately use of these new innovations is limited to younger, highly educated, affluent elders. Practice, policy and research/education suggestions are made to help make these technological advances available to the larger, rapidly growing elder population.

References


Figure 1: The Biopsychosocial Model of Health (perspectivesclinic.com).
## Figure 2: Generation History

![Generation History Chart](http://www.wmfc.org/uploads/GenerationalDifferencesChart.pdf)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Traditionalists</th>
<th>Baby Boomers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>History</strong></td>
<td>Born between 1922 – 1945</td>
<td>Born between 1946 – 1964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lived through WWII and the Great Depression</td>
<td>Lived through civil rights &amp; women’s movement; Vietnam War</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Characteristics</strong></td>
<td>Conformed to societal norms</td>
<td>Largest living generation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Known as the “silent generation”</td>
<td>Differing views of politics, war, and social justice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Values</strong></td>
<td>Defined sense of right and wrong</td>
<td>Believed in individual choice &amp; freedom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Loyalty and respect for authority</td>
<td>Social, educational, and economically goal driven</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 3: Seniors Online

**Screen Time**

Older adults spend more time online than younger people. Monthly average hours online per visitor in 2010:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE GROUP</th>
<th>12-17</th>
<th>18-24</th>
<th>25-34</th>
<th>35-44</th>
<th>45-54</th>
<th>55-64</th>
<th>65-plus</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12-17</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-24</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65-plus</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: comScore Media Metrix

**Are You There?**

People age 55-plus account for a slightly larger share of Facebook users than those 17 and under:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE GROUP</th>
<th>2-11</th>
<th>55-64</th>
<th>35-44</th>
<th>25-34</th>
<th>45-54</th>
<th>19-24</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2-11</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
<td>20.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
<td>20.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20.1%</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
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<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td></td>
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<td>22.4%</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
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<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20.1%</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19-24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: comScore Media Metrix

**Popular Pursuits**

The percentage of individuals who:

- **Go online**: 93% Ages 12-17, 76% Ages 56-64, 69% Ages 65-73
- **Use a social-network site**: 73% Ages 12-17, 43% Ages 56-64, 34% Ages 65-73
- **Send instant messages**: 67% Ages 12-17, 30% Ages 56-64, 29% Ages 65-73
- **Send/read email**: 73% Ages 12-17, 93% Ages 56-64, 90% Ages 65-73
- **Buy a product online**: 48% Ages 12-17, 69% Ages 56-64, 59% Ages 65-73
- **Work on own blog**: 14% Ages 12-17, 11% Ages 56-64, 8% Ages 65-73

Source: Pew Research Center
**Figure 4: Owners of Electronic Devices by Age**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cell phone</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desktop computer</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laptop computer</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iPod/MP3 player</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Game console</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e-Book reader</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tablet, like iPad</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None of these</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Pew Research Center’s Internet & American Life Project, August 9-September 13, 2010 Tracking Survey. N=3,001 adults 18 and older, including 1,000 reached via cell phone. Interviews were conducted in English (n=2,804) and Spanish (n=197).
**Figure 5: SNOWS That Cater to Seniors.**

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- **BIOLOGICAL**
  Health – *AGENET* provides aging info, *SENIOR-SITE* is for caregivers.

- **PSYCHOLOGICAL**
  Professional – Examples are *LINKEDIN*, *VIADIO*, AND *XING*.
  *Mental Health* – *LUMINOSITY* has brain improvement games.

- **SOCIAL**
  Personal – These connect people to others. Some used by elders are: *CLASSMATES*, *MYSPACE*, *MYLIFE*, *FACEBOOK*.
  Gaming – Elders use these to play and communicate with others. An example is *POGO* (bingo, slots). *ZOOSK* is a dating website.
  Messaging & Email – Keep in touch, *AIM*, *TWITTER*, *AOL*, *GMAIL*.
  *Video calls* – *SKYPE* provides free or low cost voice/video calls.

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Aw Yeah: Let’s Read!

Patricia M. Kirtley
Terry Lovelace
Independent Scholars

William M. Kirtley
Central Texas College
Introduction

*Comics is a language. It is a language that most people intuitively understand.*

(Griffith, p. 1)

For a child, the ability to read is a key to intellectual and social growth and a source of never-ending wonder. Early childhood usually includes parental recitation of simple board books with engaging childhood images. As the child matures, the desire for independence demands individual word recognition and involvement in the story arc. This is a fertile field for the introduction of simple texts utilizing word/picture recognition such as comic books.

Legendary cartoonist Will Eisner (2008) in *Comics and Sequential Art* explained that comic books combine the words, images, and layout of artists and writers to weave the fabric of communication (p. xiv). Comic books involve readers because the characters speak for them and to them. Theorist Scott McCloud (1993) observed in *Understanding Comics*, that we don’t just observe comic books; we become them (p. 36). This process constitutes an interactive sociocultural act.

Some consider comic books déclassé. Eisner (2006) recalled that Jules Pfeifer, a cartoonist for the *New Yorker*, thought comics were “junk” (xvii). Eisner did not like the term “comics.” He preferred the term “sequential art.” Comics gained a measure of respectability after Art Spiegelman won a Pulitzer Prize for his graphic novel *Maus* (1992). Today, comic books are the subject of scholarly study in a variety of disciplines. The text-image format provides artists and writers with a multitude of story options. Early artists drew political cartoons for adults. Super-hero comics appealed to young male adolescents. In recent years, publishers marketed comics for adults who could afford them and were interested in mature story lines. Many conflate these genres with an entire medium. If you perused the shelves of a comic store it is easy to see how one might arrive at this false conclusion.

Ben Saunders, a professor at the University of Oregon, termed comics, “The most effective form of communication ever devised” (cited by Cooper, 2015, p. 8). Everything from airline safety cards, to instruction manuals, to *Preventative Maintenance Magazine*, Eisner’s work for the US Army, employs this medium. There is a comic book for people of every age, disposition, and predilection.

Despite this, the perception that comic books or “funnies” are meant for children persists. Jahsonic, a contributor to the Art and Popular Culture Website, lamented that modern day comics “are not necessarily funny or for children” (p. 1). Scott McCloud (2000) in *Reinventing Comics* warned that such sentiments denote a revival of the “comics are a danger to children” motif (p. 83). The discussion becomes clear, if one realizes that different genres of comic books appeal to diverse audiences.

This analysis focuses on one comic book in a series written and drawn for children. The perspectives gained from such an examination revealed that *Tiny Titans, Welcome to the Treehouse* Vol. 1 (2007) by Art Baltazar (artist and writer) and Franco Aureliani (writer) encourages and facilitates literacy and opens children’s minds to stories that delight and enchant them.

*Welcome to the Tiny Titans*

*There’s a lot more in cartoons than meets the eye.*

(McCloud, *Understanding* p. 45)
Welcome to the Treehouse Vol. 1 (2007) is a colorful, amusing comic book for all ages, especially young children. Baltazar and Franco won three Eisner awards for Best Publication for Kids in 2009, 2011, and 2014. Baltazar self-published his first comic book, Patrick The Wolf Boy (2000). One morning, while feeding his children breakfast; Baltazar received a call from Jann Jones, an editor at DC Comics. She asked him to create a comic book series for children. Baltazar’s reply to the offer of a dream job for a cartoonist was, "YES! Possitootly Absolootly!" (2014, Tiny Titans webpage). From then on, he considered it his job to write comics for six-year-olds. The context of the history of comics and their use in the classroom helps one better understand the importance of Baltazar and Franco’s work.

History of Comic Books


Robert L. Throndyke, a pioneer in educational research at Columbia Teachers College, determined the grade level for Superman #11 (1940) was 6.6 and Batman #8 (1940) was 5.9. He published his results in an article “Words and Comics” (1941) that appeared in the prestigious Journal of Experimental Education in which he concluded that comic books were of “real value” teaching children to read (p. 112). Subsequently, he co-authored a language arts workbook featuring Superman.

However, Fredric Wertham (1953), a well-known psychiatrist argued In Seduction of the Innocent, “Comic books with their words and expletives in balloons are bad for reading” (p. 10). In the course of interviewing delinquent youths, Wertham found that they all read comic books. He concluded this is what caused their dysfunctional behavior. Wertham gained publicity when he presented his erroneous conclusions to a Senate sub-committee hearing on juvenile delinquency. Subsequently, he serialized them in the arbiter of taste in the 1950s, The Ladies’ Home Journal.

Comic Books and Education

The debate over comic books turned to their use in schools to teach reading. Sidonie Gruenberg (1944), a noted child development expert, saw comic books as a force for good, with multiple applications in education. Yang recalled that Nebraska Principal Lucile Rosencrans disagreed, calling comic books a “stumbling block” to learning (p. 1).

Emma Swain (1978), a reading diagnostician, in “Using Comic Books to Teach Reading and Language Arts,” noted “teachers and parents have criticized comic books for years” (p. 1). Swain conducted a survey of 169 students in grades 4 through 12 and found that good students read more comic books than poor students. She pointed out the tremendous popularity of comics. Retailers sold 20 million comic books a month in 1977 (p. 1). She concluded that the demand for comics was an indication of their potential for teaching children reading. She recommended that every classroom have a box of comics for students to read.
Positive appraisals of comic books flourished in modern times. Author Jennifer Haines (2004) in “Why Teach with Comics,” argued that comic books generally had high reading levels. She insisted that it was a grievous mistake to dismiss reading material that was “challenging to read, thoughtful and insightful, and age appropriate,” simply because it was a comic book (p. 1).

The mission of school librarians is to support the curriculum and encourage reading. Librarians were originally some of the most vociferous opponents of comic books. Modern librarians have a different view. Carol Tilley (2005), a professor of Library Science at the University of Illinois, in her article, “For Improving Early Literacy, Comics Is No Child’s Play,” noted the influence that comics have had on children’s literature, especially in the use of frames (panels), speech bubbles (balloons), motion lines, and sound effects (p. 1) (See Appendix A).

Librarian Jane Goodall (2013) described the benefits of using comics in the classroom to readers of the Guardian (UK) in her article, “Ten Benefits of Reading Comics” (2013). She argued that comic books encourage a love of reading, improve vocabulary, and increase confidence. She believed that comic books prove excellent resources for teaching reluctant and voracious students, as well as, those for whom English is a second language (p. 1).

David Jacobs (2013), professor of English at the University of Windsor (CN), in Graphic Encounters, stated that comic books are effective in teaching print literacy, but more important, multi-modal literacy, which he defined as “the ability to relate something to create meaning with and from texts that operate not only in alphabetic form, but also in some combination of visual, audio, and spatial form as well” (p. 3).

Publisher and pundit Corey Blake (2014) in his article, “The Benefits and Risks of Comics in Education” argued that comic books are stronger learning tools than textbooks, able to “combine story and information more effectively than any other medium” (p. 1). As proof he cited two facts: the brain processes pictures 60,000 times faster than text; and humans communicated in pictures before they used words (p. 1).

The arguments against comic books recently resurfaced. Amanda Hendricks (2014), a recent graduate of the University of California, Chico, demonstrated in her honors thesis, “Sexism, Female Performativity, and Female Presence in Comics” that D.C. and Marvel Comics became increasingly violent and sexist over the years.

Koppy McFad (2008), writing for the website, Comic Book Bin, charged that these comics were no longer suitable for children (p. 1). Inigo Montoya (2014) in his website Dorkdaddy, concurred. He insisted that publishers sold edgy comic books to appeal to a more mature audience that could afford expensive comics. He claimed that Welcome to the Treehouse was more suitable for young children than modern superhero comics.

Welcome to the Treehouse is a powerful tool for teaching reading. Readers of all abilities identify with the characters and relate to the stories. The images help reluctant readers understand the text and proficient readers use it as a springboard to more advanced reading levels. This comic book is an excellent resource for bi-lingual education. Teachers of English as a second language can use Tiny Titans activity books as an invaluable tool. Welcome to the Treehouse is not only helpful in teaching children to read, but is wholesome and appropriate for young children.

It helps to know something about the terms, attributes, and history of comics before attempting to analyze an individual comic book. It is even more important to start
thinking like a child. Baltazar and Franco’s *Welcome to the Treehouse* features those
knock-knock jokes that make adults cringe, but results in gales of laughter from
kindergarten through third graders who promptly repeat them again and again. For
example, “Why are fish so smart?” “Why?” “Because they swim in schools.” (p. 118).

**Analysis of Welcome to the Treehouse**

*This is a very silly book, friends.*

(Monical, Goodreads)

Roland Barthes (1977), the French semiotician, established an analytical foundation
for analyzing images in *Image-Music-Text*. He saw three messages in a visual work of
art: a linguistic message in the form of a caption, a denoted message in the image itself,
and a connoted message that is the result of the action of the creator and reflection of
what society thinks (p. 17). McCloud (1993) demonstrated how to graph transitions in
*Understanding Comics*. Hendrix provided her coding sheets. Richard Jenkins and
Debra Detamore (2008) provided a math skills graphing activity in *Comics in Your
Curriculum*. Bart Beatty, a comic books scholar, continues to do extensive and valuable
statistical research at the University of Calgary.

**Comic book fans review Welcome to the Treehouse**

The next question is how the comic book community received Baltazar and Franco’s
community reviews. Most reviewers gave it high marks including some interesting
comments (p. 1).

“Chuck” couldn’t, keep track of all the characters. He complained that there were two
Wonder Girls. Reply: This is not a problem for children. Two five and seven-year-old
research assistants easily identified all 43 characters after several readings. They noted
that there were three Wonder Girls in the DC comic universe (Princess Diana, Donna
Troy, and Cassandra Sandsmark). They were not in the least bothered by the fact that
two Wonder Girls appeared (Wonder Girl and Cassie) in *Welcome to the Treehouse*.
After all, they wore different outfits.

“Sesana” argued that *Welcome to the Treehouse* was really “much more about kids
than super heroes,” and that “there’s jokes that require some decent backstory”
(Goodreads, 2015, p. 1). Reply: True! No argument here, except to mention that having
a DC back-story and continuity with it, makes it more fun for kids. The DC universe
provides an exciting milieu for young readers, but the focus is on the commonality of
childhood experiences.

“Michelle” noted that there was no story line in *Welcome to the Treehouse*. Reply: In
contrast to DC comics for more mature readers that feature one story line throughout
the entire work, Baltazar and Franco created a series of engaging one to three-page
stories to match the short attention span of beginning readers.

“D’Anne” commented, “The female characters are often portrayed in stereotypical
"girly" ways, playing with Barbies and talking about cute boys” (Goodreads, 2015, p. 1).
Reply: Boys romp, play, and have fun in groups. Girls play with Barbie dolls (albeit one
is a Batgirl doll), problem solve, cook, help others, babysit and quite often save the day.
Although there is room for improvement in *Welcome to the Treehouse* as far as sexual
stereotyping, overall the creative authors are sensitive to this issue.

**Text - Captions, Word balloons, and Reading Levels**
Barthes’ first level is about why and how writers present words. He used the term “linguistic message” to refer to words as meaningful written images. Text answers the question, “What does a character say?” It binds the reader to the character. Text introduces, directs, anchors, and builds the story. In the absence of words, readers rely on their own experiences to understand the story. Comic book artists prove their talent by drawing a story with few words.

There is a tremendous amount of information in each frame. A sample of 593 words in 75 frames of Baltazar and Franco’s Welcome to the Treehouse indicated that the average number of words per frame was 7.0. Some of the words reflected every day speech patterns familiar to children like “um no” (p. 13), “Yep! (p. 13), and contractions like “that’s awful” (p. 17).

Certain artistic devices provide emphasis. Nick Napolitanto (letterer issues #1 & 2) and Baltazar (letterer issues #3-6) both favored an upper case, straightforward lettering style. They used lots of bold type, color, and borders. Eisner (2008) favored this type of old-school hand lettering because it is “the most idiosyncratic and expressive means” of expressing the author’s emotions (p. 24).

There are 1986 words in the 470 frames of Welcome to the Treehouse (See Appendix B). Seventy-four percent of them are in speech bubbles that carry the action of the story and enable the reader to identify directly with the characters. Fourteen percent of the words are in the background. Sound effects like “POP” (p. 12), “Wwaahh!” (p. 17), and “Swoosh” (p. 51) lend excitement and drama to the story.

Twelve percent of the words are in the captions. Even though captions contained the smallest percentage of words, they are important because they give the reader the title of the story and set the scene. If the reader does not get the joke or understand the story, it is most likely due to missed information given in the first frame. Eisner (2008) warned artists that, “The most important obstacle to surmount is the tendency of the reader’s eye to wander (p. 41).

Capstone Publishing has a good reputation in the comic community for rewarding the creators of comic books and bringing comic books and graphic novels to the classroom. Capstone added a hard cover, a reinforced library binding, and provided reading level information to facilitate sales of Treehouse at a price of $15.95.

The Capstone Publishers website listed the reading level for Treehouse as grades 1-2, and the interest level as 1-3. The Flesch-Kincaid grade level scale indicated a 1.6 reading level. Because the text-image nature of comic books helps children of all abilities to read, this comic appeals to a wider range of students than indicated by the reading level. Adults often read comics to pre-school children. This anticipatory preparation encourages them to learn to read.

The Capstone Publishers website gave a Lexile level of GN 150L for Treehouse. GN identifies this comic as a graphic novel. Schools are much more likely to buy graphic novels than comic books for the classroom. The 150L refers to a reading level appropriate for first and beginning level of second grade. MetaMetrics, the parent company of the Lexile Reading Framework, shared their research with the team that developed the Common Core Standards. Lexile bands match target ranges outlined in these controversial national standards. Opponents of Common Core point out mismatches in the ratings for various books and the importance of teachers and librarians recommending books for children that match the child’s interests.
Characters – Boys, Girls, Pets, Monsters, and Adults

Barthes called the obvious meaning the denoted level (p. 65). The viewer sees polysemous images in the frames of a comic book. Artists call a page with one frame a splash page. If there is no frame, the artist has a reason, perhaps to indicate unlimited space. The first frame of a story is important. It introduces the plot and characters. A frame is the literary equivalent of a paragraph. McCloud (1993) noted that the images within a frame act like adjectives and adverbs (p. 11).

Analysis of the characters depicted in the frames of Welcome to the Treehouse (N=470) indicated that Balthazar and Franco do not usually use characters or objects in the background, except to set the scene in the opening frame. The characters act more like children than super heroes. This, much to the dismay of committed DC fans.

The number of girl characters and boy characters is reflective of the DC universe. Boys (39%) outnumbered girls (27.4%). The number of cute animals (21.9%), and monsters (6.4%), exceeded the portrayals of adults (4.7%) (See Appendix C).

All categories of characters appeal to young boys and girls. Boy and girl characters are equal in their powers and foibles. Children find it amusing that Baltazar and Franco portray so few adults. The parents of two of the Tiny Titans, Rose and Raven, are the principal, Mr. Slade and a substitute teacher, Mr. Trigon, at Sidekick Elementary School. Patterned on evil characters from the DC universe, Baltazar and Franco portray these adults as being mildly annoying or overwhelmingly kind. The two girls comment on their fathers, “This is so embarrassing” (p. 8).

It proved difficult to sort the characters in the world of the Tiny Titans into specific categories. Bee is miniscule, but interacts equally with much larger characters. Rather than put her in the "girl" category or create an “insect” category, the researchers put her in the “animal” category. The comic book writers refer to all monsters as “he.” If one included monsters in the “boy” category, it would skew the ratio of boys to girls even further towards the boys. We categorized Blue Beetle, the legacy name of several DC super-heroes, as a boy because he looks and acts like the other boys. In one story, he brings his collection of bugs to the Pet Club. It was impractical, inaccurate and exhausting to count hundreds of tiny insects and put them in a separate category. As far as Blue Beetle’s backpack that speaks in glyphs, well, it is in a category all its own.

Themes – Welcome to a Child’s World

Analysis of Welcome to the Treehouse revealed compelling themes and a signature pattern of transitions between frames. While action comics tend to feature good versus evil conflicts, Baltazar and Franco embraced the reality of a child’s milieu in focusing on the themes that dominate their world. Investigation of the total number of frames (N=470) revealed that the seven themes were: relationships (24%), jokes (15%), adults (15%), competition (15%), school (15%), mischief (6%), and pets (3%) (See Appendix D). None of the themes revolve around violence or sexist situations.

The stories in Welcome to the Treehouse center on the experiences of primary school students: likes and dislikes, teasing, and clothes. The character Terra is a good example. Baltazar and Franco modeled her on a DC super hero who has the power of geo-kinesis. Terra throws rocks at Beast Boy, who interprets her actions as a sign that she likes him (The feeling is mutual). Her actions pay homage to a comic that had a great influence on Will Eisner, George Herriman’s early 20th century newspaper comic strip, Krazy Kat. Comics scholar Matt Cooper, writing for Cascade Magazine, told the
story of Herriman’s long-running plot that revolved around Ignatz, a mouse. Ignatz “behurdils” (throws) bricks at Krazy Kat who misinterprets this action as a signifier of affection (p. 11).

Every story in Welcome to the Treehouse involves a joke. The humor revolves around knock-knock jokes, running gags, word play, unexpected outcomes, or adults who are slow to grasp a situation. Robin (as Nightwing), Batgirl, and a penguin stand on each other’s shoulders, don a Batman mask and cowl, and fool Police Commissioner James Gordon, head of the Gotham City police department and father of Barbara Gordon (Batgirl), into thinking they are Batman with a cold.

One frame in Welcome to the Treehouse depicts an adult figure from his shoulders down, the view as seen by a small child (p. 5). The name of the character is not revealed. One must know the DC backstory to get this joke. Competition takes the form of a game of tag over who gets to use a swing set, a continuing foot race, and dealing with pesky birds. In the latter two contests, a girl wins by outwitting the boys. Several stories are set in Sidekick Elementary School. Beast Boy fools the science teacher by morphing into different animals. Rose’s little brother Jericho hypnotizes Mr. Slade, the principal. The Tiny Titans do get into lots of good-natured trouble. In the story “Penguins in the Batcave,” Alfred, Batman’s trusted butler, sits Robin, Beast Boy, Aqualad, and a waddle of penguins in the corner for creating a mess in the Batcave.

Transitions – the construction of sequential reality

A hallmark of excellence is how a comic artist handles the transition between frames. Artists advance the story by leading the viewer past the closure of a gutter. Several comic book scholars have categorized and graphed these leaps of faith. McCloud (1993) described six categories in his work Understanding Comics (pp. 70-78). The first category, moment-to-moment, depicts a slight change, the wink of a character’s eye. His second type of transition is action-to-action. Imagine a baseball in the first frame and in the second a baseball player knocks it out of the park. McCloud’s third category is subject-to-subject within an overall scene or idea. Watch the runner break the tape in one frame and in the next see a stopwatch recording the time. The fourth type, scene-to-scene, takes the viewer across significant distances of time and space. The fifth type is aspect-to-aspect. This transition depicts various features of a scene. There is no logical relationship between frames in the sixth type of transition, the non sequitur.

The transitions in Baltazar and Franco’s work display the nuances of sophisticated Japanese manga. Out of 470 transitions between frames, 27% were moment-to-moment, 57% action-to-action, 6% subject-to-subject, 3% scene-to-scene, 12% aspect-to-aspect, and 0% non sequitur (See appendix D). Art Baltazar’s degree in visual arts from Columbia College of Chicago accounts for much of the sophistication and technical proficiency of his work.

Conclusion

Today the possibilities for comics are – as they always have been – Endless.

McCloud, Understanding, p. 212

Comic books form a vibrant, vital, part of popular culture. Eisner (2008) in Comics and Sequential Art described comics as “the world’s most popular art form” (p. xii). Comics entertain, inspire, and transport us. They influence our collective imagination and reflect the concerns of the time in which they appear (Duke Library, 2005, p. 1). One sees their influence in literature, radio, television, films, and video games. Comics
do all of these things, but those written and drawn for a K-2 audience do something special. They teach children of all abilities to read.

An analysis of words, characters, themes, and transitions in *Welcome to the Treehouse* shows that Baltazar and Franco’s *Welcome to the Treehouse* is appropriate for beginning readers, is free from sexism and violence, and has a place in the kindergarten through third grade classroom. It offers an exciting, imaginative world that encourages small children and English as a second language learners (ESL) to independently recognize words while seeing the accompanying humorous cartoons.

Welcome to the Treehouse! Say hello to Robin, Aqualad, Blue Beetle, Raven, and Rose. Visit Sidekick Elementary School. Look out for Mr. Slade and Mr. Trigon, those reformed super villains on the teaching staff. Let’s play in the Batcave, climb on the dinosaur, roll the Big Penny, and frolic with bunnies, bats, and birds. Check on who likes whom. Robin likes Batgirl. Beast Boy likes Terra. Catch the race between Speedy and Flash. See who gets dibs on the swings after a game of tag with the Fearsome Five. It’s all there in *Tiny Titans: Welcome to the Treehouse*. It is a bright optimistic comic book that reflects a child’s world. Aw yeah! That is truly awesome!

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**Appendix A:** *Frames, gutter, speech balloon, and caption adapted from Meconis (p. 1).*

This is a frame, a panel, a moment in time, a paragraph

This is a Text or Speech Balloon

This is a Caption

Gutter
Appendix B: Source of Words in *Welcome to the Treehouse*, N=1986

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Words, N=1986</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Caption</td>
</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Background</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balloon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix C: Characters – Number of Appearances, N=1424

- Boys: 39%
- Girls: 27.40%
- Animals: 21.90%
- Monsters: 6.40%
- Adults: 4.70%
Appendix D: Themes in *Welcome to the Treehouse*, N=470

![Bar chart showing themes in *Welcome to the Treehouse*, N=470]

- 24% Relationships
- 21% Jokes
- 15% School
- 15% Adults
- 15% Competition
- 6% Mischief
- 3% Pets

Appendix E – *Transitions between frames N=470*

![Bar chart showing transitions, N=470]

- 27% Moment
- 57% Action
- 3% Scene
- 6% Subject
- 12% Aspect
- Non-Sequitur
America Cries “I’m Sorry!” - Five Apologies

William M. Kirtley  
Central Texas College

Lem Londos Railsback  
Patricia M. Kirtley  
William R. Curtis  
Terry L. Lovelace  
Independent Scholars
Introduction

Apologies are potent, symbolic, thaumaturgical acts. There are three types of apologies: individual, intra-state, and inter-national. Ordinary people, Presidents, and Popes all make apologies. An apology must include saying you are sorry and meaning it. An apology accepted normalizes social relations. This process generates public debate about national histories and reconciliation. It strengthens those who apologize. Reparations have restorative value. Fate condemns those who refuse to apologize, out of ignorance or hubris, to an endless cycle of accusation and recrimination.

The five apologies discussed in this paper are from the President and/or Congress of the United States to injured parties for actions motivated by cupidity and racism: Japanese internment and relocation of the Aleuts, slavery, the overthrow of the Hawaiian kingdom, treatment of Native Americans, and Chinese exclusion.

Apology for Japanese internment

On 7 December 1941, fourteen year-old Edwin Nakasone looked up from breakfast and watched fifteen Japanese aircraft headed for Pearl Harbor. A few days later, authorities jailed his father who had recently returned from a trip to Japan. They questioned him, held him overnight, and returned him to his family (Nakasone). The government initially detained 1800 Japanese Americans in Hawaii and 5500 on the mainland. The detainees were community leaders, Buddhist priests, newspaper editors, and language teachers. The government never accused any of them of a crime.

On 19 February 1942, President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed an Executive Order that authorized military commanders to exclude persons deemed a threat to national security. The order did not use the word “internment,” mentioning only that the government would provide food, shelter, and transportation (p. 169). Military commanders ordered 120,000 Japanese Americans on the West coast to register, sell their property, put their possessions in storage, and report to assembly areas. Two-thirds of them were US citizens and half were children.

President Roosevelt established the War Relocation Authority (WRA) on 18 March 1942. The WRA built camps in isolated and remote areas. They located two camps in California, Arkansas, and Arizona and others in Idaho, Wyoming, Utah, and Colorado. Each camp housed approximately 10,000 Japanese Americans. The government provided medical care, schools, and common dining, bathing, and toilet facilities. Residents could work outside the camp as agricultural laborers. Soldiers guarded the perimeter of the camp. Roy Saigo, now President of Southern Oregon University, recalled, that his parents were very worried. “They didn’t know if we might be gassed or shot” (cited in Perrier, 2005, p. 210).

The WRA used media control to frame their actions as benign. Jim Marshall (1942) in an article for Collier’s Weekly, “The Problem People,” justified internment on the grounds that “there is some human instinct that keeps the races apart” (p. 34). A war department newsreel (1943) stated that the Army carried out internment, “As a real democracy should, with consideration for the people involved.” In contrast, the images of three photographers, Ansel Adams, Dorthea Lang, and Toyo Miyatake conveyed a sense of pride, heartbreak, and desolation that censorship could not diminish. The WRA did not allow internees to possess cameras. However, Miyatake smuggled a camera in a specially built box into Camp Manzanar, California.
Japanese Americans displayed a diversity of opinions as befits a democratic community. Members of the Japanese American Citizens League (JACL), an organization that lobbied for citizenship rights before the war, urged its members to go peaceably into the camps. In contrast, Gordon Hirabayashi, Fred Korematsu, and, Minoru Yasui refused internment. The US government arrested and imprisoned them. George Takei, narrator of the film, *Toyo’s Camera*, expressed his guilt in chiding his father for entering the camp like a sheep (Suzuki, 2008). Takei realized only later that the truth was far more complicated. His father died before Takei could apologize.

Conflict continued inside the camps. Sam Hohri, editor of *Free Press*, the newspaper at Camp Manzanar suggested compliance with authorities in the interest of national defense. Japanese Americans educated in Japan, advocated resistance. In the winter of 1943, the WRA asked internees to complete a loyalty questionnaire. They labeled those who desired deportation, remained loyal to the Emperor, or refused to volunteer for duty in the Armed Forces, “disloyal” (15%). They sent these so-called “no-no boys” to a detention camp at Tule Lake, California.

The respondents to this questionnaire suffered practical and ethical dilemmas. Those born in Japan, could not, by law, become naturalized citizens. If they renounced their Japanese citizenship, they would become stateless persons. The WRA asked those born in the United States, and therefore citizens, to volunteer for military service for a country that imprisoned their parents and siblings.

The government closed the camps in 1945. The internees returned to their communities and attempted to resume their lives. Many encountered distrust and discrimination. Issei (1st generation) leaders made it clear that they did not wish to stir up “old bad feelings” (Daniels, “Relocation,” 1999, p. 183). Sentiment in the Japanese community shifted, as one generation gave way to the next. Congress established the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians (CWIRC) in 1980 to investigate Japanese-American requests for an apology and reparations.

The Commission heard testimony and issued a two-part report in 1983. The first part called for an apology to Japanese Americans interned by the government, pardons for those who refused internment, action by the government to deal with losses incurred by the internees, establishment of an educational foundation, and reparations of $20,000 paid to each Japanese American interned (Daniels, “Redress,” 1999, p. 189). The second part concerned 881 Aleuts evacuated from the Pribilof and Aleutian islands to internment camps in Southeastern Alaska. According to the commission, this was a clear case of military necessity; but, considering the deplorable conditions they endured and the loss of their possessions, the Aleuts were entitled to compensation.

Grayce Uyehara, a social worker from Philadelphia, spearheaded the JACL lobbying effort. Uyehara feared that veterans groups might object to giving $1.25 billion to Japanese American internees. She urged her supporters to spread the message of the sacrifice and heroism of the 442nd Regimental Combat Team and the 100th Infantry Battalion of the Hawaii National Guard. This forestalled the development of any real opposition. Members of Congress voted without fear of retribution by their constituents, a so-called “free vote” (Hatamiya, 1999, p. 192).

Congresspersons of Japanese descent, led by decorated war veteran Senator Matsunaga (D-HI), talked to every member of Congress. Rep. Barney Frank (D-MA) shepherded the legislation through various committees. In 1988, Congress passed the
Civil Liberties Act, which wrote into law the recommendations of the CWIRC. President George H. W. Bush issued a formal apology on 7 December 1991. President Bill Clinton apologized on 1 October 1993. Rep. Daniel Lundgren (R-CA) believed that reparations were unnecessary. He feared that the Act would fuel the demands of African Americans and Native Americans for apologies and reparations. Rep. Norman Mineta (D-CA) replied, “At issue here is wholesale violation, based on race, of those whose legal principles we were fighting to defend” (cited in Daniels, “Redress,” 1999, p. 161).

The government of the United States yielded to racism, greed, and hysteria and ordered many of its own citizens into internment camps without due process of law. Japanese Americans worked with interest groups and elected officials to gain redress. The US government interned the parents and grandparents of Ellen Somekawa. She termed the apology, “a huge thing” (Gammage, 2003, p. 2). She declared it was an exciting opportunity to highlight an important chapter in American history. Japanese Americans like Somekawa gained the sincere and full apology they sought, and established a paradigm for other groups to follow, a model never fully replicated.

Hawaiian Rape

A small group of islands, now called “Hawaii,” sits near the middle of the Pacific Ocean between North America and Asia. Visitors from the Polynesian Islands to the southwest inhabited these islands in the eighth century. According to oral tradition, the priest Pa’aao brought the native Tahitian naturalist religion to Hawaii. Spanish explorers visited the islands in the late sixteenth century, but journeyed on to the Philippines. On 18 January 1778, Captain James Cook visited and named the islands “Sandwich Islands” in honor of the First Lord of the Admiralty, John Montagu, 4th Earl of Sandwich.

Kamehameha (1758-1819), a local chief, secured British guns and artillery, conquered all of the islands, and ruled as king. Along with British arms, came measles, flu, whooping cough, cholera, and venereal disease. Alcohol, tobacco, fleas, mosquitoes, and other foreigners also accompanied the British. Nearly half of the natives died in the 1803 cholera epidemic. In 1819, the king died.

In 1820, the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions (ABCFM) sent its first group of missionaries to the islands. Over the next several decades, the Board sent eleven more groups. Missionaries from the Anglican, Catholic, Church of Latter Day Saints, Congregational, Presbyterian, Russian Orthodox, and other denominations worked to save the “heathen Hawaiians.” Tension among the congregations and the native religion prompted King Kamehameha III (1813-1854) to issue the Edict of Toleration whereby everyone could practice their preferred religions. The constitution of 1840 provided religious liberty for all. Some sects grew powerful. The Church of Latter Day Saints bought a 6,000-acre plantation in La‘ie in 1865.

By the 1820’s, the islands became the favored port-of-call for international traders and whalers. Foreign diplomats, businessmen, and others arrived and rented property from the king. They persuaded the monarchy to develop large tracts for growing sandalwood, a very profitable export at the time. This changed the economy from small farming to large plantations. Small farmers became lowly wage earners. In 1835, sugar cane plantations began to supplant the sandalwood tracts. The foreigners grew wealthy and the small farmers lost their traditional religion and customs.

In 1859—Charles Darwin published *On the Origin of Species*. From reading Darwin,
Herbert Spencer coined the phrase, “survival of the fittest.” Many interpreted this phrase as referring to nature’s “law” that only the toughest, strongest, and, even, meanest continually fighting creatures survived. The notion of Manifest Destiny took root in a short time. That notion held that since the colonists had “whupped the Brits” and won their independence, put down a lot of Indians and taken their native lands, installed a system of slavery of Irish and Negroes and others, and began settling the West, then, truly, the Christian God Almighty must have meant for them to do so. And since those western settlers were White, then the Christian God must have meant for the White Americans to do all that; therefore, they had the obligation—the “White Man’s Burden”—to settle the land from east to west and from south to north and to direct the lives and save the souls of the reds, blacks, yellows, browns, and sun-darks.

A clear difference arose in the minds of these burden-carrying Whites, between themselves—the destined—and all of those native populations—the heathens or the undestined. Meanwhile, the Louisiana Purchase, the gain of much of Mexico’s land after the War of 1848, and other adventures favored the destined. Even after the American Civil War had “ended” slavery, states in the south passed laws in the 1890’s to maintain the divinely destined dividing walls between the destined and the undestined. The international version of the “White Man’s Burden” pushed further beyond the Pacific coastline so that by the beginning of the twentieth century, the US controlled much of Alaska, Cuba, the Philippines, Puerto Rico, Hawaii, and Guam.

Of course, those Christian God Almighty-chosen brought the blessings of liberty, economic opportunities for individuals, representative government, and other blessings to all of those conquered peoples, even without the conquered peoples’ consent and with the loss of their cultures, their religions, and their former ways of life.

Wealthy landowners and their associates challenged Hawaiian kings throughout the nineteenth century. The constitution of 1852 seriously limited the powers of the king. The 1864 constitution restored some of Kamehameha V’s powers but imposed new property-ownership and educational requirements on voters, severely diminished the political power of common Hawaiians, and eliminated the House of Representatives.

King David Kalakaua (1836-1891) studied law at the age of sixteen at the Royal School. By age twenty, he achieved the rank of major on the staff of King Kamehameha IV. In 1874, his fellow Hawaiians elected him to the throne. He built an innovative island home with electricity and indoor plumbing. He was the first Hawaiian king to travel to the US where he secured the 1876 Reciprocity Treaty to eliminate the US tax on sugar as a foreign import. As a result, the Hawaiian growers gained power. In 1871 and 1887, Kalakaua circumnavigated the world, visited many countries, and met with their leaders. He proposed the formation of an Asiatic Federation of Hawaii and Japan to resist the imposing imperialism of the US. When he invited Japanese workers to the fields of Hawaii, thousands came. His friend, Thomas Edison, visited and took the very first movies of Hawaiians. Robert Louis Stevenson came numerous times and sided with Kalakaua’s attempts to bring back the native culture as per his slogan “Hawaii for Hawaiians,” to grant universal suffrage to women and the poor, bring back native hula and chants, surfing and indigenous handicrafts, and foster strong political ties with powerful nations around the globe. The disgruntled destined saw this as a threat.

In 1888, the destined formed an armed Honolulu Rifle Company (HRC). Lorrin A. Thurston, a lawyer, politician, and businessman, led the HRC. He was the grandson of
two of the first missionaries in Hawaii. His grandfather, Asa Thurston, and grandmother, Ludy Goodale, arrived with the first missionary group. Thurston’s HRC forced King Kalakaua to sign the “Bayonet Constitution,” so-called for obvious reasons. This new constitution, once again, bolstered the political and economic might of the destined and severely limited the eco-political and cultural might of the native un destined. After sailing to California in late 1890 to seek medical treatment, King Kalakaua died in January 1891. His sister Liliuokalani (1838-1915) became queen.

One of the most destined, John L. Stevens—journalist, author, minister, newspaper publisher, and a founder of the Republican Party in Maine—preached the gospel of Manifest Destiny. His former newspaper publisher partner, James G. Blaine ran for president in 1876 and in 1880. As a reward for Blaine’s support, President James A. Garfield named him his Secretary of State. Stevens persuaded Blaine to appoint him “Minister Plenipotentiary and Envoy Extraordinary” to the Kingdom of Hawaii. After arriving at his new post, Stevens requested that the US Navy station the cruiser, USS Boston, indefinitely in Honolulu harbor.

Queen Liliuokalani attempted to promulgate a new constitution, which would restore the powers of the monarchy and voting rights to commoners. Such actions angered the destined, led by Thurston, who formed the Annexation Club. On the evening of 14 January 1893, Minister Stevens met with Sanford B. Dole, lawyer and son of early Christian missionaries, and Thurston to hatch an audacious plot to overthrow Hawaii’s Queen and bring her country into the United States.

Thurston’s Annexation Club morphed into the Committee of Safety and prepared documents for a new government. On 16 January 1893, Envoy Stevens, claiming that Americans and their properties were in grave danger, summoned 162 Marines and sailors from the USS Boston. Instead of providing protection, the well-armed marines and sailors surrounded Hawaiian government buildings and royal residences. In light of the overwhelming odds against her, and in order to avoid bloodshed of her subjects, Queen Liliuokalani ordered her armed forces to stand down and then she abdicated. The Honolulu Rifles took over the government buildings and set up a provisional government. Dole assumed the presidency. Subsequently, the new republic imprisoned the queen and seized 1.75 million acres of royal land.

After the coup d’etat, Stevens established a protectorate and sent emissaries to Washington, D.C., to push for annexation. President Benjamin Harrison referred Stevens’ request for annexation to Congress on 16 February 1893. Newly elected President Grover Cleveland cancelled the annexation process and sent a commissioner to the islands to investigate. The investigator recommended a withdrawal of the new protectorate and Stevens resigned. On 17 July 1893, the Blount Report declared that Stevens had acted inappropriately. Stevens claimed that the queen was immoral, and needed to be dethroned. In 1898, a different Congress and a different president, William McKinley, annexed Hawaii and appointed Dole as territorial governor.

During the remainder of her life—i.e., until 1917, the queen wrote her autobiography. She also penned the famous international parting song Aloha Oe (Farewell To Thee). On 21 August 1959, Hawaii became a member of the United States. In 1993, on the basis of Queen Liliuokalani’s autobiography and many other supporting documents, on the one hundred year anniversary of the coup, President Bill Clinton signed a bill into law formally apologizing for the illegal invasion of Hawaii.
The Apology for Slavery: Just Get Over It! Really?

An apology for an obvious wrong is often immediate, personal, and quickly forgotten. For the United States of America one affront lasted over 300 years and divided this country in a civil war. Some seek to excuse the introduction of slavery on the emerging American continent by elucidating its existence in ancient times and its presence in sacred texts including the Bible. Others cite the economic necessity for labor in the burgeoning new nation. Though both of these arguments are plausible, opponents will claim that the outright ownership of human beings is immoral regardless of the circumstances. The apology for slavery by the United States constitutes a meaningful chapter in this ongoing debate. The United States House of Representatives issued the first apology in 2008. The United States Senate concurred one year later.

Roy Brooks (1999), University of San Diego Distinguished Law Professor, chronicled In When Sorry Isn’t Enough, that the first blacks to arrive in North America in 1619 initially enjoyed a measure of economic, as well as, social and political freedom. This freedom rapidly disappeared when individual colonies passed laws protecting slavery (p. 309). The treatment of millions of enslaved Africans was brutal, inhumane, and cruel. After capturing African slaves, traders separated families and sold them as animals or inanimate objects. By the dawn of the new American nation, the authors of independence proved to be enthusiastic but remarkably near-sighted. Indeed all men are created equal referred only to Caucasians.

One hundred years after the founding of the American nation, slavery was rampant. By the 1850s, Abolitionists in the Northern states argued vehemently for the end of slavery and the inhuman treatment of African slaves, while citizens of Southern states defended the right to slave labor to maintain their agricultural economy based on cotton, tobacco, and sugar. In 1857, US Supreme Court Chief Justice Robert Brooke Taney Unfortunately ruled, in Dred Scott v. Sandford (1857), that “blacks were regarded as beings of an inferior order . . . unfit to associate with the white race” and “had no right which the white man had to respect” (cited in Brooks, When sorry, 1999, p. 309).

The eventual result of these heated partisan debates was the American Civil War (1861-1865) that nearly destroyed the South and cost the new nation over 600,000 lives. Though the 13th Amendment to the United States Constitution abolished slavery in 1865 after the Civil War, African Americans soon saw justice compromised by Jim Crow laws that reinforced racism and the separation of African Americans from their rightful equality. These heinous post-Reconstruction laws mandated segregation on public transportation, in restrooms, restaurants, schools, and theaters. Finally, the Supreme Court ruled in Brown v. Board of Education (1954) that state laws requiring segregation of public schools were unconstitutional. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 and Voting Rights Act of 1965 abolished all remaining Jim Crow laws.

Steve Cohen (D-TN), with 120 co-sponsors, on 30 July 2008 introduced a resolution in the US House of Representatives to apologize for the institution of slavery and the Jim Crow laws that followed. In a building built with slave labor, Representative Cohen urged his colleagues to pass the resolution “because only a great nation can recognize and admit its mistakes and create a more perfect union” (H.Res. 194). Cohen's resolution recognized the presence of slavery in the American colonies and the United
States from 1619 through 1865 and concluded with a commitment to stop the occurrence of human rights violations in the future.

Senator Tom Harkin (D-IA) introduced a resolution apologizing for the enslavement and racial segregation of African Americans on 18 July 2009. One very important disclaimer concluded, “nothing in this resolution authorizes or supports any claim against the United States” (S. Con. Res. 26). Professor Kaimipono David Wenger (2009) stated in the *Connecticut Law Review* that “Unlike the House apology, the Senate apology contains additional limiting language, specifically stating that it cannot be used as a ground for monetary compensation” (p.1).

Several individual states passed their own apologies for slavery. Virginia was the first state to pass a resolution condemning slavery in February 2007 followed by Maryland, North Carolina, Alabama, New Jersey, and Florida. Verbal discussion on a slavery apology before and after the passage of the Senate’s resolution was often passionate and verbose. Individual resistance to an apology for slavery in the American colonies and subsequent United States followed a remarkably consistent mantra.

Columnist Leonard Pitts (9 April, 1998), commented in his article, “Slavery Apology was Fitting and Proper” that, after President Bill Clinton’s visit to Africa, columnist George Will, commentator Pat Buchanan, and former US House Majority Leader Tom Delay (R-TX) vehemently objected to Clinton’s remarks that “European Americans received the fruits of the slave trade. And we were wrong in that” (p.1). The real invective came from columnist Robert Novak. On CNN’s “Crossfire,” he repeatedly referred to blacks as “you people” and railed that his ancestors lived in other countries at the time of slavery so no apology was necessary. He also noted that the delegation of successful African Americans accompanying Clinton provided clear and convincing evidence that their success resulted from the slave trade. “If it hadn’t been for slavery, they wouldn’t even be in America, would they?” (cited in Pitts, 1998, p.1).

Olympia Meola and Robin Farmer (2007, February 4), wrote in their *Richmond Times Dispatch* (VA) article, “Local residents split over value of slavery apology,” that Virginia state legislator Frank D. Hargrove (R-Hanover) proposed that his state celebrate Juneteenth, to commemorate the end of slavery on 19 June 1865. He opposed any apology for slavery because no one living today was involved in it. He said of slavery, “Our black citizens should get over it” (p. A-1).

Critic Camille Paglia (1999) claimed in her magazine column, “Who is really to blame for the historical scar of black slavery?” that only offending parties could give apologies for their transgressions and her “people had nothing to do with African slave trade” (p. 353). She stated slavery existed worldwide, especially in Third World countries, and any American apology should include concurrent apologies from all cooperating nations of the West and Central Africa. She noted that an apology was an “empty gesture” while the real need was to focus on the future and multiculturalism. She concluded, “The obsession with slavery—abolished here nearly a century and a half ago—is itself a form of enslavement” (p. 354).

For some the mere mention of monetary reparation was a sticking place to the endorsement of this apology, even though the joint resolution clearly included a disclaimer. Wenger stated, “the existence of numerous official apologies which give no legal right to compensation (most recently to Native Hawaiians) show that apology does not automatically grant the right to compensation” (p. 2). Reparation may not even be
possible, but the imminently plausible suggestion of a federally funded and maintained national museum of slavery is a strong and practical opportunity. Brooks (2004) suggested in *Atonement and Forgiveness: A New Model for Black Reparations* building a slavery museum patterned on the Holocaust Museum in Washington, D.C. or the Simon Wiesenthal Center Museum in Los Angeles (p.157). He hoped that, "For the vast majority of Americans, the museum will challenge their thinking and, it may be hoped, transform them" (p. 159).

Ramifications of slavery and subsequent Jim Crow laws continue to this day. Repetition of the glib comment that African Americans should “Just get over it!” is insulting and degrading. Austina J. Hume, an African American resident of Richmond, Virginia stated that she sees a “denial of responsibility” by people who say they had nothing to do with slavery but enjoy the benefits inherited from that system” (Meola and Farmer, 2007, p. A1). She comments that both sides paid a huge price, denial is stressful, and African Americans want nothing more than for it to be over. “An apology would relieve white members of society of the weight of their psychological burden for the better of us all. If white people ‘get over it,’ it would be over” (Meola and Farmer, 2007, p. A1).

If America is to achieve progress in the 21st century, it must avoid the labyrinth of obfuscation and recommit to the 2009 apology passed as a joint Congressional Resolution. “Recognizing the injustice and abomination of slavery in America calls on all people of the United States to work toward eliminating racial prejudices, injustices, and discrimination from our society” (S. Con. Res. 26). This cannot remain an empty platitude. Only with recommitment to the principle that all people are created equal and endowed with inalienable rights will the pursuit of happiness be possible.

**Congress Apologizes to Native Americans?**

In 2009 the United States Congress and President Obama “apologized” to Native American nations for violence, mistreatment, and neglect inflicted during the past 400 years. The United States government has broken at least 371 treaties ratified between Native American nations, beginning in 1778 when the Delaware nation ceded their land to the federal government. Congress has plenary power over Native American affairs, which means that Congress has the ultimate right to pass legislation governing Native Americans, even when that legislation conflicts with or abrogates Indian treaties. When the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth Rock, Native Americans controlled all of the United States’ eventual land mass; today, the 358 federally recognized Indian reservations make up barely two percent of American soil (Egan, 2000).

In 1824 Congress created the Bureau of Indian Affairs, an agency within the War Department, designed to work closely with the United States Army to enforce the policies dictated by the federal government. At times the federal government recognized Native American nations as self-governing, independent political communities with different cultures; at other times the government attempted to force Native Americans to assimilate into the White culture (Victoriana Magazine, 2015). By the 1850s, westward expansion into Native American occupied territory west of the Mississippi River greatly influenced federal policy.

The Indian Removal Act of 1830 established the precedent by which the federal government could relocate—by force if necessary—Native Americans to reservations in
the Oklahoma Territory in response to demands of White settlers and gold miners. The President could grant lands west of the Mississippi River to Native American nations that agreed to abandon their homelands. Incentives included financial and material assistance to relocate to the new reservations. The federal government guaranteed that the Native Americans would live on these reservations under the protection of the United States government forever.

For the next 44 years, the federal government focused on moving Native Americans to designated reservations. During the displacement, many Native Americans suffered and perished. The infamous Trail of Tears and massacres, such as The Sand Creek Massacre in 1864 and The Wounded Knee Massacre in 1890, are examples of the treatment of Native Americans during this period of American history.

President Andrew Jackson from Tennessee was a forceful proponent of Indian removal. He pushed the Indian Removal Act through both houses of Congress. His belief, that Native Americans were children who needed the guidance of wise White men, reflected a paternalistic, patronizing attitude. Removal would save the Native Americans from the depredations of White men. While some Native American nations, such as the Choctaws in 1830 and the Chickasaws in 1832, voluntarily agreed to relocate. The Seminoles, Creeks, and Cherokees resisted.

The Cherokees unwittingly accepted an illegitimate treaty. In 1833, a small faction agreed to sign a removal agreement: the Treaty of New Echota. The leaders of this group were not the recognized leaders of the Cherokee nation, and over 15,000 Cherokees -- led by Chief John Ross -- signed a petition in protest. The Supreme Court ignored their demands and ratified the treaty in 1836. The government gave the Cherokee two years to migrate. Any remaining tribal members, at the end of that time, faced forcible removal. The US government sent in 7,000 troops, who drove them into stockades at bayonet point. Tribal members were not allowed to gather their belongings and, as they left, Whites looted their homes. Then began The Trail of Tears march, in which at least 4,000 of the 16,543 Cherokee who relocated died of cold, hunger, and disease on their way to the western lands. By 1837, the US government had removed 46,000 Native Americans from their homelands in the southeastern states, thereby opening 25 million acres for settlement. The Seminole tribe in Florida, which resisted the removal, fought three wars against the United States and never signed a peace treaty with the federal government.

Kevin Gover, a Pawnee and head of the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) during the Clinton administration, apologized for his agency’s “legacy of racism and inhumanity” on the 175th anniversary of the BIA on 8 September 2000. He stated clearly that his remarks applied only to the BIA and that he did not presume to speak for the “nation’s elected leaders” (Gover, 2000). An audience of three hundred tribal leaders, BIA officials, and federal officials cheered when a teary-eyed Gover finished his speech. Some Native American leaders praised Gover’s remarks. Others pointed out the irony of a Native American apologizing to Native Americans and the limited nature of his apology. Eugene Johnson (Siletz) termed the apology “truly offensive” and Jim Craven (Blackfoot) called it an “obscene cover-up” (Kelly, 2000).

The Congress of the United States finally “apologized” to Native Americans. Buried in the 2010 defense appropriations bill is an expression of regret over how the United States used its power against Native Americans (McKinnon, 2009). Senators Sam
Brownback (R-KS) and Byron Dorgan (D-ND) drafted the apology and led the campaign for the apology beginning in 2004. President Obama signed the language into law in 2009. It is apparently the first official apology to Native Americans for the many instances of violence, maltreatment, and neglect inflicted by the federal government.

Senator Brownback proposed a preamble to the apology resolution that provided historical context to the measure. The preamble mentioned help provided to settlers by Native Americans, the killing of Indian women and children, the Trail of Tears, the Long Walk, the Sand Creek Massacre, the Battle of Wounded Knee, the theft of tribal lands and resources, the breaking of treaties, and the removal of Indian children to boarding schools. The Senate chose not to include this preamble in the final draft of the measure.

Senate Joint Resolution 14.IS (2010) recognized the special covenant between the United States, acting through Congress, and Indian tribes. It commended native peoples for their stewardship of the land and apologized for the breaking of covenants, as well as, many instances of violence, maltreatment, and neglect toward Native Americans. It expressed hope that the government could move toward reconciliation and build more positive relationships with Native Americans. It urged the President of the United States to publicly acknowledge these injustices and commended states that had already done so. Notably, it issued an emphatic disclaimer that this apology did not support or endorse any reparations or claims against the United States Government.

President Obama signed the “apology” resolution into law on Saturday, 19 December 2009, but he did so privately, shielded from the press. The 2010 Defense Appropriations Act, H.R. 3326, Public Law No. 111-118 included the apology in Section 8113. The apology resolution, buried in the billions of dollars of spending on new weapons and other items, is a little-noticed expression of regret over how the US had in the past misused its power.

Public apologies have a long history of healing transgressions against humanity. The international human rights framework considers public admissions of responsibility by state officials a significant part of conflict resolution and reconciliation. The operative word here is “public.” Sen. Brownback finally read the resolution at the Congressional cemetery on 20 May 2010. Present were representatives from the Cherokee, Choctaw, Muscogee (Creek), Sisseton Wahpeton Oyate, and Pawnee nations.

At the White House tribal nations conference on 5 November 2009, President Obama noted that the federal government violated treaties with tribes and perpetrated injustices against them. The resolution urged the President to acknowledge the wrongs of the United States against Indian tribes in the history of the United States in order to bring healing to this land. By signing the document as part of the defense-spending bill, did Obama fulfill the resolution? Does he have an obligation to say the apology out loud and inform the tribes that he signed the resolution? Robert T. Coulter, executive director of the Indian Law Resource Center, said there has been an “overwhelming silence” regarding the resolution.

The US Government made several feeble attempts to apologize to Native Americans. Dennis Gringold, a Native American rights attorney, commented, "It is not whether you apologize for doing something terrible, it’s whether you do something about it. If you don’t do anything, it probably is insulting" (Florio, 2015, p.2). A few paragraphs in the 2009 defense-spending bill are a beginning. Hundreds of years of maltreatment
and abuse of America’s indigenous people demands more. Native Americans deserve a complete, equitable, and public apology.

The United States Congress Apologizes to the Chinese

Chink! Coolie! Slant-eye! Barbarian! Yellow Peril! Heathen! Rat Eater! First came shocking racial epithets, then blatant discriminatory laws that led to physical violence, exclusion, murder, and finally – an apology. It is time to face the truth. Discrimination against all people of color began early. In 1790 Congress passed the Naturalization Act that stated only free White persons could become American citizens.

The first period of Chinese immigration began shortly after the California Gold Rush and ended abruptly with the passage of the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882. During this period, thousands of young male Chinese peasants left their rural villages to become laborers in the American West. According to Representative Judy Chu (D-CA), “their blood, sweat, and tears built the first transcontinental railroad, connecting the people of our nation. They opened our mines, constructed the levies, and became the backbone of farm production” (cited in Basu, 2012, p. 1).

On 6 October 2011, Congress apologized to Chinese-Americans for cruel laws adopted 130 years ago. Senator Diane Feinstein (D-CA), sponsor of the bill, stated “I hope this resolution will serve to enlighten those who may not be aware of this regrettable chapter in our history, and bring closure to the families whose loved ones lived through this difficult time.” (cited in Basu, 2012, p.1).

Chinese men came to California in the 1840s, attempting to escape poverty, famine, and overpopulation. After the discovery of gold in 1848, unscrupulous ship owners distributed recruiting pamphlets to lure Asian men, eager to make their fortune mining California’s Gam Saan (Gold Mountain). The state of California levied a Foreign Miners Tax of $20/month on the new workers. The state required Chinese American fishermen to purchase a special fishing license and pay a "police tax." These taxes brought in up to 50 percent of the entire state revenue (Asian American Artistry, 2010).

Between 1850 and 1882, 322,000 Chinese came to the United States, most of them from southern provinces of China. This massive immigration generated such panic in California that the state banned further immigration of Chinese, passed laws preventing Chinese-Americans from testifying against Whites, and excluded their children from attending public schools.

The Central Pacific Railroad Company used Chinese laborers almost exclusively (90%) to build the transcontinental railroad in the west (1864-1869). Though the Chinese provided cheap labor, they had no opportunity for education, housing, or jobs. In 1867 Chinese railway laborers staged a nonviolent two-week strike for better working conditions. The railroad subsequently cut off the workers’ rations and forced them back to work. Though the strike was unsuccessful, 5,000-7,000 Chinese workers did win the right not to be whipped or beaten (Cohen, 2010, p. 1).

Due to the need for Chinese labor, American diplomats negotiated the Burlingame-Seward Treaty (1868) that recognized the rights of Chinese citizens to immigrate to the United States and promised reciprocal privileges of residence, school, and travel. The treaty granted Secretary of State William Seward the right to preempt California laws discriminating against Chinese citizens (Cohen, 2010). Congress passed the Fourteenth Amendment (1868) and the Civil Rights Act (1870), which allowed Chinese to testify in
court and forbade the imposition of discriminatory penalties, taxes, and licenses. However, Congress retained the law barring Asian aliens from citizenship.

In 1870, the American Union Labor group supported anti-Chinese ordinances in San Francisco. To prevent multiple Chinese from sharing housing in the urban area, the city passed a Cubic Air ordinance that required 500 square feet for every adult in a dwelling. Congress also passed a law that limited the number of Chinese passengers on any ship coming to the United States; however, President Rutherford Hayes vetoed this bill on the grounds that it was inconsistent with US–China treaty commitments.

An economic depression hit the United States in the 1870s after the Civil War and American workers lost their jobs. Anti-Chinese sentiment increased enormously and the Chinese laborers became scapegoats. A scarcity of gold increased competition and exacerbated animosity between White and Chinese miners. Forced out of mining and other occupations, many Chinese settled in densely populated ghettos in cities like San Francisco where they worked in restaurants and laundries.

By 1879 Californians were so antagonistic toward the Chinese immigrants, that the wording of the second constitution in California included verbiage preventing municipalities and corporations from employing Chinese. The California state legislature passed a law requiring incorporated towns and cities to move all Chinese outside of city limits, but the US circuit court declared the law unconstitutional. Shipping companies smuggled thousands of Chinese women through San Francisco’s immigrant station and sold them into slavery. Local newspapers printed arrival information. In 1882, California passed a law against the importation of Chinese, Japanese, and "Mongolian" women for prostitution. The California census listed 61 percent (2,157) of the 3,536 Chinese women immigrants as prostitutes (Asian American Artistry, 2010, p. 1).

In 1882 Congress passed the Chinese Exclusion Act, the only federal law ever enacted to deny immigration based exclusively on race or nationality. This law set a precedent for racist foreign and national policy that led to broad exclusion laws and fostered an environment of racism in this country (Lew, 2014). This act, in effect for 129 years, banned Chinese immigration to the United States, denied citizenship to Chinese people living in the United States, and prevented thousands of Chinese men living in the United States from reuniting with the wives and children they left behind in China.

Passage of these laws intensified bigotry and led to mob violence in several cities. Anti-Chinese riots broke out in Seattle in 1886 and local authorities evicted the Chinese. Nearby Tacoma had the largest population of Chinese in Washington State (10%). A leading newspaper hoped that Tacoma would soon be "a town without a Chinaman" (Asian American Artistry, 2010). Mobs shouting racial epithets collected the Chinese and forced them onto a train bound for Portland.

That same year, The Knights of Labor organized anti-Chinese demonstrations and riots in Portland, OR. Protesters smashed windows in Chinese shops and threatened violence if the Chinese did not leave the city. Some White business leaders resisted the Knights and quelled the anti-Chinese violence. Many Chinese fled, returning to China or moving to the eastern half of the United States. Violence escalated in 1887. A gang of horse thieves and ranch hands killed 31 Chinese miners on the Snake River in Oregon (Margolis, 2011).

The Supreme Court ruled that the power of Congress over immigration was absolute. The first case to contest this decision was *Chae Chan Ping v. United States*. It
involved a Chinese resident laborer in San Francisco. He obtained a reentry certificate before visiting China, but found on his return, that an 1888 amendment retroactively voided his certificate. Immigration authorities detained him aboard ship in San Francisco Bay. The majority opinion stated that the refusal of entry was legal and exclusion of Chinese laborers preserved our civilization and way of life (US & China Visa Law Blog, 2012). Congress passed the Geary Act (1892) that required Chinese legally residing in the US to carry a certificate of residence at all times and extended the Exclusion Act.

Racial prejudice translated into panic in 1899 when the bubonic plague broke out in Hawaii. Public officials in San Francisco followed the examples of their peers in Honolulu, closing Chinese businesses, mandating inoculations, placing the Chinese under quarantine, and cordonning off Chinatown with a nine-foot-tall fence—a quarantine later ruled unconstitutional by a federal court. The combined efforts of the ethnic San Francisco Chinese community, their lawyers, and China's ambassador to the United States saved the community from complete destruction.


Three government entities eventually offered apologies to Chinese immigrants. On 6 October 2011, the Senate unanimously approved a resolution sponsored by Diane Feinstein (D-CA) apologizing for the nation's discriminatory laws that targeted Chinese immigrants. Senator Scott Brown (R-MA) co-sponsored the bill. He said that it was “important that we recognize the wrongs that were committed so many years ago” (Margolis, p. 2). Senator Marco Rubio (R-FL) also sponsored the bill. Members of the Chinese and Asian American communities including the Chinese American Citizens Alliance, the Japanese American Citizens League, and the American Jewish Committee lobbied for this apology.

On 19 June 2012, Rep. Judy Chu, (D-CA), the first Chinese-American woman elected to Congress, sponsored House Resolution 683 expressing regret for the passage of the Chinese Exclusion Act. Chu noted, “Today is historic” (Basu, 2012, p. 1). This apology was deeply personal as her grandfather experienced firsthand the prejudice generated by this Act. On 17 May 2014, the State of California apologized for enacting discriminatory laws aimed at the Chinese and acknowledged their contributions to the state (SJR recognizes, 2010).

The Chinese Exclusion Act devastated the Chinese-American community and reinforced negative stereotypes. Senator Feinstein (2010) noted in a press release, “Despite these hardships, Chinese immigrants persevered, and they continued to make invaluable contributions to the development and success of our country” (p.1). Congress issuing an apology on behalf of the American people for the Chinese Exclusion Act is appropriate. Representative Chu concurred, “The Senate did its part to right history” (Basu, 2012, p. 1). This apology informs Americans about a dreadful and unfortunate chapter in our national history. As a people, we need to take responsibility, admit our
faults, and express heartfelt repentance for the wrongs done to Chinese-Americans who helped build this nation. In that is strength and unity.

**Conclusion**

All five apologies analyzed in this paper helped correct violations of human rights. All had one thing in common – racism. There is no one basic definition of this ugly construct, but it flourishes when pseudo-scientific theories of racial superiority, prevail. These pernicious concepts erode people’s belief in the equality of humans and their fundamental rights to liberty and justice. They open the door to cruelty and avarice. The apology and reparations, granted Japanese-Americans by Congress, established a model for subsequent apologies, an example never again fully realized. The President and/or Congress apologized, but not in consort. Congressional apologists adamantly stated that their expressions of sorrow did not constitute a legal claim for reparations. These apologies were necessary and beneficial, even in their flawed states. They initiated discussions of past injustices and encouraged remedial public policy. They allowed some a chance to voice their grievances and others the opportunity to examine their consciences. The United States will “get over it” when it looks at the past honestly, and recommits itself to the fundamental principle that all people are created equal.

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Hate Speech in America

Dr. Kathleen Kreamelmeyer
Ball State University
Since we were children we have been taught to ignore insults thrown our way. “Sticks and stones...” Words cannot hurt, right? But of course they can and do hurt. Teasing, taunting, and name-calling are powerful and do impact those on the receiving end and those conveying the words. It is power for those who deliver the words and the loss of power for those to whom they are targeted.

To further examine the impact of words often referred to as hate speech, the following activity was used in the college classroom. After the first week of a new semester in the multicultural course I teach for Early Childhood and Elementary Education majors, the following activity is conducted. This is completed during the beginning of the semester so the students are not influenced by what will be discussed throughout the duration of the course, making the activity contributions more authentic.

One of the most essential components of this activity is establishing an environment of trust. This must first be fostered by the professor and ultimately supported and reciprocated with the college students. Even though this level of trust may be more challenging to establish during the first few sessions of the course, the hint of its foundation will hopefully be perceived by the students, even at such an early date in the semester.

Before the event begins, the students are informed that they must trust the professor, even though they don’t know that person well at that point in time. Even expressing those few words to the students, puts some at ill ease because they do not know what will follow those formidable words. In some instances, eye contact is even made between each student and the professor, with the professor asking each one if they will indeed participate. In essence, the activity will not work without their input.

To begin, a grid is drawn on the board with 4 quadrants, each labeled with the name of a perceived minority group. The upper left quadrant is marked “poor rural whites” because the dominant group in socioeconomic status in the United States is middle class. The lower left quadrant is identified as “gays and lesbians” because the dominant gender preference is heterosexual. Continuing counter clockwise, “women” is labeled in the third quadrant. When it comes to gender, men are the perceived dominant group, when in reality women are the non-dominant majority. The final section is “African Americans” or people of color because in the United States, the dominance is held by Caucasians.

As the participation component of this activity begins, students comment on the upper left quadrant, “poor rural whites.” The students are encouraged to state “other terms for this category.” They gradually start calling out words for “poor rural whites” and the professor writes them in the appropriate section on the board. Initially the contributions are given in a hesitant and reserved fashion. This trepidation is likely due to the concern/confusion toward participant expectations. Students wonder if the professor really wants them to say the words they are thinking and say them in front of the entire class. If the words are suggested in front of their classmates, in return will those same classmates assume the person saying the word actually believes it is appropriate to use or even uses it in their personal life. They flounder, wondering if they have misinterpreted the directions of the endeavor. Eventually, student offerings typically include terms such as: white trash, trailer trash, red neck, hick, and cracker.

After the initial offerings in each category, there is more hesitancy on the part of the students to continue suggestions. An extended amount of time is given for students to continue calling out terms. If the available time is too limited, students will be less likely to call out uncomfortable terms because they know they only have to wait a bit longer and the instructor will move on to the next quadrant. In this instance, extended wait time is a must. This allows students opportunity to mull over terms they are contemplating adding to
the board. This activity is intended to push their comfort zone, so discomfort is desired and needed to attain maximum impact and growth. As the words are written under the category, the professor may have her back to the students and this is intentional. It allows for the students to be more comfortable with participation. It is often times easier for students to say the words when the professor is not looking at the person contributing. Otherwise it is too intimidating.

The three remaining quadrants are filled in counter clockwise order, beginning with “gays and lesbians,” “women” and ending with “African Americans.” In the “gays and lesbians” section possible terms include: fag, dyke, butch, mo, queer, sissy, and fairy. In the “women” portion, terms are likely to include: whore, butcher, babe, slut, and broad. The final section to be addressed is “African Americans” and the words in this area may include: spook, porch monkey, coon, darky, nigga, and big lips. It is to be noted that if there is a change in sequence of how the quadrants are filled, the section “African Americans” should not be the first addressed. This category tends to be the silent one and if it is the initial quadrant tackled, there will likely be greater reserve by the students to participate. It is most likely the category in which students feel the need to be politically correct and more careful with any contributions that are made. In these courses, dominated by Caucasian students, the ice should be broken with “poor rural whites.” In many ways it is the perceived safest category and least likely to make the participating students uncomfortable. If done in this order, the students tend to loosen up with their contributions in the three earlier categories and ultimately become less reserved with the final category of “African Americans.”

It is of extreme urgency that the words not be censored by the instructor or any other participant. Censoring in anyway sets a limit on the students and then the focus shifts over to the concern with which words are acceptable to the professor and which are not. It becomes a guessing game and loses its original intent.

Upon the conclusion of this initial stage, there will commonly be twenty-five to fifty words in each of the four quadrants.

Unfortunately the resulting four quadrants will likely reveal an overwhelming monopoly of negative terms in each category. At some point during this activity students will notice that the grid is monopolized, often times exclusively, by negative words. One pupil will ask if all the suggested words need to be negative. If the students don’t make this connection and inquire about it, the instructor will lead them to this discovery. In response students are reminded that when given guidelines for this activity, it was never stated that the terms should be negative.

This startling awareness results in a big “a-ha” moment for the group. Deflated, students suddenly realize what has just transpired. Most likely every term suggested and listed on the grid is negative. This humbling insight shatters some students, terrifies others, but for a few students, it is no surprise at all.

After providing time for students to absorb the underlying tone of their contributions, the analysis of this revelation begins. Students are encouraged to reflect on, “Why are all/most of the listed words derogatory?” Responses commonly include hearing these terms from their peers, seeing these terms in the media and following what society has modeled for them. Ultimately the discussion flows to, “What does this tell us about society?”

If this uncovering of negativity is grasped and identified before completing the entire four sections of the grid, the remaining sections should still be completed after the “a-ha” discussion. However, once this negative theme is noted and discussed, the contributions to the remaining categories tend to be more positive. In a way it is a forced positive because students are specifically seeking affirmative words. It skews the responses and
the contributions tend to become less authentic. At this point there is an undertone of disapproval if or when a student suggests an additional negative term. Because of this, the genuineness of the contributions has been tainted. The impact of the activity comes from the honest offerings before the negative/positive revelation is made.

Once all four categories have been explored, students are directed to look for themes in the listed words. Again, derogatory will likely be noted as a theme and the students are encouraged to investigate what someone looks for in these four groups if a derogatory term is the intention. Frequently physical characteristics are part of the determining factors such as red neck or fat lips. Sexuality is often a factor in the terms with examples such as whore, slut or dyke, carpet muncher in the “women” and “gays and lesbians” categories. This stuns the females in this class as there is often a new-found enlightenment of the degree with which women are identified through their sexuality. Sexual terms are seldom if ever used as identifiers in the “poor rural whites” or “African Americans” sections. Fictional character is regularly a theme as well and can be found in all four quadrants. Porch monkey (African Americans), bubba (poor rural whites), fairy (gays and lesbians) and Barbie (women) are examples of this theme.

Through this process, students begin to gather that people are put down when their sexuality, economic level, religion, language, etc. is not within the perceived standards or norm. If someone is labeled as a fictional character or non-human like a monkey, fairy or spook, then that legitimizes the hatred. “Because you are not even human, you are a monkey, why should I like you?” “I do not have to even acknowledge you and because of that, I have power over you.” The words collected in the four quadrants are a demonstration of power from the dominant group over the non-dominant group. What this activity comes down to is power and the power of words. Again, the term “hate speech” seems particularly appropriate since it does indeed appear to be the intention.

There is rawness to this endeavor, especially when students hear their peers and professor say these terms. It provides an opportunity to discuss racism, sexism, homophobia, and elitism. The intent of this lesson is to inform, not to hurt. Providing an opportunity for students to further reflect on the activity or react to it is essential and this frequently results in the students responding to prompts such as: What insights have you gained into the use these words? Have the words ever been used against you? What happened? Have you ever said these words? Does the context in which these terms are stated make a difference?
Compulsive Buying Tendencies

David Lester
Stockton University

Bijou Yang
Drexel University
Abstract

In Study 1, scores on the Compulsive Buying Scale were associated with scores on the subscales of the Executive Personal Finance Scale (impulse control, organization and planning) and the Money Attitudes Scale (positively with using money for impressing others, a desire to find better prices and anxiety about money, and negatively with saving). In Study 2, scores on the Compulsive Buying Scale were associated positively with measures of having material values and compulsive gambling and negatively with measures of wisdom and personal finance. These results suggest that tendencies toward compulsive buying may not be pathological, but merely associated with attitudes toward money in general, financial management habits and values.

Compulsive buying has been defined as a preoccupation with buying, impulses to buy that are irresistible, and purchasing more than can be afforded or of things that are not needed (Williams & Grisham, 2012). Most research has focused on the psychopathology involved. For example, Williams and Grisham (2012) found that compulsive buyers were characterized by impulsivity, supporting the hypothesis that compulsive buying is an impulse disorder, while others have proposed a role for ADHD (Black, et al., 2012) and alcohol and drug abuse (Sansone, et al., 2012).

Reeves, Baker and Truluck (2012) found that compulsive buying in a sample of college students was associated with having lower self-concept clarity and a lower level of well-being. Reeves, et al. argued that their results supported an empty-self theory (McCutcheon, Lange & Houran, 2002) for compulsive buying in which people with a poorly defined sense of identity attempt to gain fulfillment by purchasing goods. Reeves, et al. also saw their results as supporting an absorption-addiction theory (Maltby, Houran & McCutcheon, 2003) in which people attempt to remedy isolation, low self-esteem and poor relationships with others by the ceaseless acquisition and consumption of nonessential goods.

Such research endeavors to cast compulsive buying as a pathological disorder, and the research does this by selecting individuals who have extreme compulsive buying tendencies. It is possible however, that there is a continuum of attitudes and behaviors associated with compulsive buying on which pathological compulsive buyers are at one extreme. Others may have some of the traits but not to a pathological degree. In line with this hypothesis, Mueller, Claes, Mitchell, Faber, Fischer and de Zwaan (2011) found that scores on the compulsive buying scale in university undergraduates were associated with having materialistic values.

The present studies hypothesized that compulsive buying tendencies would be related to general attitudes toward financial matters and money, including attitudes toward money (such as less concern with finding the best price for a product and less concern with saving) and behaviors concerned with managing personal finances (such as being less organized in one’s financial records), and to the values held by people.

Study 1

Participants

The participants were 225 adults (82 men and 142 women and one unspecified; mean age 26.2 yrs. (SD = 10.3, range 18-64); mean years of education 14.7 (SD = 1.6,
range 9-21). Participants were recruited by research assistants from the college campus and the local community, and so were not solely college students. To maintain anonymity and encourage more honest responding, participants sealed their completed questionnaires in an envelope before returning them to the research assistant. No financial compensation was given for participation. The study was approved by the institutional review board.

**Measures**

**Personal Finances.** Aspects of personal finances were obtained using a questionnaire. Participants reported personal gross annual earnings between $0 and $200,000 per year ($M = $19,909, $SD = $26,450). Current total credit card debt ranged from $0 to $27,000 ($M = $1,534, $SD = $3,415), lifetime maximum credit card debt ranged from $0 to $40,000 ($M = $2,588, $SD = $5,180). A current debt-to-income ratio was calculated for each person using current credit card debt and personal gross annual income, which ranged from 0.0 to 0.9 ($M = 0.1, $SD = 0.2; with zero being no debt and .9 being credit card debt almost equal to one’s income). Participants were also inquired about their financial investment methods: 188 (84%) had a savings account, 62 (28%) certificates of deposit, 47 (21%) mutual funds, 58 (26%) stocks, 47 (21%) a retirement account, and 29 (13%) real estate.

**Executive Personal Finance Scale.**

The Executive Personal Finance Scale (EPFS) is a scale that measures executive functions as they pertain to finances (Spinella, Yang & Lester, 2007), answered from 1 (never) to 5 (always). There are four subscales: impulse control (6 items, e.g., I tend to spend money as soon as I get it), organization (5 items, e.g., I keep my bills organized), planning (5 items, e.g., I make investments for the long term) and motivational drive (4 items, e.g., I work hard at making money). The subscales had good internal consistency (Cronbach alpha reliabilities 0.76 to 0.86) and convergent validity with measures such as investing in stocks and real estate (Spinella, et al., 2007). Means scores and standard deviations for the present sample are shown in Table 1. Cronbach alpha reliabilities were 0.83 for impulse control, 0.80 for organization, 0.76 for planning and 0.86 for motivation drive.

**Money Attitudes Scale (MAS).**

The MAS is a 29-item scale that was developed as a self-rating measure to assess attitudes toward money along four scales: Power-Prestige, Retention-Time, Distrust, and Anxiety (Yamauchi & Templer, 1982), answered from 1 (never) to 7 (always). The Power-Prestige scale has 9 items related to the tendency to use money as a means to impress others and measure success (e.g., In all honesty, I own nice things in order to impress others). The Retention-Time scale has 7 items related to the tendency to save money and plan financially (e.g., I keep track of my money). The Distrust scale has 7 items related to a hesitant attitude toward spending and suspicion that better prices for purchases could have been found elsewhere (e.g., When I buy something, I complain about the price I paid). The Anxiety subscale has 6 items related to various aspects of worry and concern over one’s spending and financial security (e.g., I am bothered when I have to pass up a sale). The MAS had good reliability (Cronbach alphas ranging from 0.69 to 0.80) and was associated with credit card use among college students (Roberts & Jones, 2001). Mean scores and standard deviations for the present sample are
shown in Table 1. Cronbach alpha reliabilities were 0.89 for power, 0.82 for retention, 0.67 for distrust, and 0.70 for anxiety.

Compulsive Buying Scale (CBS).

The CBS is a 7-item scale that was developed to identify compulsive buyers (Faber & O'Guinn, 1992), answered from 1 (never) to 5 (very often). The items address behaviors specific to compulsive buying rather than normal consumer behavior (e.g., “Others would be horrified if they knew my spending habits” and “I bought things even though I couldn’t afford them”). The scale had good validity and reliability and correctly classified 80% of the general population (sensitivity) and 85% of compulsive buyers (specificity). The CBS is scored using a regression equation which weights the individual items differently. Higher scores reflect a stronger tendency toward compulsive buying. The mean score and standard deviation for the present sample were 0.80 and 1.68, respectively, with scores ranging from -4.62 to 2.61. The Cronbach reliability was 0.76.

Results

Compulsive buying scores were significantly associated with credit card debt (Pearson $r = 0.17$, $p < .01$) and debt/income ratio ($r = 0.31$, $p < .001$) as expected. With regard to investment, compulsive buying scores were associated significantly only with the amount of savings ($r = -0.19$, $p < .01$).

Behaviors and attitudes related to personal finances were strongly associated with compulsive buying scores. Compulsive buying scores were negatively associated with impulse control, planning and organization (see Table 1). In addition, compulsive buying scores were significantly associated with all four money attitudes – positively with power-prestige, distrust and anxiety and negatively with retention-time. In a multiple regression, compulsive buying scores were predicted by impulse control, organization, and anxiety about money (see Table 1).

Study 2

The purpose of the second study was to explore what attitudes and behaviors are associated with compulsive buying tendencies. Previous research has found that having materialistic values is associated with compulsive tendencies (Mueller, et al., 2011). We included this variable in the study, as well as a measure of how “wise” the participants were, using the Wisdom Scale developed by Ardelt (2003). In addition, we explored whether compulsive buying tendencies were associated with other behaviors such as problem gambling and workaholism.

Participants

The participants were 240 adults (95 men and 143 women; mean age 26.6 yrs. (SD = 11.0, range 18-67); mean years of education 15.0 (SD = 1.6, range 12-21). Participants were recruited by research assistants as in Study 1.

Measures

The Compulsive Buying Scale (CBS) and the Executive Personal Finance Scale (EPFS) are described above in Study 1. The mean score for the CBS was 0.73 (SD = 2.12).
**Material values (MVS):** The short form of the Material Values Scale has 9 items, three each for subscales to measure success, centrality and happiness (Richins, 2004). Typical items are: I like to own things that impress people (success); Buying things gives me a lot of pleasure (centrality); I’d be happier if I could afford to buy more things (happiness).

**Workaholism (WORK):** Workaholism was measured using the 7-item driven subscale of a workaholism scale developed by Spence and Robbins (1992). A typical item is “I feel guilty when I take time off from work.”

**Problem Gambling (CPGI):** Problem gambling was assessed using the Canadian Problem Gambling Index (Wynne, 2003). It has 9-items, and a typical item is “Have you bet more than you could really afford to lose?”

**Wisdom (WIS):** Wisdom was measured with a 39-item scale devised by Ardelt (2003). It has subscales to assess three dimensions: cognitive (14 items:” Ignorance is bliss), reflective (12 items: I always try to look at all sides of a problem), and affective (13 items: There are some people I know I would never like).

All the scales were developed with good internal reliability and construct validity. For the present study, all items were answered on a scale from 1 to 5 with anchors “not at all” and “very much.”

**Results**

Mean scores for the measures and the Pearson correlations with scores on the compulsive Buying Scale are shown in Table 2. It can be seen that 13 of the 15 correlations were statistically significant (as well as those for age and education). The regression analyses are shown in Table 3, where it can be seen that scores on the Compulsive Buying Scale were positively with total scores for material values, compulsive gambling and workaholism, and negatively with sound personal financial planning and wisdom. Table 4 shows that specific subscales of these measures were predictive of compulsive buying: success on the MVS, reflective wisdom on the WIS and impulse control and organization on the EPFS.

**Discussion**

The results of the present study confirmed the hypothesis that tendencies toward compulsive buying would be associated with behaviors relevant to personal finances (impulse control, organization and planning) and attitudes toward money (positively with using money for impressing others, a desire to find better prices and anxiety about money, and negatively with saving and planning). Compulsive buying scores were also associated with credit card debt and not having a savings account. The results of this study are in line with those of Mueller, et al. (2011) who found that compulsive buying tendencies in a non-pathological sample were related to being materialistic. However, the present study is limited by the choice of the measure of compulsive buying tendencies which has been criticized (Manolis, et al., 2008), by the predominance of women in the sample, and by the sample not being a random sample.
What would be of interest is the direction of cause-and-effect in these associations. Does having these attitudes, behaviors and values predispose individuals into compulsive buying patterns of behavior or does engaging in compulsive buying patterns of behavior have an impact on the individual’s attitudes and values. Indeed, it might be expected that both possibilities have some merit. To explore these possibilities, studies of adolescents prior to their development of compulsive buying tendencies would be of interest in order to explore whether their money attitudes at a young age predict buying patterns later in life.

References


**Table 1:**
*Study 1: Correlates of compulsive buying and results of the multiple regression to predict compulsive buy scale scores*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compulsive buying and</th>
<th>Mean (SD)</th>
<th>Pearson r</th>
<th>Regression β</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.110*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPFS:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impulse control</td>
<td>19.85 (4.53)</td>
<td>-0.70**</td>
<td>-0.511***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivational drive</td>
<td>14.79 (3.30)</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>-0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>16.98 (4.31)</td>
<td>-0.41**</td>
<td>-0.134*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>14.29 (4.30)</td>
<td>-0.35**</td>
<td>-0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money attitudes:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power-prestige</td>
<td>17.20 (6.57)</td>
<td>0.27**</td>
<td>0.069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retention-time</td>
<td>20.05 (5.41)</td>
<td>-0.36***</td>
<td>-0.088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distrust</td>
<td>17.95 (3.88)</td>
<td>0.22**</td>
<td>0.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>16.36 (4.12)</td>
<td>0.53***</td>
<td>0.193**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R²                         | 0.575      |

* two-tailed p < .05
** two-tailed p < .01
*** two-tailed p < .001
## Table 2:

Study 2: Descriptive statistics for the measures and Pearson correlations with compulsive buying scores.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Pearson r with CBS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>-0.16*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>-0.19**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MVSsuc</td>
<td>7.37</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>0.53***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MVScen</td>
<td>8.34</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>0.55***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MVShap</td>
<td>8.28</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>0.51***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MVStot</td>
<td>23.99</td>
<td>7.35</td>
<td>0.62***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPGI</td>
<td>12.12</td>
<td>6.77</td>
<td>0.41***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td>22.01</td>
<td>6.01</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPFSic</td>
<td>23.15</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>-0.76***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPFSmd</td>
<td>13.98</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPFSorg</td>
<td>17.90</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>-0.43***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPFSpl</td>
<td>13.44</td>
<td>5.60</td>
<td>-0.35***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPFStot</td>
<td>68.47</td>
<td>14.40</td>
<td>-0.59***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WIScog</td>
<td>50.70</td>
<td>8.63</td>
<td>-0.39***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WISref</td>
<td>42.50</td>
<td>7.32</td>
<td>-0.52***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WISaff</td>
<td>44.47</td>
<td>7.59</td>
<td>-0.40***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WIStot</td>
<td>137.68</td>
<td>19.06</td>
<td>-0.53***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* two-tailed p < .05
** two-tailed p < .01
*** two-tailed p < .001
Table 3: Study 2: Regressions to predict compulsive buying scores (betas shown)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Beta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>-0.127***#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>-0.078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MVS</td>
<td>0.301****#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPGI</td>
<td>0.180****#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WORK</td>
<td>0.125**#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPFS</td>
<td>-0.377****#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WIS</td>
<td>-0.180****#</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R² 0.594

* two-tailed p < .05
** two-tailed p < .01
*** two-tailed p < .001
# significant in a backward multiple regression

Table 4: Study 2: Regressions to predict compulsive buying scores (betas shown)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Beta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>-0.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>-0.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MVS: Success</td>
<td>0.097#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centrality</td>
<td>0.094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Happiness</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPGI</td>
<td>0.069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WORK</td>
<td>0.056#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPFS: Impulse control</td>
<td>-0.526****#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivational drive</td>
<td>0.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>-0.107*#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>-0.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WIS: Cognitive</td>
<td>-0.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflective</td>
<td>-0.115*#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective</td>
<td>-0.067</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R² 0.682

* two-tailed p < .05
** two-tailed p < .01
*** two-tailed p < .001
# significant in a backward multiple regression
Content Analysis of NSSA National Technology and Social Science Conference Presentations from 2012-2014

Robin Lindbeck
Robert W. Lion
Natalie Wells
Idaho State University
Introduction

The process of reviewing the content that journals and conferences are comprised of (content & thematic analysis), as well as the contributors cited to support the development of research (citation analysis) is not a new practice. While it may often be overlooked, this process is part of a multiple path perspective of building, or, contributing to the knowledge base. In fact, the diversity of practice of researching phenomenon may lead to new and different points of view (Liu & Rousseau, 2014), as well as an understanding of the research landscape (Ghosh, Kim, Kim, & Callahan, 2014).

This presentation sets out to share findings from a tertiary-level content analysis of the National Social Science Association’s (NSSA) National Technology and Social Science Conference’s program agendas and descriptions for the Las Vegas, Nevada conferences from 2012-2014. According to Vaismoradi, Turunen, and Bondas (2013), content analysis and thematic analysis are robust research practices for initial investigation surrounding a practice or phenomenon, despite others’ questioning of the strength of such a practice. As scholar-practitioners keen on building programs and practices based on current and trending information, we felt that a conference program review may provide some initial information concerning the content that the members, as well as NSSA leadership, could find insightful.

The conference program review set out to organize information around several categorical variables or items that we were able to identify based on the conference program abstracts, session titles, and presenter affiliation. Among other things, we attempted to determine the extent that the sessions were consistent with the conference “technology” theme, and discriminate the extent to which the presentations appeared to be based on empirical studies versus practice. Given that the nature of the abstracts, limited to approximately 25 words, we acknowledge that there are several limiting factors to the extent to which information can be generalized.

Overview of Literature

Scholars have presented multiple studies throughout the years in which trends in their respective fields of study have been identified and analyzed (Avent, Wahesh, Purgason, Borders, & Mobley, 2015; Azevedo & Mehdiaba, 2013; Wells, Kolek, Williams & Saunders, 2015). Such trends are discovered through an examination of research findings which “serve an important function within most disciplines; they offer a mechanism by which professionals communicate ideas, stimulate discussion, and share information” (Hutchinson & Lovell, 2004, p. 1). The aim of such investigation is to monitor the evolution of the trends and issues in a particular field in order to identify the trajectory the discipline is taking and how new developments balance with the core tenants of the discipline (Ghosh et al., 2014).

The study of the social sciences, especially as relating to technology, finds roots in several different disciplines including: Education (Efe, 2015), Communication (Chang & Chang, 2011), and Sociology (Carrel, Sledge, Ventura, Eickhoff, & Allen, 2014). The importance of such scholarly review has been specifically noted by Bates and Chen (2004) as the manner in which competing definitions may be aligned and the base from which these competing definitions may be revealed and addressed in order to form
more comprehensive boundaries of the involved disciplines. This information is collected largely in two specific ways: citation analysis and content analysis.

**Citation Analysis**

Citation analysis is the collection and study of resources an author uses to produce an article. This type of analysis generally lends itself to the distinction between internal and external citations. Internal citations use materials from the same discipline as the research, whereas external citations use materials from several different fields to emphasize a mutual relationship in the research. According to Sleezer and Sleezer (1998), a citation analysis provides information about the most cited scholars and academic works in a field based on the number of citations. Therefore, it is a systematic way to examine a specific subject area.

**Content Analysis**

Content analysis, in turn, is the categorization of research materials based on the discipline with which the topic of the paper or presentation most closely aligns. While citation analysis focuses on the references cited in an article, content analysis is most likely to employed as a tool for analyzing which disciplines and topics are represented in a specific type of journal or at a conference. In fact, citation analysis only focuses on the topics that are widely cited and hence are popular in a particular field or outside a field, [content analysis] takes note that the boundaries of a field are identified...and comprehensively explores themes that may be less cited but consistently published. (Ghosh et al., 2014, pp. 306-307).

Based on the literature presented, we set out to conduct a content analysis of the NSSA’s National Technology and Social Science Conference by asking three questions:

1. What is the nature and scope of the presentations based on specific categorical items (i.e. technology, institution type, empirical, etc.)?
2. What is the frequency of empirical research?
3. What is the nature and scope of the technology specific presentations?

**Method**

This study focused on a review of the conference schedule’s presentation abstracts to attempt to identify trends and characteristics. We began with the conference programs from 2011 through 2014. However, in the 2011 program we found some of the information that we sought to identify missing, so we elected to exclude the 2011 data from the final data review.

The final data review and presentations of our findings are based on the 2012, 2013, and 2014 conference programs (a total of 685 presentations). We manually reviewed all of the presentation abstracts. Each presentation was reviewed for specific categorical information we identified based off of the literature review, our particular interests, and what the program schedule lent it to review. All of the information was manually reviewed and coded (as necessary), and managed in MS Excel. The categorical items of interest to us ranged from institutions type (4 year, 2 year, or other) to whether or not the presentation aligned with the conference theme of being “technology” oriented. Other items of interest to us were whether the sessions included students as presenters as well as whether the presentation’s abstract reflected the session’s content being empirical in nature. As we mentioned in the introduction, it is important to recognize the limitations of this study.
**Limitations**

The primary limitation of this study is the limited detail and scope of the presentation abstracts. Unlike some other conferences where papers accompany the presentation, which lends itself to providing more information concerning the scope and the nature of the research to be presented, we relied solely on the 25 word-or-less abstract.

Another limitation we experienced was in the area of coding/interpretation of the abstracts. This was of greatest concern when we examined the abstracts to identify empirical versus non-empirical based presentations as well as the type or nature of the technology-specific presentations. Empirical versus non-empirical and tech versus non-tech were two primary areas of interest to us and we had hoped to have been able to dig deeper into each area; however, the word limit on the abstracts made that quite difficult.

**Findings**

Descriptive statistics and qualitative analysis were used to analyze the data. This study set out to examine the variety of presentations that made up the program at the annual NSSA National Technology and Social Science Conference in Las Vegas, Nevada over a three year time period. The study also examined the nature of the “tech” presentations at the conference. The findings are organized below according to their respective research questions.

**RQ1 - What is the nature and scope of the presentations based on categorical items?**

The categorical items identified in this study were selected based off of literature reviewed as well as items of particular interest to the researchers. Given the breadth of the presentations, the following categorical items were selected.

- Institutions with the highest frequency of student presenters
- State representation based off of primary author’s location
- Empirical versus non-empirical research presentations
- Institution type (i.e. 4 year, 2 year, other) and funding structure (i.e. state, private, other)
- Technology-specific topics versus non-technology topics
- Number of authors
- Conference year
- Out-of-country participation

Other items were identified during the planning stage of the study, such as whether certain institutions tended to present certain types of content (i.e. technology or empirical), but due to the limited number of examples that would consistently fit under those categories, we were not able to analyzing for trends on that particular level. Instead, the content analysis items we specifically choose to examine further was the nature of the technology-specific presentations, which is featured below under Research Question #3.

In reviewing the 685 sessions between 2012 and 2014, there were over 250 institutions represented (47 states), and of the 250 institutions, 14 were located outside the continental US. We also observed a number of independent scholars and consulting/educational firm collaborations.

The first analysis we completed focused on examining the categorical variables according to year as well as in aggregate totals over the 3 year period. Table 1
examines the yearly breakdown of percent of empirical presentations (based off of the interpretation of the presentation abstracts), student presentations, technology-specific presentations, institutional funding model, and institutional type. The analysis reflects strong representation from public and four-year universities. Over the three year period, 71% ($n=489$) of the lead presenters were from four year public institutions and 18% participation from private institutions (including both 2 year and 4 year programs).

Table 2 looks at the data through two different groups, institution funding model and institution type. In Table 1 we observed, overall, low frequencies of empirical research and tech-specific topics. We entered the data analysis phase curious to see if there would be more significant differences between the institutional profiles. With the exception of the student presentations, the other groups were comparable.

Table 3 focuses on the student presentations that we observed in Table 2. The student presentation percentages of empirical and tech-specific were rather consistent with the overall 2012-2014 presentation composition. We did, however, observe a slightly higher percentage of private institution presentation (20%) being empirically based than the public institutions (15%). As far as student presentations focusing on technology, 20% of public institution presentations were technology-specific, and 16% of private institutions.

With the conference being consistently located in Las Vegas, Nevada, we were curious to see the locations from which presenters travels to the conference. Table 4 contains the top 10 states of lead presenters. Of these states, both Tennessee and Florida had the highest percentage of their presentations being tech-specific (45%). Of the 128 student presentations, Washington followed by Ohio had the greatest numbers of student presentations with 15 and 12 respectively. The institution that had the most student presentations was Central Washington University with 14 presentations and 12 of those presentations were student-only presentations (no faculty listed as co-presenters).

RQ2 - What is the frequency of empirical research?

Entering this study we were curious to know what the breakdown would be for empirical research presented at the conference. Table 1 demonstrated that 25% of the presentations during 2012-14 were empirically based. Table 5 looks, specifically, at those empirical presentations and examines them according to the various categorical items.

RQ3 – What is the nature and scope of the tech specific presentations?

From 2012 to 2014, 174 (18.9%) of the total conference presentations had a technology focus. Of those presentations, a total of 45 (25.8%) were presentations reporting on empirical data, and 129 (74.1%) were non-empirical presentations. The empirical and non-empirical technology presentations are represented by year in Figure 1.

Ten of the technology-related presentations were presented by students and five of the technology-related presentations were presented by students and faculty. The vast majority of these technology presentations were presented by 4-year colleges (86%) with the remaining sessions presented by 2-year colleges and one session by an individual scholar. There were no technology presentations by secondary schools or consulting groups.
While these descriptive statistics provide an overview of the subset of technology related presentations, to further understand the nature and scope of these presentations a qualitative analysis was completed on the session. Data was analyzed using Merriam’s clustering method to identify themes and categorize the results (Merriam, 1988). This included the settings targeted by the empirical and non-empirical technology related presentations as well as the content of the presentations.

**Empirical technology presentations**

The empirical technology presentation descriptions covered a variety of topics and were predominantly targeted for specific settings: higher education, K-12, workplace and daily life, and pre-service teachers and teacher education (Table 7). The topics of these empirical technology presentations fell into five broad categories: the in-service k-12 teacher or college faculty member, pre-service teachers, college students, the impact of social media and other technology-related topics.

**In-service teacher and faculty.**

Presentations focusing on technology for the practicing teacher or faculty member represented the largest number of empirical technology presentations (18) at just fewer than half of the 45 empirical presentations. These presentations further divided into two subcategories. The first of these subcategories was technology tools and the use of technology in the classroom. These presentations included specific tools such as streaming videos, clickers, skype, podcasts, iPads, and eBooks. They also looked at the effectiveness of educational technology tools and exemplary online courses. The second subcategory was professional development and in-service. The professional development and in-service focused presentations covered a range of topics from examining the benefit of particular school technology programs and the future of technology in the schools, to technology focused and technology supported development including learning to teach online.

**Pre-service teachers and teacher education.**

Presentations focusing on pre-service teachers included preparation to use technology in the classroom, the use of video to assess student teachers, and an examination of digital natives as pre-service teachers.

**College student.**

Presentations focused on technology and college students included research related to the attitudes and perceptions of college students on the technology supported instruction, as well as an examination of why students took college classes online and the impact of an online master’s program.

**Social media.**

Although presentations on social media could have fit into other categories, with four presentations social media was the most commonly mentioned technology tool in empirical technology-related presentations (8%). These four sessions represented a range of research including best practices in social media and helping others use social media, and the impact of social media on students including issues of identity.

**Other technology-related topics.**

Finally, there were eight technology presentations not directly related to the previous categories and representing a wide range of topics. These topics included presentations primarily related to the person, such as digital media self-efficacy in adolescent girls of
color, cyber-bullying among females, a possible link between teenage pregnancy and technology, and anxiety related to an absence of mobile devices. Two additional sessions included research on technology supported disaster communication systems and consumer e-commerce in China and the U.S.

**Non-Empirical Technology Presentations**

The non-empirical technology presentations can be captured in two broad categories: teaching related, which accounted for approximately 84% of the presentations and everything else (16%). These two categories were further classified into subcategories (Table 8). Table 9 lists the content areas (disciplines) mentioned in the technology presentations, and Table 10 is an overall list of the specific type of content technology identified.

**Discussion**

When we set out to review the presentations, originally we included presentations from the 2011 conference; however, due to some incomplete information fields in the proceedings, we removed these data. Something noteworthy from the 2011 program was that it was a rather good year for student presentations. There were 13 student presentations that were empirical, and a total of 47 student and faculty presentations, comparing to a total of 128 presentations between 2012 and 2014.

While the limitations of this study might be numerous, we found this research to be quite informative as to the general makeup of the conferences. The annual conference has a large national draw (47 states) with equally high representation from geographically proximal institutions (to Las Vegas) as well as those institutions throughout the Midwest, East, and South. These numbers speak to the popularity of this conference. What we were not able to determine from our research is how the participants view the conference in terms of how it specifically fulfills their personal and/or professional development agenda.

Two findings that were of particular interest to us were the relatively small number of empirical presentations and relatively small/few number of technology-specific presentations. We entered this project believing that we would observe much more parity between the number of technology versus non-technology sessions, given our understanding of this being a technology focused conference. Having said that, our findings have forced us to reconsider that perhaps what we expected from this conference was not in line with what NSSA intends. Perhaps the conference is not so much a technology focused conference, despite “technology” being in the title. Regardless of how we consider the conference, the evidence is in the analysis that technology only makes up a small percentage of the overall content.

The other area that tested our assumptions was the fact that empirically based research was presented, only in a small amount (25% 2012-14). However, it is important to note that this is one of the areas we could be off considerably with our coding analysis. It is possible that more presentations could have been empirically based and that the 25 word abstract just did not capture that to the extent that we could reflect that in our coding. Having said that, it still challenged our notion of this being an academic conference directed to faculty. Once again, this could be a reflection of our misreading of the intention or purpose behind this conference and perhaps we are at fault of assuming this to being an academic conference. Perhaps, more accurately, it is...
best considered a social science conference supporting a broad range of studies (more of a professional development/academic hybrid conference).

**Future Research**

When we initially began this project, we had hoped to be able to glean greater information from the conference materials and provide greater insight as to the composition of the sessions but as shared in our Limitations, the ability to conduct analysis was limited to the session title, 25 words-or-less abstract, and the presenter(s)’ affiliations. Based on our research and being mindful of the limitations, we suggest two specific future paths of research to have a better understanding of the conference and its audience.

First, we recommend a more complete content and thematic analysis of the actual conference proceedings. This would significantly improve upon the challenges we experienced with reviewing only the conference presentation descriptions.

Second, we propose a survey or some other mechanism to collect data from conference participants examining such things as why they choose this conference, how it professionally impacts them, as well as explore how the conference might make changes to further meet the needs of its participants.

**Conclusion**

This study attempted to glean information about the nature and scope of the content presented at the NSSA National Technology and Social Science Conference in Las Vegas, Nevada between 2012 and 2014. We found this content analysis approach to be quite informative as we consider how the conference supports its attendees’ and presenters’ interests. It is clear that this conference provides an environment for people with a broad range of social science interests to come together and share their learning and experiences, both empirical and applied. It is also clear that this is a forum that helps professionals advance their own personal and/or professional interests, whether that being learning about how an institution has found success implementing a particular technology solution, or building their vita as they prepare for a promotion and tenure process by presenting empirical research.

**References**


### Table 1

**Various categories according to conference year**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Empirical</th>
<th>Student Presentations</th>
<th>Tech Specific</th>
<th>Institutional Funding</th>
<th>Institutional Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012 (n=222)</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>12%*, 17%**</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>177/38/7</td>
<td>202/11/9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013 (n=225)</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>18%*, 21%**</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>177/41/7</td>
<td>206/12/7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014 (n=238)</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>16%*, 21%**</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>175/47/16</td>
<td>206/16/16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Students only listed as presenters
**Students + student and faculty listed as presenters

### Table 2

**Institutional funding and institutional type**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutional Funding</th>
<th>Empirical</th>
<th>Student Presentations</th>
<th>Tech Specific</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public (n=529)</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>20%**</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private (n=126)</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>12%**</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institution type</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 year (n=614)</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>19%**</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 year (n=39)</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>2%**</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**including faculty member(s) as co-author**
Table 3
2012-2014 student & student w/ faculty presentations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Empirical</th>
<th>Tech Specific</th>
<th>Public Institution</th>
<th>4 Year Institution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student presentations</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=104)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student presentations +</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>93%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>student &amp; faculty (n=128)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4
Top 10 states according to frequency of presentations by lead author

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Number of Presentations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washington</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Californian</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ohio &amp; Pennsylvania</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utah</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nebraska</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5
Categories specifically for the empirical studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Public Private 4 year 2 year</th>
<th>Student Presentation</th>
<th>Tech Specific</th>
<th># of Authors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 2 3 4+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012 (n=30)</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>64% 29% 0% 7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013 (n=58)</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>22%*, 24%**</td>
<td>76% 20% 4% 0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014 (n=83)</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>18%*, 24%**</td>
<td>68% 22% 6% 4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012-14 (n=171)</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>13%*, 15%**</td>
<td>23% 26% 26% 3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Students only listed as presenters
**Students + student and faculty listed as presenters

Table 6
Top 5 States with Total, Empirical, and Non-Empirical Technology Presentations, n=43

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States/Countries</th>
<th>Total Tech Presentations</th>
<th>Total Empirical Tech Presentations</th>
<th>Total Non-Empirical Tech Presentations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TX</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TN</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FL</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OH</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ND</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UT</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 7
*Setting Targeted in Empirical Technology Presentations*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Number of Presentations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Higher education</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-12</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workplace and daily life</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-service teachers</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unclear if k-12 or higher education</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*NOTE: Some presentations targeted more than one setting.*

### Table 8
*Categories of Non-Empirical Technology Presentation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number of Presentations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching-Related</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogy</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching process</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology and teacher preparation</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology used for teaching specific content</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology used for teaching-General</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online courses</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Sessions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of technology in higher education (non-teaching)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology and education related</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology and workplace/citizen education</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology and general topics</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 9

**Content Areas Mentioned in Presentations on Technology Used for Teaching Content**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content Areas</th>
<th>Number of Presentations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social studies</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social science</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research skills</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language learning</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual assault prevention</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multicultural</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health education</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical thinking</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computational thinking</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citizenship</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 10

Specific Technology Mentioned in Technology Presentations for Teaching General or Specific Content

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technology mentioned for teaching content or teaching in general</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General educational technology tools</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile learning devices &amp; iPad</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content-specific website</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social media</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ePortfolios</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smart boards</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voicethread</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video-creator</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video/film - consumer</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simulation &amp; Virtual world</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Powerpoint</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infographics</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Digital journaling</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content management</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blogs</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wiki</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Web quests</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translation tools</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timelines</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech to text software</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHStat</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Google earth</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eReader</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clicker</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Captioning</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1. NSSA conference technology-focused presentations by type and year.
House Call Counselors:
An Educator’s Guide to Making House Calls

James Todd McGahey
Jacksonville State University
Counseling in an educational setting such as a high and middle school or elementary and alternative school can be challenging. There are many elements to consider. These include the privacy and quietness of the counseling space which is usually limited in an educational setting. Time is also limited by the demands of the daily academic schedule, which is duly noted by bells and tones. Students are bombarded by peer pressure, bullying and other interpersonal crisis, yet most students avoid the guidance and counseling office for these issues. This risk of being outed and ostracized by fellow peers and students as troubled outweighs the perceived benefits. Many are forced by concerned teachers, administrators or parents to visit the school counselor but enter the counseling session with the closed attitude of a mandated participant, and progress is difficult.

Visiting homes of students has primarily been the domain of the school social worker, yet school social workers are limited. Many systems that have the resources to employ a social worker have them stretched thin, with student ratios far exceeding the excessive ratios of school counselors. This prevalent scenario may demand that school counselors, teachers and administrators make home visits in order to further the positive progression of a student’s education.

Historically, in-home visits have been the exclusive domain of social workers or agency, sectarian and government caseworkers. There is an extensive history dating back to medieval times in England of interventions that contribute to the assistance of the underprivileged or impoverished. Although counselors and social workers both provide helping services to clients, there are fundamental differences in their education, philosophy, and mission. Social work emphasizes understanding systems and adjusting one’s environment, advocacy, and social justice. Counseling reaches into the human mind to interact with the thoughts, feelings, and emotions of the family or individual. These two disciplines have an abundance of overlapping theories and techniques, and complement each other enormously. Increasingly counselor education and training programs, which commonly align school and clinical mental health curriculums, in each discipline incorporate essential and useful components from the other.

**Challenges of the House Call Counselor**

Specific challenges are numerous and can be unique to each environment, although the following are some that the Educator making house calls may confront, possible solutions follow (McGahey, 2014):

**Bugs/Sanitation**

Homes vary on their consideration of pest control, and may feel it is an unnecessary expense, as well as house cleaning a low priority, be prepared to witness various insects crawling or flying in your field of vision. There may also be limited or no clean place to conduct your sessions, dress appropriately. (Conducting the sessions outside while walking or engaging in other expressive activities such as tossing a ball, dominoes, checkers, art or play therapy techniques can eliminate time in the unctuous environment.)

**Scheduling**
Another task is scheduling your appointments, this can be frustrating and time-consuming as the student’s phone number changes often due to non-payment or expiration of subsidized minutes. Resistance to services or distrust of school officials can lead to unreturned calls or missed appointments. Various strategies, such as In School Suspension (ISS) of Out of School Suspensions (OSS) can be utilized. (The HCC should attempt to work with the school social worker to arrange a visit time conducive to all involved. Late afternoon and early evening visits may be required to have maximum effect; hopefully an understanding administration will allow the educator to have a flexible work schedule. Also referring to legal authorities if necessary due to noncompliance or possible neglect may lead to successful changes in behavior).

**Smoking**

There is a high correlation between smoking and low-income and education, so many homes that may require HCC visitation may be saturated with smoke. Parents/Guardians and sometimes even students may also wish to smoke during sessions. (The HCC and other educators should initially set boundaries in a polite, non-threatening delivery. Such as requesting no smoking or eating, no cell phones, electronic devices, or televisions during sessions).

**Distractions/Disruptions**

A private, sterile, and quiet setting may be difficult to realize in the home. Expect the unexpected. Other family members, pets, and visitors may not respect or be aware of the boundary issues inherent in a counseling relationship. These issues although may present opportunities for examination, learning, and growth. (The HCC or educator should emphasize the importance of the sessions, and set boundaries for the session or sessions).

**Transportation**

Although transporting consumers is discouraged and sometimes forbidden, most consumers do not have modes or access to transportation and transporting them to related service appointments is necessary. Transporting a student from an unsanitary, unclean home environment in your vehicle can be unsettling. Also the wear and tear on a personal vehicle servicing your consumers can be costly and time-consuming depending on your service area. (Encourage use of other resources for transportation, such as school bus or carpooling.)

**Pimping**

Sometimes students or consumers may withhold information or participation because they may expect gifts, especially food, before participating in a session. These gifts may come to be expected.
Students will withhold participation unless rewarded thus creating a dilemma for the counselors. (Food or other incentives should be used sparingly, and not consistently. Avoid building a contingency between material reward and participation in sessions.)

**Safety**

Most consumers of the HCC are usually involved with other agencies (school, law enforcement, protective) and are mandated to participate. This can cause resentment and anger directed at the counselor. Also conducting sessions in an isolated, private home with this population can be distressing. (Recommendations include having active cell phones present, co-therapists, same gender consumer/therapist, no vicious pets present, dressing inauspiciously, accessible exit strategy, separating therapy from punitive aspects of referring agency, identify family dynamics and structure and using non-directive, non-threatening to techniques to change maladaptive structures or dynamics.)

These are several challenges of the HCC and the educator, although there may be additional ones, overall general rules include professionalism and caution. Specific techniques to address these challenges and concerns will be discussed later. Many advantages also exist with this format of service delivery.

---

**Advantages of House Call Counseling**

There is varied opinion as to some elements of house call counseling being defined as an advantage or disadvantage. The previous challenges and following advantages are gleaned from this authors experience and anecdotal evidence from other practitioners and educators that visit student’s homes:

**Empathy/Rapport**

The home setting is conducive to building rapport as the client is comfortable and more expressive. The consumer’s home environment enables the counselor to experience the consumer’s world more closely and authentically.

**Respect**

Consumers feel respected and appreciated by counselors making effort to meet in their houses. This may lead to more open communication and trust.

**Accessibility**

HCC promotes access to additional services that may have been inaccessible due to various barriers. HCC’s can serve as gateway
agents for improving the overall health and function of consumers and their families.

**In vivo**

The counselor can observe and interact in the “real-life” situation and environment where the dynamics, interaction, communication or other elements of therapy are occurring. They can make interventions to the individual or system that can be implemented in “real-time.”

**Observation**

The HCC has the ability to observe the context, conditions, and resources of the consumer. They also may observe interactions, communication styles and patterns, hierarchal and status structures that reveal pertinent information. They may experience unfettered the natural discipline and boundary issues practiced at the home environment and then formulate appropriate and effective strategies and interventions.

**Appointments**

Cancellations due to consumer barriers are reduced as the counselor brings the services to them. This also allows for some flexibility as the counselor sets their own appointments.

**Summary**

House Call Counselors can be an effective and viable component of any school systems efforts to have students succeed. Training and education programs for school counselors are encouraged to incorporate curriculum addressing theory and practice associated with this delivery system. School counselors and other educators should be competent in areas that are present within this population. These include drug and alcohol abuse, single-parent households, counseling children and adolescents, legal and mandated issues. School systems employing HCC’s should be aware and guard against the high stress levels and the ensuing symptoms that can affect their counselors. They may wish to provide more vigilant supervision and support, provide additional administrative and support personnel, and provide realistic treatment expectations. All of these recommendations contribute to a skillful and productive school counselor that benefits all parties.

**References**

Lethal Injection:
A Fatally Flawed Method of Execution?

Joseph A. Melusky
Saint Francis University
Introduction

In *Baze and Bowling v. Rees* (2008), two inmates unsuccessfully challenged Kentucky’s lethal injection process. They conceded that the procedure was “humane and constitutional” if performed correctly, but incorrect administration of the drugs would inflict severe pain and would constitute “cruel and unusual punishment.” Concurring, Justice Stevens wrote, “I assumed that our decision would bring the debate about lethal injection as a method of execution to a close. It now seems clear that it will not.” He was correct. Stevens added, “I am now convinced that this case will generate debate not only about the constitutionality of [Kentucky’s] three-drug protocol . . . but also about the justification for the death penalty itself.” Again, he was correct. This paper focuses not so much on the debate about the death penalty itself but on the continuing controversies surrounding lethal injection as a method of execution.

Background

The Eighth Amendment prohibits “cruel and unusual punishments,” but it does not categorically prohibit the death penalty. The Fifth and Fourteenth Amendments provide 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 point is that persons can be deprived of their lives if they receive due process of law.

But the death penalty is unconstitutional if it is inflicted in a “cruel or unusual” manner. Methods of execution change and methods matter. What is “cruel and unusual” today may have been “humane and customary” yesterday. The very notion of “humane” capital punishment seems paradoxical, but certain methods 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. Such repulsive methods of execution have been rejected as incompatible with contemporary standards of decency. Courts look to these ever-evolving standards as they evaluate methods.¹ The guillotine was once hailed as a humanitarian advance in death-penalty technology. The electric chair promised “instantaneous” and “painless” death. Gruesome malfunctions led to today’s preferred and ostensibly “humane” method of execution: lethal injection. Not so long ago, from 1972 through 1976, no executions took place in the United States.

From Furman (1972) to Gregg (1976)

In 1972, a divided Supreme Court struck down a challenged death penalty law in *Furman v. Georgia*. Five separate concurring opinions were written. Only Justices Brennan and Marshall concluded that capital punishment is always constitutionally prohibited. Other Justices – Douglas, Stewart, and White – objected to the appearance of racial bias or arbitrariness in how the death penalty was applied. A major 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 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 eliminated jury discretion, making the death penalty mandatory for certain crimes. This approach failed. In 1976 (*Roberts v. Louisiana* and
Woodson v. North Carolina), the Court invalidated mandatory death penalties. Twenty-five states tried to provide juries with “guided discretion,” requiring two-stage trials in capital cases. The first stage would determine guilt or innocence and the second would determine the punishment in light of aggravating or mitigating circumstances.

In Gregg v. Georgia (1976) and two companion cases, Proffitt v. Florida (1976) and Jurek v. Texas (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, 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 befitting the most extreme crimes. Dissenting, Justices Brennan and Marshall reaffirmed their Furman opposition to capital punishment.

Capital punishment was back, returning in 1977 under Utah’s revised state death penalty statute: convicted murderer Gary Gilmore was executed by a firing squad.

Since then, courts have considered whether the punishment fits the crime, whether the punishment imposed was the one intended by the legislature, and whether it can be applied to convicted criminals who are mentally retarded or who were juveniles when they committed capital offenses. Depending on the circumstances, sometimes death sentences have been upheld and sometimes they have been struck down.

**Executions: Where and How Often?**

Thirty-two states, the federal government, and the U.S. military currently authorize capital punishment. Eighteen states and the District of Columbia do not. (See Table 1)

Following its return in 1977, capital punishment peaked in 1999 with 98 executions. Since then, it has been in decline with 35 executions having been performed in 2014. Some states, however, use it far more frequently than others. (See Table 2)

As of this writing, 1,404 executions have been performed since Gregg. Texas leads the nation by a large margin. Three states – Texas, Oklahoma, and Virginia – account for over half (53%) of all executions. Regionally, the vast majority of executions take place in the South. Executions are rare in the Northeast. (See Table 3)

As an aside, supporters of capital punishment sometimes point to its deterrent effects. Recent statistics appear to undermine this argument. (See Table 4)

The South, with the highest frequency of executions, has the highest homicide rate in the nation; the Northeast, with the fewest executions, has the lowest murder rate.

**Execution Methods: How Are They Performed in Death-Penalty States?**

Various methods have been employed in contemporary times including hanging, firing squads, the gas chamber, and electrocution. Today, as noted, lethal injection is the preferred method of execution in the United States. Since Gregg, the vast majority of executions used this method. (See Table 5)

Oklahoma, in 1977, was the first state to adopt lethal injection. Texas became the first state to use this method when Charles Brooks was executed on December 2, 1982. All death-penalty states and the federal government now use lethal injection as their primary execution method. In federal executions, the method is determined by the state in which the sentencing took place. Typically, the inmate is strapped to a gurney. Several heart monitors are attached. Two needles (one serves as a back-up) are
inserted into useable veins. Tubes connect the needle through a hole in a block wall to several intravenous drips. The first contains a saline solution to prevent clogging of the lines. At the warden’s signal, a curtain is raised and the inmate is visible to witnesses in an adjoining room. Drugs are then administered.  

Although lethal injection is the primary method in all death-penalty states, alternate means are still permitted in some states. Table 6 provides a break down.

States use various protocols involving one, two, or three drugs. Most states used a three-drug “cocktail” until 2009: an anesthetic or sedative (either sodium thiopental or pentobarbital), a paralytic agent (typically pancuronium bromide), and a cardiac-arrest drug (potassium chloride). Drug shortages led some states to try new lethal injection methods. Lundbeck, Inc., a Danish company that produces pentobarbital, restricted distribution of the drug to prevent its use in executions. The United Kingdom restricted exports of propofol and sodium thiopental to prevent their use in executions. Vince Cable, U.K. Business Secretary, said, “This country opposes the death penalty. We are clear that the state should never be complicit in judiciary executions through the use of British drugs in lethal injections.” Some domestic suppliers also restricted availability of certain drugs. In 2010, the only U.S. maker of sodium thiopental, Hospira, Inc. in Lake Forest, Illinois, reported a shortage of the materials needed to manufacture the drug. In 2014, an investigation revealed that Ohio obtained its lethal-injection drugs, midazolam and hydromorphone, from Hospira. The company opposes the use of its products for executions.

Eight states (Arizona, Georgia, Idaho, Missouri, Ohio, South Dakota, Texas, and Washington) have used a single-drug method, injecting a lethal dose of an anesthetic. Six other states Arkansas, California, Kentucky, Louisiana, North Carolina, and Tennessee) announced plans to move to a single-drug method. Fourteen states (Alabama, Arizona, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Carolina, South Dakota, Texas, and Virginia) have used pentobarbital instead of sodium thiopental in executions. Five additional states (Kentucky, Louisiana, Montana, North Carolina, and Tennessee) plan to move to pentobarbital. Missouri planned to use propofol in a one-drug protocol, but it has since revised its plans. Florida and Oklahoma have used midazolam as the first drug (the anesthetic) in their three-drug protocols. Oklahoma used midazolam for Clayton Lockett’s botched execution in 2014. Ohio and Arizona also used midazolam in 2014 executions. Both executions were prolonged, accompanied by the inmate’s gasping. Ohio was the first state to use a one-drug method (December 8, 2009). Sodium thiopental was used. Oklahoma was the first state to substitute pentobarbital for sodium thiopental in a three-drug method (December 16, 2010). Ohio was the first to use pentobarbital in a one-drug method (March 10, 2011). Death penalty opponents pointed out that pentobarbital is used for euthanizing animals. Midazolam was first used in a three-drug method by Florida (October 15, 2013) and in a two-drug method by Ohio (January 16, 2014). States continue to experiment in an attempt to find the “right” mix. One such lethal cocktail was considered by the U.S. Supreme Court in 2008.


Petitioners challenged Kentucky’s three-drug lethal injection procedures. Specifically, the first drug, sodium thiopental, is a sedative that induces unconsciousness. Proper administration of the first drug ensures that the inmate does not experience pain
associated with paralysis and cardiac arrest caused by the second (pancuronium bromide) and third drugs (potassium chloride). Intravenous catheters are inserted into the prisoner by qualified personnel having at least one year of professional experience (a certified phlebotomist and an emergency medical technician). Other personnel mix solutions containing the three drugs and load them into syringes. The warden and deputy warden remain in the execution chamber with the prisoner. The execution team administers the drugs remotely from an adjoining control room. If a visual inspection by the warden and deputy warden reveals that the prisoner is not unconscious within 60 seconds, another dose of thiopental is administered before the second and third drugs. The warden and deputy warden also inspect the catheters and lines to watch for problems. A physician is prohibited by law from participating in the conduct of an execution. One is present, however, to assist in reviving the prisoner in the event of a stay of execution or, following the execution, to certify cause of death. Petitioners conceded that the protocol was “humane,” but there was a risk of “significant pain” if the procedures were not followed properly.

In a seven-to-two decision, the Court rejected the constitutional challenge. Chief Justice Roberts announced the judgment in an opinion joined by Justices Kennedy and Alito. Citing Gregg, Roberts noted that capital punishment is constitutional so “there must be a means for carrying it out.” Some risk of pain is inherent in any execution method. The Constitution does not require the elimination of any and all such risk. Roberts pointed to three cases in which the Court upheld challenged state execution procedures. First, in Wilkerson v. Utah, the Court upheld death by firing squad. There the Court described cases from England where “terror, pain, or disgrace were sometimes superadded” to sentences. For example, the condemned was “emboweled alive, beheaded, and quartered.” Other examples included “public dissection” and “burning alive.” Punishments of “torture” and others that reflect “unnecessary cruelty” are constitutionally forbidden. Death by firing squad does not cross this threshold. Second, in In re Kemmler, the Court upheld electrocution as a method of execution, observing that punishments are “cruel” when they involve “torture or a lingering death.” Electrocution was adopted “in an effort to devise a more humane method.” Third, in Louisiana ex rel. Francis v. Resweber, the Court upheld a second attempt at executing a prisoner by electrocution after a mechanical malfunction on the first attempt. The Court concluded that there was no Eighth Amendment violation because the malfunction was “an accident, with no suggestion of malevolence” and “[a]ccidents happen.”

The risks of an inadequate dose of the first drug (the sedative), improper mixing of chemicals, or improper setting of IVs are not “objectively intolerable.” In fact, lethal injection is widely tolerated as the preferred method of execution across the nation. Roberts concluded that Kentucky’s procedures did not violate the Eighth Amendment.

In his concurring opinion, Justice Alito considered and rejected suggested modifications to lethal injection protocols. Ethics guidelines of the American Medical Association, the American Nurses Association, and the National Association of Emergency Medical Technicians preclude these professionals from participating in executions. As such, any suggested modification of a lethal injection protocol that would involve active participation by these medical professionals would not be feasible.
In an intriguing concurring opinion, Justice Stevens stated his personal opposition to the death penalty. Like Justices Blackmun, Powell, Brennan, and Marshall before him, Stevens said that he had been persuaded that current decisions to retain the death penalty were "the product of habit and inattention rather than an acceptable deliberative process that weighs the costs and risks of administering that penalty against its identifiable benefits." In Gregg, the Court identified three purposes for capital punishment: "incapacitation, deterrence, and retribution." After examining each of the three, Stevens found that they had "diminishing force." He expressed additional concerns about discriminatory application of the death penalty, the possibility of erroneously convicting an innocent defendant, and the irrevocable nature of capital punishment. He concluded that the death penalty represents "the pointless and needless extinction of life with only marginal contributions to any discernible social or public purpose." A penalty with such "negligible returns" is excessive, cruel, and unusual. So why did he concur? Citing respect for precedent, Stevens acknowledged that the Court had upheld the constitutionality of the death penalty and established a framework for evaluating particular methods of execution. Applying these standards, he concluded that Kentucky’s procedures were constitutionally acceptable.

Justice Scalia’s concurring opinion, joined by Justice Thomas, took issue with Stevens’ reliance on "his own experience" in opposing the death penalty.

Justice Thomas, in a concurring opinion joined by Scalia, said that "a method of execution violates the Eighth Amendment only if it is deliberately designed to inflict pain." Officials of the seventeenth- and eighteenth-century state had "tools capable of intensifying a death sentence." They had ways of "producing a punishment worse than death" for the most dangerous offenders. For example, burning at the stake was always painful and it destroyed the body. It was "a form of super-capital punishment worse than death itself." The punishment for high treason involved "emboweling alive, beheading, and quartering." Such "aggravated forms" of capital punishment were designed to "terrorize the criminal" in order to deter others. They were "purposely designed to inflict pain and suffering beyond that necessary to cause death." In Blackstone’s words, "in very atrocious crimes, other circumstances of terror, pain, or disgrace [were] superadded" and were designed "to ensure that death would be slow and painful, and thus all the more frightening to contemplate." Thomas observed that the Framers of the Constitution regarded such enhancements as "cruel and unusual punishments." Embellishments designed to "inflict pain for pain’s sake" are constitutionally impermissible. But a method is not "cruel and unusual" simply because there is some risk of pain. The Eighth Amendment targets "intentional infliction of gratuitous pain." It was clear to Thomas that Kentucky was attempting to make capital punishment "more humane, not to add elements of terror, pain, or disgrace to the death penalty." In sum, the protocol is "designed to eliminate pain rather than to inflict it."

Justice Breyer also concurred that Kentucky’s methods did not pose "a significant risk of unnecessary suffering."

Justice Ginsburg, joined by Justice Souter, dissented. Use of pancuronium bromide and potassium chloride on a conscious inmate would produce "agony" and "searing pain." The constitutionality of Kentucky’s protocol "turns on whether inmates are adequately anesthetized by the first drug . . . , sodium thiopental." But Kentucky "lacks basic safeguards used by other States to confirm that an inmate is unconscious."
Kentucky “does little” to make sure that the inmate has received an adequate dose of the sedative. The only two people who remain in the execution chamber with the inmate, the warden and deputy warden, lack medical training. In most instances, lethal injections will produce a painless death. But mistakes can occur. “Rare though errors may be,” Ginsburg stated, “the consequences of a mistake about the condemned inmate’s consciousness are horrendous.” The omission of “available safeguards to confirm that the inmate is unconscious” creates an avoidable risk of inflicting “severe and unnecessary pain.”

In *Louisiana ex rel. Francis v. Resweber*, it was said that “accidents happen.” Justice Ginsburg suggested that errors would be “rare.” But how rare are these errors? How infrequently do accidents occur?

**Botched Executions**

Michael Radelet cites 46 examples of botched executions that took place between 1982 and 2014.8 The list is illustrative, not exhaustive. Included are two executions by gas chamber, 10 by electrocution, and 34 by lethal injection, one of which failed. *(See Table 7)*

Jimmy Lee Gray died in Mississippi’s gas chamber while moaning and banging his head against a steel pole. It was later revealed that the executioner was drunk. In Arizona’s gas chamber, Donald Eugene Harding’s body spasmed and jerked for 6 minutes and 37 seconds. A witness said this was “a violent death . . . an ugly event. We put animals to death more humanely.” One reporter said “Harding’s death was extremely violent. He was in great pain. . . . I saw his body turn from red to purple.” Another reporter/witness suffered from insomnia for weeks afterwards. Two others said they were “walking vegetables” for days. Electrocutions included witness reports of “the odor and sizzling sound of burning flesh, “his head and leg . . . on fire” (Coppola), “smoke and sparks . . . from under the hood,” “smoke and burning flesh” (Evans), “smoke and the smell of burning,” coupled with an Indiana Department of Corrections admission that the execution “did not go according to plan” (Vandiver), a prison guard’s statement that, “I think we’ve got the jacks on wrong” followed by the Alabama Prison Commissioner’s statement of “regret” and that the cause was “human error” (Dunkins), “six inch flames erupt[ing] from [his] head” as officials blamed “inadvertent human error” (Tafero), “a crown of foot-high flames [shooting] from the headpiece,” an execution chamber filled with “a stench of thick smoke . . . gagging the two dozen official witnesses,” and a conclusion that the fire was caused by “improper application of a sponge” (Medina). Allen Lee Davis died in Florida’s new and improved electric chair. Blood from his mouth poured over his chest. Florida Supreme Court Justice Leander Shaw said that Davis appeared to have been “brutally tortured to death by the citizens of Florida.” He described the Davis, Tafero, and Medina executions as “barbaric spectacles” not befitting a “civilized state.” By contrast, Florida State Senator Ginny Brown-Waite witnessed Davis’ execution. At first she was “shocked” to see the blood. But then she noticed the blood forming the shape of a cross. She took this to be “a message from God saying he supported the execution.” Against this backdrop, lethal injection was supposed to provide a humane alternative.

Radelet’s examples of lethal injections gone wrong do not convey an impression of serene and antiseptic death. Many of problems involved officials’ difficulty in finding a suitable vein (Morin, Woolls, Johnson, Rector, White, Townes, Smith, Elkins, Cannon,
Camacho, Abeyta, Riggs, Demps, Jones, High, Clark, Newton, Hightower, Osborne, and Rhode). A history of drug abuse on the part of some of these prisoners contributed to these difficulties. During Raymond Landry’s prolonged execution, the syringe came out of his vein, spraying deadly chemicals across the room. The catheter was reinserted after this “blowout” — another example of human error. Stephen McCoy had such a violent reaction to his lethal injection that witnesses fainted. The Texas Attorney General admitted that the drugs should have been administered in “a heavier dose or more rapidly” — another error. Charles Walker suffered great pain during his execution because there was a “kink” in the plastic tubing going into his arm and the IV needle was pointing towards his fingers and away from his heart, prolonging the execution – error. During serial killer John Wayne Gacy’s execution, the lethal chemicals solidified, clogging the IV tube. Blinds were drawn to shield the witnesses while a new tube was attached. Anesthesiologists blamed the “inexperience of prison officials” for the problem, saying that “proper procedures taught in 'IV 101' would have prevented the error.” During Emmitt Foster’s execution, chemicals stopped circulating seven minutes into the procedure. Foster gasped and convulsed and, once again, blinds were drawn. The county coroner found that the leather straps holding Foster to the gurney were too tight and had to be loosened – another error. Angel Díaz was executed by lethal injection in Florida in 2006. The first injection failed to sedate him. A second dose was administered. The process was lengthy. A spokesperson for the Department of Corrections attributed problems to Diaz’s “liver disease.” An autopsy revealed that Diaz’s liver was undamaged. The needle had gone through his vein and out the other side, so lethal chemicals were injected into soft tissue rather than the vein – another error. Two days after the execution, Governor Jeb Bush suspended all executions in the state and set up a commission “to consider the humanity and constitutionality of lethal injections.” In 2009, Romell Broom survived his own execution in Ohio. For two hours, officials unsuccessfully attempted to find a useable vein while Broom winced and grimaced. Broom tried to help his executioners find a good vein. Ohio Governor Ted Strickland intervened and ordered the execution to stop so that physicians could be consulted for advice on how to execute Broom more efficiently. As of this writing, Broom remains on Ohio’s death row.

In 2014, Oklahoma prepared an experimental drug protocol. In spite of prolonged litigation and warning about potential dangers, the state scheduled Clayton D. Lockett’s execution. Oklahoma Governor Mary Fallon asked the courts to allow the execution and a bill was introduced in the Oklahoma House of Representatives to impeach judges who voted to delay the execution. It took officials more than an hour to find a useable vein. Ten minutes after administering the first drug (a sedative) a physician (whose presence conflicted with some medical ethical standards) announced that Lockett was unconscious and ready to receive the two lethal drugs, drugs that would cause excruciating pain to a conscious recipient. Lockett was not unconscious: “Lockett began breathing heavily, writhing on the gurney, clenching his teeth and straining. . . .” Officials lowered the blinds. Fifteen minutes later, witnesses were ordered to leave. Minutes later, the Director of the Oklahoma Department of Corrections stopped the execution. Lockett, while still in the execution chamber, died 43 minutes after the execution began. A heart attack was listed as the cause of death. An autopsy subsequently revealed that he died from the lethal drugs. Oklahoma’s official report on the execution cited
insufficient training of corrections officers, communication difficulties between those inside and outside the execution chamber, and a lack of contingency planning in case of problems – more errors. In light of such cases, are errors really “rare”? If “accidents happen,” how many are too many?

**We Need a New Drug…Or Something Else**

In an interview with *Scientific American*, University of Miami Miller School of Medicine molecular biologist Theresa Zimmers spoke about how lethal injections are administered. She said that “medical evidence” is lacking. Lethal injection may look like a medical procedure, “but it hasn’t been rigorously tested.” There have not been “controlled trials, data collection, analysis or peer review” to find if lethal injection “works the way it’s been said to work.” Lethal drug shortages have led states to seek new suppliers or to experiment with new drug protocols. Arizona tried a new two-drug protocol of midazolam and hydromorphone on inmate Joseph Wood. The result was a two-hour execution during which Wood received 15 doses of the drugs and audibly gasped over 600 times. Governor Jan Brewer ordered a review. *(Washington Post, 7/23/14)* Arizona subsequently announced that it is looking for alternatives to midazolam and hydromorphone. *(AP, 12/22/14)* Missouri administered midazolam to nine inmates, despite claims that the drug had not been used. *(St. Louis Public Radio, 9/2/14)* Kentucky announced that it will abandon its two-drug protocol, which would have included midazolam. *(AP, 11/14/14)* Moving in another direction, Alabama announced its plans to switch to a new three-drug protocol beginning with midazolam. *(Anniston Star, 9/12/14)* Ohio delayed all executions in 2015. Governor Kasich said that no executions would take place because the state needs to find a new supply of drugs and prepare a revised execution protocol. *(Christian Science Monitor, 1/30/15)*

States have struggled to find drugs needed for lethal injections. As controversy continues, some states have considered switching to other means of execution. Oklahoma’s House studied hypoxia by nitrogen gas – forced deprivation of oxygen -- for executions. Wyoming considered a return to firing squads, as has Utah. On February 13, 2015, the Utah House narrowly approved a proposal to use firing squads for executions. The bill’s sponsor, Republican Rep. Paul Ray, argues that the method would be faster and more humane than lethal injection. Critics say it is a gruesome relic of the state’s “Wild West” past and would bring international condemnation and excessive media attention.

Emotions continue to run high. In 2015, Pennsylvania Governor Tom Wolf placed a moratorium on executions pending review of a report by the Pennsylvania Task Force and Advisory Committee on Capital Punishment. Calling Wolf “an ideological coward” who seeks to impose his liberal agenda on the state, an irate Blair County District Attorney Richard A. Consiglio recommended that Wolf be recalled from office. Consiglio added, “[t]here’s a certain place in hell for people who support and protect murderers, spitting in the face of law enforcement.” A few months earlier, Pope Francis told representatives of the International Association of Penal Law that “[i]t is impossible to imagine that states today cannot make use of another means than capital punishment to defend people’s lives from an unjust aggressor.”

**Next: Supreme Court Agrees to Review Oklahoma’s Lethal Injections**

In *Baze*, the Court upheld the use of Kentucky’s three-drug cocktail including the anesthetic, sodium thiopental. Since then, necessary drugs, have become increasingly
difficult to obtain. Oklahoma devised a different lethal cocktail, utilizing the sedative midazolam. Clayton Lockett’s previously discussed botched execution used this method. After the Lockett execution, Oklahoma revised its procedures by increasing the midazolam dosage. Four death-row inmates – Charles Warner, Richard Glossip, John Grant, and Benjamin Cole – challenged the Oklahoma protocol. They argued that midazolam cannot produce the level of unconsciousness needed for surgery so it is unsuitable for use in executions. Warner was executed on January 15, 2015. The Court declined to stay his execution by a five-to-four vote. In her dissenting opinion, Justice Sonia Sotomayor said she was “deeply troubled by evidence suggesting that midazolam cannot be constitutionally used as the first drug in a three-drug lethal injection protocol.” After his execution began, Warner exclaimed, “My body is on fire!”

Does the Baze decision upholding Kentucky’s three-drug protocol apply to the Oklahoma case? Does the substitution of midazolam for sodium thiopental matter? Lawyers for the three remaining inmates say that the Oklahoma protocol is different so Baze should not apply. Recall Justice Stevens’ words from Baze: “I assumed that our decision would bring the debate about lethal injection as a method of execution to a close. It now seems clear that it will not.” Will the Oklahoma case provide closure or will prevailing “standards of decency” continue to evolve?

References
Wilkinson v. Utah, 99 U.S. 130 (1878)
In re Kemmler, 136 U.S. 436 (1890)
Louisiana ex rel. Francis v. Resweber, 329 U.S. 459 (1947)
Trop v. Dulles (356 U.S. 86, 1958)
Furman v. Georgia, 408 U.S. 238 (1972)
Roberts v. Louisiana, 431 U.S. 633 (1977)

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


Greenemeier.


### Table 1: Death Penalty and Non-Death Penalty States

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<th>Non-Death Penalty States (18)</th>
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<td>*CT, MD, and NM have abolished the death penalty but their laws were not retroactive, leaving some prisoners on death rows and their lethal injection protocols intact.</td>
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### Table 2: Executions by State from 1976 through March 21, 2015 (Total: 1,404)

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<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DE</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NM</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>WY</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IL</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>1,404</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Executions by Region from 1976 through March 21, 2015
(Federal executions listed in region where crime was committed)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SOUTH</td>
<td>1,142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIDWEST</td>
<td>173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WEST</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NORTHEAST</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TX &amp; OK</td>
<td>634</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 4: Murder Rates per 100,000 (2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SOUTH</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIDWEST</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WEST</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NORTHEAST</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NATIONAL</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 5: Executions by Method Used from 1976 through March 21, 2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LETHAL INJECTION</td>
<td>1,229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELECTROCUTION</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GAS CHAMBER</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HANGING</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIRING SQUAD</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>METHOD</th>
<th>NUMBER OF EXECUTIONS BY METHOD (1976 – FEBRUARY 11, 2015)</th>
<th>NUMBER OF STATES AUTHORIZING METHOD</th>
<th>STATES/JURISDICTIONS THAT AUTHORIZE METHOD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*NM and CT abolished the death penalty but not retroactively, leaving inmates on death row in each state.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrodection</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>8 states (all have lethal injection as primary method). TN would use electric chair if lethal injection drugs unavailable.</td>
<td>AL, AR, FL, KY, [OK], SC, TN, VA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gas Chamber</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4 states (all have lethal injection as primary method)</td>
<td>AZ, CA, MO, [WY]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hanging</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 states (all have lethal injection as primary method)</td>
<td>DE, NH, WA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firing Squad</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2 states (all have lethal injection as primary method)</td>
<td>[OK], UT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>UT no longer offers firing squad as an option, but would allow it for inmates who chose this method prior to its elimination. OK offers firing squad only if lethal injection and electrocution are found unconstitutional.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note: States in [brackets] authorize the listed method only if a current method is found unconstitutional. Source: Death Penalty Information Center Methods of Execution, http://www.deathpenaltyinfo.org/methods-execution

Table 7: Some Examples of Botched Executions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8/10/82</td>
<td>VA</td>
<td>electrocution</td>
<td>Frank J. Coppola</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4/6/92</td>
<td>AZ</td>
<td>gas chamber</td>
<td>Donald Eugene Harding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6/8/00</td>
<td>FL</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Bennie Demps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8/22/83</td>
<td>AL</td>
<td>electrocution</td>
<td>John Evans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/10/92</td>
<td>OK</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Robyn Lee Parks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12/7/2000</td>
<td>TX</td>
<td>lethal inject.</td>
<td>Claude Jones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9/2/83</td>
<td>MS</td>
<td>gas chamber</td>
<td>Jimmy Lee Gray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4/23/92</td>
<td>TX</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Billy Wayne White</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6/28/00</td>
<td>MO</td>
<td>lethal inject.</td>
<td>Bert Leroy Hunter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12/12/84</td>
<td>GA</td>
<td>electrocution</td>
<td>Alpha Otis Stephens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/7/92</td>
<td>TX</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Justin Lee May</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11/7/01</td>
<td>GA</td>
<td>lethal inject.</td>
<td>Jose High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/13/85</td>
<td>TX</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Stephen Peter Morin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/10/94</td>
<td>IL</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>John Wayne Gacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/2/06</td>
<td>OH</td>
<td>lethal inject.</td>
<td>Joseph L. Clark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10/16/85</td>
<td>IN</td>
<td>electrocution</td>
<td>William E. Vandiver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/3/95</td>
<td>MO</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Emmitt Foster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12/13/06</td>
<td>FL</td>
<td>lethal inject.</td>
<td>Angel Diaz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8/20/86</td>
<td>TX</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Randy Woolls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1/23/96</td>
<td>VA</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Richard Townes, Jr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/24/07</td>
<td>OH</td>
<td>lethal inject.</td>
<td>Christopher Newton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6/24/87</td>
<td>TX</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Eliot Rod Johnson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7/18/96</td>
<td>IN</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Tommie J. Smith</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6/26/07</td>
<td>GA</td>
<td>lethal inject.</td>
<td>John Hightower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12/13/88</td>
<td>TX</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Raymond Landry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/25/97</td>
<td>FL</td>
<td>electrocution</td>
<td>Pedro Medina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6/4/08</td>
<td>GA</td>
<td>lethal inject.</td>
<td>Curtis Osborne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/24/89</td>
<td>TX</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Stephen McCoy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/8/97</td>
<td>OK</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Scott Dawn Carpenter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9/15/09</td>
<td>OH</td>
<td>attempted lethal inject.</td>
<td>Romell Broom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7/14/89</td>
<td>AL</td>
<td>electrocution</td>
<td>Horace F. Dunkins, Jr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6/13/97</td>
<td>SC</td>
<td>lethal inject.</td>
<td>Michael Eugene Elkins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9/27/10</td>
<td>GA</td>
<td>lethal inject.</td>
<td>Brandon Joseph Rhode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/4/90</td>
<td>FL</td>
<td>electrocution</td>
<td>Jesse Joseph Tafero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4/23/98</td>
<td>TX</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Joseph Cannon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1/16/14</td>
<td>OH</td>
<td>lethal inject.</td>
<td>Dennis McGuire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9/12/90</td>
<td>IL</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Charles Walker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8/26/98</td>
<td>TX</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Genaro Ruiz Camacho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4/29/14</td>
<td>OK</td>
<td>lethal inject.</td>
<td>Clayton D. Lockett</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10/17/90</td>
<td>VA</td>
<td>electrocution</td>
<td>Wilbert Lee Evans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10/5/98</td>
<td>NV</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Roderick Abeyata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7/23/14</td>
<td>AZ</td>
<td>lethal inject.</td>
<td>Joseph R. Wood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8/22/91</td>
<td>VA</td>
<td>electrocution</td>
<td>Derick Lynn Peterson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7/8/99</td>
<td>FL</td>
<td>electrocution</td>
<td>Allen Lee Davis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1/24/92</td>
<td>AR</td>
<td>lethal inject.</td>
<td>Rickey Ray Rector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/3/00</td>
<td>AR</td>
<td>lethal injection</td>
<td>Christina Marie Riggs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Totals (N = 46):
- gas chamber = 2
- electrocut. = 10
- lethal inject. = 33
- leth. inj. attempt = 1

Source: Adapted from Michael L. Radelet, “Examples of Post-Furman Botched Executions” (last addition: July 24, 2014), http://www.deathpenaltyinfo.org/some-examples-post-furman-botched-executions
“We are More Alike than Unalike:”
mtDNA Deep Ancestry Testing and Diversity Awareness in Undergraduate Social Science Courses

Johanna Moyer
Miami University
There is a substantial body of literature that suggests that undergraduates in America’s colleges and universities still cling to traditional racial and ethnic stereotypes. This is particularly true among the student populations in higher education that are not as racially diverse. The lack of student diversity is a particular problem at Ohio’s Miami University on their three regional campuses. The regional campuses are nonresidential, with students drawn from the limited geographic area of northern Cincinnati and the surrounding suburbs. Therefore, our student population is not as geographically or ethnically diverse in some respects as many residential campuses or indeed as our main campus, which is also residential. Moreover, regional campus students are also much less likely to encounter ethnic diversity in their college classrooms. For Miami’s Regionals, admission data from the past academic year showed that regional campus students rarely encountered foreign students in their day-to-day activities, only a fraction (Miami University, 2013).

Several studies suggest that it is important to start reshaping attitudes in such populations as soon as students start their freshman year. Therefore our project targeted 100 level classes in the social sciences and humanities on the regional campuses. All of these classes were core courses in what is known as the “Miami Foundation Plan.” They include things commonly found in the University requirements of most colleges such as World History, Western Civilization, Sociology 101, Psychology 101, etc. Many of the attitudes that the literature highlights as problematic are addressed in the curriculum of these foundation courses. All students regardless of major have to take at least some of these courses in order to graduate. Therefore, it is important to present lessons that dramatically highlight the fallacy of racial, ethnic, religious, gender, and cultural stereotypes, promote the appreciation of diversity, and create multicultural competence.

The project focused on the social sciences because social science disciplines like History, Anthropology, Archaeology and others often use a plurality of primary sources including most commonly text-based sources, material objects, and archaeological resources to promote student empathy with others. The literature shows that when students actually hear a first-hand account from the past or get to touch a historical object, they are more likely to identify with and feel empathy for the person or groups that created the primary source. Recently, historians, anthropologists and others begin to use DNA analysis as a phenotypic primary source. Recent advancements in DNA technology have created tests (e.g., mtDNA, Y-chromosome analysis) that can determine the synchronic and diachronic ancestry of an individual person. This has made it possible to trace the migration of ancestors up to 50,000-170,000 years ago (e.g., mtDNA “Scientific Eve” or the Y-chromosome “Scientific Adam), often referred to as “Deep Ancestry” DNA testing.

The use of this kind of DNA testing in the classroom is growing in popularity, spearheaded by educator participants in the National Geographic Human Genome Project. Project leaders report that the use of DNA testing in the classroom to determine ancestry creates a higher level of engagement among students, allows students to understand much more about their own past and their own identities, and to explore issues of race and ethnicity in ancestry. Our pilot project built upon the large ongoing program run by the National Geographic Human Genome Project. In this project, participants submit anonymously a sample of their DNA acquired harmlessly through
saliva. When the analysis is completed, participants login with their anonymous participant number to see the results. Participants also receive a map that traces their own family back to Africa.

Pedagogically, the most important point that the National Geographic Genome Project data makes for students is that skin color and race are simply a product of where our ancestors lived millennia years ago. We chose to use mitochondrial-maternal-DNA for this project. This allows students to trace their mother’s mother’s mother back to scientific Eve. Additionally, this exercise also emphasizes that there are actually very few mitochondrial DNA markers in the human gene pool; humans as a whole are much more related than most students assume.

Unfortunately, the Educators price of this project—$140 educators’ price/$200 retail—was far more than our regional students could afford. Instead, we soon teamed up with MU’s main campus Center for Bioinformatics and Functional Genomics to provide the DNA analysis. Ultimately, we were able to do initial testing of each student for roughly $30; this cost was covered by an in house grant for our Center for the Enhancement Learning. Therefore, all of the regional campus students enrolled in the project received the test for free.

Social science and humanities faculty teaching Miami Foundation Plan courses volunteered to participate and received some training. As you can see from the table, eight courses participated in the first round of testing for a total of 167 students receiving a DNA test and 325 students participating in the study. Each class was divided in half, with one half receiving the Deep Ancestry DNA analysis and the other half doing a traditional assignment that was already in use in the classroom. Faculty were asked to create an assignment similar to the traditional assignment for the DNA group, but that used the DNA analysis instead of whatever resources had traditionally been employed. Student DNA was collected harmlessly through saliva and each sample provided anonymous number. Only the student retained their numbers which they needed to get the results. Once the results returned, students were instructed on how to use a map that contained all possible migratory paths and shown how to match up their own test results with the appropriate migrations on the map.

Our analysis of the pedagogical products of this study are ongoing. We are currently employing a rubric that measures exactly how much diversity awareness and multicultural competence is reflected in both the DNA assignments and the traditional assignments. We are also currently doing an analysis of GPA differences between the two assignments because we are starting to suspect that the DNA project actually received higher grades. However, this paper focuses on how student rhetoric in the two assignments differed. I will be focusing on cultural awareness, how students constructed race, and how they saw their place in history.

The use of Deep Ancestry DNA testing in the classroom produced some pedagogical results that were anticipated and others that were quite surprising. Some students in the group that received DNA testing contrasted their test results with what they saw in the mirror. Many students had pre-constructed notions about their familial and ancestral histories based on what they believed their skin color to be. A freshman anthropology student who self-identified as African-American noted that “I started from mitochondrial Eve to… [ended] Finally [with] HV which is [a marker]of European descent. This was a very surprising outcome for me because I recently learned in ATH 155 that all mankind
first originated in Africa, so I thought my ancestors just stayed back while others moved around to different parts of the world. …I [now] realize that my ancestors originated the near East of Europe 40,000 years ago… That is something that we would never have guessed …because I have very dark skin and yet my mtDNA has proven that I have origins in a place where lighter skinned people are from" (Anonymous Anthropology student essay, 2014).

Another Anthropology student who self-identified as Asian American was quite upset. “I was really surprised when the result came. The result was a little disturbing because I never thought in 1 million years that my great ancestors started off as “white”. The result indicated my great-grandparents started as White ended as black. The three countries [indicated in my test results] are Europe, western Asia, and Africa…. I almost did not believe the result, but I have been told so many times that my ancestors were Asian because of the shape of my eyes.” Is very clear in this paper that her identity had been shaken (Anonymous Anthropology student essay, 2014).

Other students were thrilled with the findings, but ran afoul of some of the racial stereotypes which are unfortunately common in American society. One student, and her family, self-identified as European-American. However, when she shared her results with her grandmother, the student reported that the grandmother “refused to believe that everyone came from Africa. She reported that her grandmother said “Do I look black to you?!” I laughed,” the student said, “and I stopped trying to explain” (Anonymous Anthropology student essay, 2014).

However, such astounding revelations and the associated cognitive dissonance were actually reported in only a small number of assignments, approximately less than 5% of all those who participated. More commonly, students who participated in the Deep Ancestry project began to relate skin color to geography. One student enrolled in Western Civilization noted that multiple skin colors could occur within lineages descended from the same ancestors. He noted that skin color was just an issue of different choices that were made in a family over time. “We might be separated because may be one generation left seeking good farming land and left the other generation back. The generation [that moved on] and up [still has a] family in another place where he was originally, so this now makes a one generation but from different parts” (Anonymous History student essay, 2014).

We noted that students who participated in the DNA testing were also more likely to speculate about external forces that impacted the migration of humanity as a whole and to a lesser extent their own ancestors. These students were less likely to see their own histories as the product of individual choices and much more as the decisions made by groups facing significant environmental factors. A student in History, for example, focused on variables like the rise of a drought which forced population out of Africa, the Ice Age, and other changes in climate that had impacted her ancestors’ migratory journey. She speculated that her ancestors may have interacted with Neanderthals and how her ancestors probably migrated over the land bridge into North America (Anonymous History student essay, 2014). Other students also speculated on the factors that caused the ancestors to migrate. “I wonder if roaming herds of animals helped force the location of man as well.” (Anonymous Anthropology student essay, 2014)
Students soon began to speculate that “race” had a largely geographical, rather than biological, component. One anthropology student who shared with us that he had immigrated from Africa to Ohio noted that “Geographical standing has also had big influence on our skin color as it changes due to location and this shows that things that are made by society called race can somehow be something completely made up... Because when we trace back from the beginning we are descended from the same area and the same kind of people” (Anonymous Anthropology student essay, 2014).

Other students concluded that race was actually cultural. As this was one of the main pedagogical goals of our study, we were pleased to see this in roughly half of the assignments involving DNA testing. A student in one of the History survey courses speculated, that “The problems and conflicts we characterized as racially driven in the past and in modern times are not actually racial at all. The many differences humans experience daily with different racial groups should actually be classified as cultural, social or religious indifference problems.” This student did go on to debate whether or not this would explain many of the conflicts discussed over the course of the semester in this particular class” (Anonymous History student essay, 2014). A classmate of this History student argued that while racial tension was higher now than at any time since the civil rights movement, and racial clashes were actually over “cultural differences,” not biological ones (Anonymous History student essay, 2014). A student in American Studies noted insightfully that notions of race had changed over time. Initially, the student argued, “race” had been simply membership in a group “of people you share common traits with [like] Skin color, facial features, possible belief systems, language, area of habitation, etc. In the more recent past, race seems to specifically imply the color of one’s skin” (Anonymous American Studies student essay, 2014).

More importantly, student who participated in Deep Ancestry analysis scored highly on diversity measures that assessed how well students recognize how race functioned in their own culture. A student in Western Civilization noted that “… race is something that society generally constructs in order to separate one group from the other. Race is one form of identification that a person is able to associate with and say that they are part of a group of people that share the same features. However, many other issues can occur with the logic that race is socially constructed.” America is supposed to be “a melting pot,” she concluded, however “typically, a person is identified by their physical dominant appearance which will in turn be categorized as race” (Anonymous History student essay, 2014).

This student wisely noted that race was used throughout American society to categorize and collect information on Americans. She and other students noticed that our own government used race as a category in governmental inquiries like “the census, medical forms,” and in topics that were related to social inequality “like gang violence and crime.” “Race is something that is thrown around as a means to identify a person and the expectations that society has on them, but is race really the issue? In my opinion the use of race is highly overrated because it is typically used as a form of generalization for a greater issue” (Anonymous History student essay, 2014).

As noted before, half of the students in the courses participating in this study were assigned to the control group. That is to say that they were assigned essays, papers, or other assignments that had been in use in these courses before the study. Although these papers were on a larger array of topics, diversity measures and assignment
content show that students who did not participate in DNA testing were much less likely to see themselves as part of larger movements over time. In fact, many students in the control group saw themselves as the endpoint of history. These assignments tended to focus on just one aspect of the topic or historical movement being examined that led them to the creation of the student’s present world or even of the students themselves.

A paper on the law code of Justinian exemplifies this tenancy. The student noted that “a modern-day equivalent of Justinian’s civil law was to be found in the freest country on earth, America.” This student believed that that the American Constitution mirrored Justinian’s law code in the mandate that “Matters not outlined by the Constitution were left for the states to decide, just like laws …in Justinian’s code {which] were left to the cities and territories to decide…” (Anonymous History student essay, 2014). In this student’s view, Justinian became the ultimate Democratic leader. “Justinian saw the satisfaction of his citizens as the surest way to maintain [their] loyalty. The student continued, “compared to his predecessors, Justinian was …more considerate of his citizens …and expand[ed] upon their rights and [gave them a] say in the way they conduct their own lives... Justinian promised people “protection, religious sanctity, a good life, and an input into the laws of the Empire.” (Ibid.) This list looked suspiciously like the right to “life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness!” In many respects, this description of Justinian could apply to any of our founding fathers. While Justinian arguably did many things that were beneficial to his subjects, there were points in this paper where I did not recognize the Emperor at all.

Others papers in the Control Group sought the origin of our social system in the past. One student tackled the problem of the lower status of women. In a paper on the trial of Joan of Arc, this student observed that “the path of history has never been kind to the female gender.” However, this was changed rather dramatically by women who “charged in headfirst and proved to the world their equality.” In this essay, Joan appears as a paragon of feminism who “looked her King in the eye and told him that God had commanded her to fight” and who was a “masterful tactician and warrior.” In the end, Joan is important to this student because she “held a pivotal role in defining female empowerment,” and because she “did not just challenge the way things were … She set a standard so high that no one could find an excuse not to stand up and change the world for the better” (Anonymous History student essay, 2014). To this student, the first modern feminist becomes Joan of Arc.

These two papers illustrate trends that we noticed across courses in the control group. For those doing the traditional historical and anthropological assignments, modern America became the endpoint, the destination if you will, for most historical trends. It was surprising how many law codes were just like the American democratic legal system. This was also true of court systems, ancient philosophies, social roles, architecture, economic systems, and governments. In fact, for many of the undergraduates who have graciously consented to allow me to dissect their papers in public, the importance of the past seemed to be measured by how closely it resembled the American president. Regardless of topic, all roads led to modern America and the students’ current lives. The papers and assignments created by students in the control group were not only the very definition of ‘presentist’ but also tended to emphasize the uniqueness of the American experience historically.
The students who were included in the Deep Ancestry DNA testing, however, saw history as an ever-evolving process in which they played only a small role. Students in the DNA group saw their present as the result of mass migrations of large groups of humans in which the decisions of individuals tended to get lost in the larger decisions of the group. Moreover, in the vast majority of papers of students enrolled in the DNA group, wrote about where their haplogroup existed in the world. One Anthropology student noted that she shared ancestry with individuals in Eurasia and India and that a similar MT DNA result ...occurred from a tomb in which a six century Chinese chieftain was [interred].” She now saw herself as far more than the “Scandinavian American” she believed herself to be before this project. She now saw herself as part of larger migration of cultures and even part of the world cultures that shared the same haplogroups. (Anonymous Anthropology student essay, 2014). An American Studies student summarized this concept beautifully, “I know it makes me wonder if I have some distant cousins out there- in Africa, the Middle East, Europe, etc.” (Anonymous American Studies student essay, 2014).

The assignments produced by the group that received DNA testing tended to focus on the commonality of the human experience and on the lack of uniqueness of themselves. As one student put it, “… We all came from the same DNA, so we are brothers and sisters and we should treat each other with respect... We might have different body colors, but that does not mean we [are not] …connected. DNA has no racial colors like, Black, White or Latino, we are the ones who created those boundaries of colors.” (Anonymous History student essay, 2014) These students opposed the idea of America being the unique end point of all history by pointing out that “We are all native of Africa and not really native to “the New World”. (Anonymous History student essay, 2014) As one of our very wise Anthropology students put it, "We are all united genetically and I think it is a beautiful thing." (Anonymous Anthropology student essay, 2014).
Table 1:

<table>
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<td>SOC 153 HA</td>
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AN INDEPENDENT STUDY CHARTER SCHOOL PROGRAM FOR SECONDARY STUDENTS: A UNIVERSITY MODEL APPROACH
AGENDA

- Introductions
- Housekeeping
- Charter School Overview
- Independent Study Approaches
- Questions
ABOUT THE PRESENTERS

- Patrick Hill, Ed.D.
  - Learn4Life Concept Charter Schools
  - Vice President of Student Services
  - phill@learn4life.org  661-952-6030

- Constance Petit, Ed.D.
  - Learn4Life Concept Charter Schools
  - Director of Special Education
  - cpetit@learn4life.org  661-261-4022
ANTICIPATED AUDIENCE

- Directors of Curriculum and Instruction
- Instructional Program Facilitators
- Administrators
- High School Educators


- Questions
  - Happily respond during presentation
  - After presentation
- Accidental Tourists excused
  - Not a comprehensive view of why to select a charter school
CHARTER SCHOOL BASICS

- Publically funded school contracted with a state or jurisdiction
- Exempt from certain rules and regulations but must meet accountability standards
- Charter regularly reviewed; issuing state or jurisdiction can revoke charter
- 42 of 50 states plus District of Columbia
RAPID INCREASE IN CHARTERS ISSUED AND STUDENT ENROLLMENT

1999-2000
- 1,500 charter schools
- 0.3 million students enrolled
- 0.7%
- 14% free or reduced lunch
- White – 42.5%
- Black – 33.5%
- Hispanic – 20.1%

2011-2012
- 5,700 charter schools
- 2.1 million students enrolled
- 4.2%
- 31% free or reduced lunch
- White – 35.6%
- Black – 28.7%
- Hispanic – 28.0%

https://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts
COAST TO COAST COMPARISON 2011-12

- California
  - 985 Charter Schools
  - 413,124 students
  - 7% of total public school students

- District of Columbia
  - 100 Charter Schools
  - 29,000 students
  - 39% of total public school students
PROGRAMS AND APPROACHES VARY

- Survey of America’s Charter Schools 2014
- Elementary
- Secondary
- Combined
Figure 17: Charter School Educational Approach Rank Order

Survey of America’s Charter Schools 2015
SECONDARY SCHOOL STATISTICS

- 1,418 Secondary Charter Schools
- 386,482 students
STUDENTS WHO DO NOT SUCCEED ON A TRADITIONAL CAMPUS

- Dropouts
  - 1.2 million per year; 1 in 4 students
  - California –14.4% 2010-11

- Completers
  - Earn $290,00 more than non-completers
  - Pay $100,00 more in taxes
  - 20% less likely to commit violent crime
  - 68% less likely to be on any welfare program

- At-risk population
- Credit Recovery – need classes to graduate
- Stopped attending school
  - Adult responsibilities
  - Scheduling problems

- These are the students we target!

http://www.csba.org/GovernanceAndPolicyResources~/media/CSBA/Files/GovernanceResources/GovernanceBriefs/201305FactSheetHSGradRates.ashx
LEARN4LIFE CONCEPT CHARTER SCHOOLS

- California based; Founded in 2001
- 14 Local Education Agencies (LEAs); 64 Resource Centers
- Home Study Program – 7 resource centers
- Independent Study 9th – 12th grade
- 13,219 students
  - 1,608 special education (12.2%)
  - 4,561 English language learners (34.7%)
BASIC CHARACTERISTICS OF POST-SECONDARY INSTITUTIONS

- Class meetings – 1 to 3 per week
- Main instructor; teaching assistant
- Flexible course offerings
- Students select schedule
- Complete assignments and projects at home
- Textbook or resources
- On-site assistance, i.e., tutoring labs
- Multiples sessions or terms (semesters, quarters)
- Extended year options – winter intersession, summer school
- Lecture and Online
CAN A POST-SECONDARY MODEL BE USED FOR AT-RISK HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS?
INDEPENDENT STUDY MODEL

- Students work with an assigned teacher
- Teaching assistants (Tutors) are available to offer on-site help and support
- Students don’t attend everyday
- Students attend minimally 1 hour per week; can attend more frequently
- Majority of assignments are completed at home
- Students use textbooks or other provided resources and are directed to others such as online supports
- Some online courses
INDEPENDENT STUDY MODEL (CONT.)

- Students re-commit to working each session – Is this working for me?
- All year experience rather than September to June
- Students can choose courses and content areas to balance workload
- Students can adjust course load
- Students choose the best time to attend
  - Accommodates working students, students who are childcare givers, those with scheduling issues
- Students can take longer or finish faster
- Students can graduate at any point
OUR PROGRAM

- Students can remain past 19 years old
  - Some students, not just those who are special education, remain until 21
- 2013 – 2014
- 13,213 students enrolled by the end of the academic year
  - More than 4 grade levels – Super Seniors
- 1,271 graduated or completed a certificate program
“At-risk students in charter schools and other schools of choice are more likely to graduate and continue on with post-secondary education” (p. 19).

Survey of America’s Charter Schools 2014
OUR FUTURE

- Career Technical Education – CTE
- Virtual online option
- Out-of-State
  - Ohio
  - Texas
QUESTIONS
The Viability of an Independent Study Model for Students with Disabilities

Constance Petit, Ed.D.
Heather Stuve, M.S.
Learn4Life Concept Charter Schools

Presenters

- Constance Petit, Ed.D.
  - Learn4Life Concept Charter Schools
  - Director of Special Education
  - cpetit@learn4life.org
  - 661–261–4022

- Heather Stuve, M.S. SpEd.
  - Learn4Life Concept Charter Schools
  - Special Education Program Specialist
  - hstuve@missionview.org
  - 661–429–4579
This Presentation

- Report from a study
- Action Research

Concerns

- One in four California high school students are dropping out.
- Students with disabilities are twice as likely to drop out of school as their non-disabled peers.
The Problem

- Can alternative education models, such as independent study, help at risk students successfully attain a high school diploma?

The Purpose of the Study

- To establish the viability of independent study as a program model for students with disabilities.
What is Independent Study?

- Students work at their own pace on core and elective content of their choosing.
- Attend a minimum of 1 hour per week.
- Do the majority of their schoolwork from home.
- Utilize the school facility and teachers for one-on-one support, direct instruction, curricular accommodations, and testing.

Who Benefits from Independent Study?

Students who:
- Have special education needs who respond to one-on-one and small group instruction.
- Face particular challenges—such as health issues or the need to work—that make classroom attendance difficult.
- Are credit deficient.
- Are at risk of dropping out of school.
Sample

- Ten research participants; eight male and two female.
- Selected based on their eligibility and participation in special education programs.
- Enrolled at an independent study high school.

Methodology

- Data were compiled from three sources:
  - Questionnaires regarding factors influencing student credit completion
  - Student interviews regarding the experience in an independent study environment versus a traditional high school setting
  - Records review of student incoming and current grade point average for a semester period
Findings

- All participants experienced increased Grade Point Average (GPA).
- The average GPA increase was 1.42 grade points.
- Only one student experienced a decrease in GPA with a .03 point drop.
Student Interview Results

- Participants reported significant benefit of one-on-one teacher instruction.
- An alternative classroom atmosphere was preferred over a structured, closed environment of a traditional, class setting.
- Credit recovery focus option was appealing
- Streamlined approach of independent study was preferred over traditional, comprehensive setting.

Implications for Future Practice

- The data clearly support the validity of independent study as an effective service model for students with disabilities.
- Students that participated in this study were more successful academically and happier socially than in the comprehensive school environment.
- Students spent considerably less time in the classroom than in a comprehensive school and still earned a higher grade point average as a result of direct teacher instruction.
Questions?
The Rise and Fall of Religious Toleration: Is the Settlement Collapsing?

Richard H. Reeb, Jr.
Barstow Community College
“[Christianity is] the most modest and peaceable religion that ever was.” - John Locke

The Western world has long prided itself on its achievement of religious toleration among once-warring, and persecuting, Christian sects. The religious wars that scarred several generations of Europeans and littered the continent with blood are no more than a bitter memory. At least that is what was long believed before the re-emergence of militant Islam and the challenge it poses to liberal, as well as Christian, sensibilities. It is now an open question whether religious toleration will survive the 21st century, whether that means confusion in the face of the possible Islamification of Europe and abandonment of what little is left of its Christian heritage or, perhaps less likely, a surge of intolerance and a wave of persecution by liberals or the adherents of one or both of the major contending faiths.

The United States has a different history from Europe but it may well face similar challenges, however attenuated by its constitutional ban on religious establishments and guarantee of religious freedom. For notwithstanding these significant differences with Europe, where religious establishments, however hollow, still exist, many of the most influential citizens on both continents share a commitment to moral and political relativism, which has fostered studied religious indifference or downright agnosticism, and even atheism, as the necessary, if not sufficient, condition(s) for preventing either religious tyranny or sectarian warfare. In some cases, the result is active opposition to Christianity and renewed anti-Semitism.

It is the thesis of this paper that the turn to religious toleration was not only a result of a prudent appreciation of civil peace and the social and political disadvantages of unchallengeable religious doctrine, but was facilitated by the common moral teaching of the otherwise conflicting theologies of the Roman Catholic Church and the growing number of Protestant denominations, and even Jewish congregations. A corollary to that thesis is that moral and political relativism threatens the indispensable Biblical teaching of “love they neighbor as thyself” that makes the idea of “live and let live” practicable.

The Birth of Religious Toleration

The effective end of religious warfare was partly the result of exhaustion and partly the result of political philosophy. That is, many deplored the needless suffering and death that resulted from the conflict between uncompromising and legally privileged religious doctrines. Others deplored the persecution—and worse—of Jews by all Christians. Certainly the end of the Thirty Years’ War (1618-48) with its peace grounded in allowance for differing faiths under each sovereign was a major force for mutual, though grudging respect. England’s Religious Toleration Act of 1689 carried the work forward, but without setting forth the principle.1 It is doubtful that religious toleration would have been successfully implemented were it not for the serious thought given to its institutionalization. No one gave the problem more careful and sustained attention than the English philosopher John Locke, author of the acclaimed “Letter Concerning Toleration.” Making a firm distinction between the requirements of civil society and personal salvation, Locke urged less hostility to religious doctrine than an awareness of its unsuitability for the foundations of political life. On the other hand, Locke appreciated the moral teaching of the dominant Christian faith which, when distinguished from its
contending theological doctrines, was the necessary condition under the circumstances for the otherwise irreconcilable sects to be reconciled to common citizenship.

As worthy as this solution was (which we will explore in more detail below), it requires an explanation for Americans whose Constitution goes considerably beyond upholding what George Washington once called "mere toleration" to embracing full religious liberty. It must be admitted that both before and after the adoption of the United States Constitution, religious persecution was a problem in this country, although certainly less afterwards than before. Protestant sects from England who fled religious tyranny in the homeland soon established it on the North American continent, weakened only by their increasing multiplicity. State establishments were not struck down by the First Amendment, although they eventually withered away under its powerful influence. And popular opinion could be as oppressive as government in the open or covert persecution of and discrimination against minority faiths, particularly of the continually proliferating Protestant sects and the outnumbered Roman Catholic Church in the 19th century, and the unwelcoming attitude toward Jews of all convictions as well as secularists in the 20th.

With these caveats firmly in mind, it may nevertheless be said that religious freedom is an American achievement, which is intelligible in much the same way as religious toleration is in Europe. That is, neither was accomplished in a moral or political vacuum. The European continent was overwhelmingly Christian. Centuries of powerful state-supported religious establishments undoubtedly doomed the remedy of disestablishment for their genuine tyranny or for the sects' deadly contentiousness; whereas the multiplicity of religious sects and far less powerful state establishments in the United States made religious freedom possible and even necessary. But in both cases citizens actively practiced their various faiths while cherishing their common moral principles as enriching for political life. In World War II, for example, President Franklin Roosevelt openly shared in religious worship with Winston Churchill of Great Britain (when they met on an American battleship in 1940), who characterized the war as a battle to preserve Christian civilization. Roosevelt also offered prayers to the Prince of Peace for the success of Allied arms on D-Day, June 6, 1944.

But in our day European politicians seem determined to obliterate all reference to their Christian heritage, thereby practically throwing out the moral "baby" with the doctrinal "bathwater." And in America many of our politicians seem equally determined to remove religion from what the late Fr. John Neuhaus called "the public square." This paper challenges the presumption that Christianity, and Judaism no less, can be so easily tossed aside without deleterious consequences. It is not necessary for us to rehash old theological controversies but our future as a free nation may well depend on saving the freedom of religious believers, that is, if we are to retain both the liberal constitution and the moral virtues indispensable to its successful functioning.

Because of the largely unquestioned acceptance of the doctrine of moral and religious relativism, many of our leading citizens look upon religion as more of an irritant than a solution to our political problems, assuming that they have a grasp of what those problems actually are. In particular, the moral principles of the so-called "religious right" are considered more of a threat to freedom (or an affront to progressive attitudes) than the openly and violently intolerant doctrines of Islam. Evidently, some see more advantages in an agnostic or hostile stance toward religion in general than in a sober
understanding of the moral content and wholesome practices of any existing religion. In the name of cultural sensitivity, the modern secularist displays a tolerant side to militant Islam but shows contempt for any Americans who still “cling” to their Biblical religion. The price of freedom is seen as not taking religion seriously and chastising those who do. This moves far away from toleration of religious differences to outright disdain for religion.

The Limits on Religious Toleration

Determining what religious practices can be tolerated long ago became an issue for American courts to formulate rules for in cases brought to them and to guide legislatures as they craft bills that serve that end. But before either courts or legislatures can do their work well, particularly as the issue now has come to dominate public discourse, for good or for ill, it is necessary to raise fundamental questions once again and avoid merely formulaic answers. Because of the old chequered history of Christianity in the Western world, there is a marked reluctance to inquire into religion at all. Whether one says that it is a private matter and therefore the government should leave it alone; or that it is a private matter and therefore religious people should keep it to themselves; that is insufficient when dealing with a militant faith such as Islam that proposes Sharia law as the only righteous alternative to the United States Constitution. The issue is not whether this or that practice is legal under American law but whether we can tolerate a religion that rejects that law in toto. Christian churches gave up imposing their doctrines on all citizens once they lost the power to do so and were persuaded that religious establishments did more harm than good. There is far less reason to suppose that Islam’s adherents will be reluctant to impose their doctrines, however.

Now every citizen must confront the very hard question of whether militant Islam must be restricted or even proscribed if everyone’s religious and other liberties are to be safe. This requires us to go beyond official indifference to the content of any religion to the question of whether it is compatible with the public good which, in the United States, means securing, at home and abroad, everyone’s natural rights to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. Islam emphatically denies that such rights exist, both in the public and private realm: Allah’s untrammeled will must be obeyed. That empowers the imams, the only legitimate hearers and interpreters of that will. Christian priests and ministers and Jewish rabbis perform that function for their followers but can never go beyond persuasion, inside or outside of their congregations. But Islam does not separate mosque and state, as Americans separate church and state, and thus theological and political matters in Muslim societies are intertwined, if they are not simply one. Critics of Biblical religion not infrequently deplore its influence over public opinion but they do not have to contend with the equivalent of mullahs in this country.

The situation is worse, far worse, in Europe. Whole communities have been transformed into Muslim enclaves, the growing numbers of which have become politically significant as politicians seek their votes along with everyone else’s. Prominent church leaders, such as the Archbishop of Canterbury, as well as politicians have proposed that Sharia law be permitted in heavily Muslim towns and cities, and that unequal relations between men and women, a painful sticking point for non-Muslims, continue as they have in their home countries, notwithstanding Muslims’ current
residence in European countries. Europe may be a continent of huge and beautiful cathedrals, but they are more of a tourist attraction than a popular place of worship. Many Europeans’ very indifference to religion renders them mute in the face of militant Islam. Those who directly confront the issue which, because of Islam’s puritanical doctrines, includes homosexuals as well as Christians, are typically written off as right-wing extremists or worse, even as violence against these critics is an ever-present threat.

As Abraham Lincoln began his famous “House Divided” speech in 1858, “If we could first know where we are, and whither we are tending, we could then better judge what to do, and how to do it.” For us, it requires going well beyond the five years during which the proponents of slavery had been pushing its expansion to all parts of the United States with the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854 to the time over 300 years ago when religious toleration was first proposed. Insofar as we rightfully regard that policy as a precious heritage worthy of preservation, we must grasp firmly the political understanding that supplied it. As was said above, that understanding was most clearly articulated by John Locke.

“A Letter Concerning Toleration”

Locke is justly famed for his spirited and thoughtful advocacy of religious toleration but he does not ground it in any sort of relativism. On the very first page he makes it clear that the moral virtues that Christianity seeks to foster are indispensable for maintaining that policy. But he was under no illusion about the immense difficulty in actually establishing toleration. Locke did not write in the abstract nor was he oblivious to the intensity of sectarian conflict in England and elsewhere. What may be persuasive to us today from his opening paragraphs was by no means so to his theologically minded countrymen in the 17th century. A more or less permanent state of war existed in European countries, a formidable barrier to civil society’s healthy functioning. It was therefore necessary to make every possible argument in favor and to refute every possible objection against toleration. Indeed, before he settled on popular sovereignty as the remedy, Locke proposed in earlier writings that the king impose toleration through his prerogative. At one and the same time this indicates how intense religious feelings were and how massive the obstacles were to their moderation.

Out of necessity, then, no less than sincere conviction, Locke made the moral truths of Christianity central to the taming of warring sects. He was accused, not surprisingly, of holding no such convictions, given the propensity of each sect to regard its view as the only true one and to reject any impartial view of the matter. But Locke proceeded in the same manner as philosophers in the Socratic tradition who, while questioning authoritative opinions nevertheless shared their fellow citizens’ concern for the common good. A friend of (and perhaps a believer in) Christianity who could point out its faults as well as its strengths, Locke sought to end intra-faith violence but not to destroy the faith. Tellingly, Socrates was put to death for alleged impiety. Certainly Locke had every reason to be cautious in this matter, however boldly he criticized warring Christians for their unchristian attitude. After all, the work was published posthumously.

In his prefatory comments “To the Reader” (21), Locke notes that much has been said in England on the subject of toleration but no people stood in greater need of more being said, and done. Heretofore, he says, arguments have been made on “narrow
principles,” but what is needed is “absolute liberty, just and true liberty, equal and impartial liberty” (21). Yet that liberty is qualified, depending upon whether a denomination or religion respects the rights of others or accepts the authority of the government. (In this edition, Locke’s frequent capitalization and archaic spelling are preserved, but I have not followed that style here.)

Underscoring his determination to make religious toleration orthodox, as it were, he calls it “the chief [characteristic] mark of the true church.” Rather than striving for dominion, the true Christians should practice “charity, meekness, and good-will in general to all mankind, even to those who are not Christians. . .” That is, “the business of true religion is . . . regulating men’s lives according to the rule of virtue and piety,” as well as faith and love (23).

Whereas religious opinions “for the most part are about nice and intricate [doctrinal and theological] matters, that exceed the capacity of ordinary understandings.” the Church should instead concern itself with the “salvation of souls,” and the institution itself freed from the sins of adultery, fornication, uncleanness, lasciviousness, idolatry, and other “works of the flesh” (24) (Locke, for all his famed caution, could be especially blunt at times.) Rather than warring against other sects, each denomination should follow the peaceful example of the Prince of Peace: conversion by “conversation” (25).

Locke deemed it “necessary to distinguish precisely the business of civil government from that of religion.” The one is concerned for men’s souls, the other for the commonwealth. The latter comprehends “life, liberty, health, and Indolency [absence of pain; comfort]; and the possession of outward things, such as money, lands, houses, furniture, and the like” (26). He gives three reasons for this division. First, “Because the care of souls is not committed to the civil magistrate.” Second, “The care of souls cannot belong to the civil magistrate, because his power consists only in outward force . . .” Third, “the rigour of laws and the force of penalties . . . would not help at all to the salvation of [men’s] souls” (27). There is but one truth, but there are many commonwealths.

A church, on the other hand, is “a voluntary society of men, joining themselves together of their own accord, in order to the public worshipping of God, in such manner as they judge acceptable to him, and effectual to the salvation of souls.” To avoid dissolution, it must “be regulated by some laws, and the members all consent to observe some order” (28). Locke denies that it must have a specific hierarchy or succession, as he claims Christ never established either. The existing tension in the country requires men to choose the sort they prefer and is agreeable to the members.

Locke condemns the persecution being inflicted on dissenting sects and reminds Christians that the Lord said only that they would be persecuted but would not (and should not) be persecuting others. The leaders may exhort the members and not force them, but they possess the right of excommunication. They do not have a right to dispossess their members of any “civil enjoyments,” as a government may through its authority over crimes (31).

The enforcement of toleration requires that “the civil government can give no new right to the church, nor the church to the civil government” (31). Locke makes the obvious point that no Christian denomination could count upon the preferment of a Turkish Sultan, but also the less obvious point that every church is orthodox unto itself. He specifically enjoins each Church leader “to admonish his hearers of the duties of
peace, and good-will towards all men” and “charity, meekness, and toleration” (34). Each man should be free to worship God as he pleases and to manage his own private affairs. He goes further: If a man neglects his own business, or his faith, it is no one else’s business to correct him.

Princes may be superior to other men in power, but they are “in nature equal” (36). Knowledge of ruling does not bring knowledge of other things, either of secular or religious livelihoods. Churches, Locke notes, are tempted to flatter rulers, as English history shows, but the world’s many rulers have been of greatly differing minds regarding religion. Moreover, men cannot be saved by religions that they distrust, even if state sanctioned. Certainly, the way to heaven is not better known to the magistrate than to other men. He has no power to enforce rites or ceremonies, for only “the public good is the rule and measure of all law-making” (39). Locke is not overstat ing the case.

Locke says flatly that no magistrate can compel a Jew either to believe in Christ or to make what he calls “indifferent matters” a part of worship. Rulers that have the power to impose specific rites and ceremonies also have the power to forbid them. Churches, for their part, cannot practice anything which is otherwise properly forbidden by the laws. He warns that a magistrate who has the power to suppress an idolatrous church also has the power to suppress an orthodox one. Locke archly observes that churches which practice peace and friendship when they are in a position of weakness suddenly assume a tyrannical aspect when they become dominant.

Men’s sins may be denounced by churches but, unless they are injurious to their neighbors, Locke argues, they are not punishable by the civil law. If ancient Israel, a genuine theocracy, punished idolatry only when practiced by its citizens but not by strangers, orthodoxy cannot be legally binding on Christians, for their existing commonwealths are not founded on that basis. He reminds his readers that Jesus instituted no commonwealths but only taught men by faith and good works. Even Israel forced no one outside its authority to adopt its religion.

To those who believe that religion depends on legal enforcement, Locke argues that articles of religion ultimately depend upon faith for their power. Thus, men cannot be compelled to believe what they do not, in fact, believe. Again, the commonwealth exists to protect men in their lives and properties, not their religious opinions. Moral actions, on the other hand, are under the jurisdiction of both civil and ecclesiastical authorities—the one to punish, the other merely to admonish.

Locke next moves beyond outward worship to consider articles of faith, some of which are “practical” and some of which are “speculative.” The latter are required only to be believed and are not in men’s power to perform. They are all part of theology. They ought not to be forbidden because they do not bear upon men’s civil rights. For “the business of laws is not to provide for the truth of [religious] opinions, but [only] for the safety and security of the commonwealth, and of every man’s goods and person” (46). As to practical opinions, these concern both religion and the commonwealth. Hence, moral actions are under the jurisdiction of both magistrate and conscience. Locke holds that “every man has an immortal soul,” seeking eternal happiness by believing and doing things in this life that lead to that end. But the care of each man lies entirely unto himself. Meanwhile, preserving life depends upon “pains and industry” and men entering “into society with one another” (47). Security for their lives and properties, at
home and abroad, is the responsibility of the civil magistrate. “For obedience is due in the first place to God, and afterwards to the laws” (48)

Which is the prelude to a question: “But some may ask, What if the magistrate should enjoin anything by his authority that appears unlawful to the conscience of a private citizen” (48)? He answers that all laws must be obeyed as a general rule, but if they exceed the commonwealth’s authority (specifically, in matters of religion); men are not obliged to violate their consciences. It does not matter if the magistrate believes such a law is for the public good. However, Locke qualifies this. “First, no opinions contrary to human society, or to those moral rules which are necessary to the preservation of civil society, are to be tolerated by the magistrate” (49). That is, laws which confer privileges on some religious sects but not on others, in effect, empower them to determine who rules. Neither can rulers tolerate denominations that serve and are protected by another prince. This undoubtedly refers implicitly to the Roman Catholic papacy and explicitly in this passage to Muslims who are “bound to yield blind obedience to the Mufti of Constantinople; who himself is in entire obedience to the Ottoman Emperor, and frames the feigned oracles of the religion according to his pleasure” (50). In redirecting the reference here, Locke blunts the force of this point, but not its truth.

Atheism, on the other hand, Locke avers, renders all promises, covenants and oaths useless, which are the bond of society, so it cannot be tolerated in those cases. However, any opinion may be tolerated as long as it does not tend to establish dominion by some church over others. Hence, no assemblies need be feared, as many believe, once all of them acknowledge “toleration as the foundation of their own liberty; and teach that liberty of conscience is every man’s right, equally belonging to dissenters as to themselves; and that no body ought to be compelled in matters of religion, either by law or force” (51) Hence, the meetings of religious bodies are no more dangerous than those held in markets or courts. Ferments and rebellions will not occur among sects when they are tolerated but only when they are oppressed. Once the various faiths are freed from oppression, they will watch over one another in their common commitment to a non-oppressive government.

Locke is confident that as long as every man enjoys the same rights, all will be safe. “Whatsoever things are left free by law in the common occasions of life let them remain free unto every church in divine worship” (53). Any seditious activity can be dealt with there as it is in the market or the theater. “But those whose doctrine is peaceable, and whose manners are pure and blameless, ought to be on equal terms with their fellow-subjects.” Besides the various Christian sects, “neither pagan, nor Mahumetan (sic), nor Jew, ought to be excluded from the civil rights of the commonwealth, because of his religion.” Locke denies that Christians are inclined to be destructive to public peace, and even calls their religion “the most modest and peaceable religion that ever was” (54). It is not the diversity of opinions but rather the desire of dominion which threatens peace. Everything depends on church and state keeping within their bounds. Peace-loving Christians (with emphasis upon both) are indispensable.

Lessons for Today

While John Locke’s main object was to end dominion by and of Christian denominations, those being the prevailing religious bodies, many people today seem
determined to go far beyond that goal and reduce their role in public life to zero. Although past political leaders openly professed their faith or at least paid lip service to it, some of their present-day successors implicitly (and sometimes explicitly) advocate marginalizing religion to the most private realms. But, unlike Locke, they fail to acknowledge that the churches have been the leading teachers of the moral virtues requisite for the safety and order of the modern republic, including particularly religious toleration. Christianity played a massive role in shaping the character and identity of the Western world and in fact is an undeniable source, equally with the Enlightenment, of the citizens’ willingness to take up the duties, no less (perhaps more) than to exercise the rights, of the polity. In 1789, when the Constitution was adopted, only a minority (and no less is it the case today), declined to credit what Lincoln called “our ancient faith” for any of the advantages of the modern republic. More generally, it remains as true today as it was in Locke’s time that only a minority of people are actually hostile to the Christian faith. There is no evidence that this hostile minority has given thought to the consequences of banishing religion from the public square. But Locke certainly did, for he extolled the virtues of Christianity and warned against the limitations of atheism.

This wisdom has not been lost on this country’s leaders. Carrying forward a tradition of honoring faith going back to George Washington, American Presidents since Dwight Eisenhower have held prayer breakfasts to express their common faith. On a less exalted level, Protestant, Catholic and Jewish clergy shared in ministerial duties at graduation and baccalaureate services in our schools and colleges. Most recently, British Prime Minister David Cameron revived the prayer breakfasts last held by Margaret Thatcher, openly declaring that Christianity makes politicians “good.”

On the other hand, the long love affair of “mainline” Protestant churches with Palestinians and hostility to Israel has aroused the suspicion of the Jewish monthly Commentary that anti-Semitism will return, harking back to the days of Jewish exclusion by White Anglo-Saxon Protestants or WASPs.

Meanwhile, the “enlightened” class of citizens seems to be completely ineffectual in dealing with the challenge of radical Islam. Locke had no difficulty tolerating Muslims who comply with the civil law, but modern secularists have considerable difficulty distinguishing between moderate and radical Muslims on this basis, thereby in effect giving license to the most violent among them. That certainly serves the purposes of the Islamists but not the good of the republic. Had the United States not been attacked by Muslims operating under the radar of our laws, police and other law-enforcement personnel would not have seen the need to monitor meetings of Muslims for any evidence of criminal activity. But 9/11, as all refer to it, changed everything. If Muslim nations, separately or as a whole, had effectively cracked down on violent extremists among them, there would be less reason for suspicion. The fact is, all but a tiny fraction of the terrorist activity in the world today is perpetrated by Islamists. It is no part of genuine religious toleration to tolerate sects who will not tolerate other religions besides their own, or who by their violent or deceptive behavior demonstrate that they do not accept the authority of civil law.

And as we have been shown by Muslim witnesses such as Ayaan Hirsi Ali, the violent and abusive treatment of Muslim women by Muslim men is not merely a custom that the modern nation can easily assimilate like unleavened bread or fortune cookies. Equal liberty is the foundation of modern republics, which rules out any sort of master-
slave relationship, including genital mutilation, forced early marriage, rape, “honor killings,” and lack of legal standing. Nothing better illustrates the bankruptcy of modern liberal thought than its refusal to take fundamental criticism of Islam seriously on the specious ground that its doctrinally based injustices are outside official notice.

Failure to deal with the realities of Islam is a modern failure of religious tolerance, for the only practical and theoretical basis for that long-cherished public policy is that each religion must respect the right of every other to worship God and, no less, of others not to worship God. We are the inheritors of a remarkable religious tradition which, while not exercising public authority, teaches the moral virtues that alone make religious tolerance possible. We can learn from Locke the valuable lesson that the best way to generate and maintain civility is to take advantage of and to appreciate existing peaceable religions rather than, like insane Jacobins, attempt to establish some sort of “religion of reason” which is neither civil nor peaceable.

Endnotes
Retrofitting Instructional Strategies in the Math Classroom: Technology Becomes the “New Classroom Tradition”

Sydne Endorf
Judith Ruskamp
Peru State College
The classroom teacher of the twenty-first century is a classroom teacher challenged with a variety of new literacies that constitute an important understanding of new ways for a student to learn. In consideration of those new ways of learning and the effective instructional strategies that will result in student learning, it is important to note that no single instructional strategy is guaranteed to result in high levels of student learning (DuFour, Marzano, 2011). The old adage of “we’ve always done it this way,” or a solid base for a research-based best practice regarding a particular teaching strategy could concomitantly be deemed ineffective as a result of its inability to successfully impact student learning. According to Marzano (2009), educators must always look to whether a particular strategy is producing the desired results as opposed to simply assuming that if a strategy is being the most important criterion in assessing the success of a lesson is whether or not students have learned (DuFour, Marzano, 2011).

Retrofitting traditional classroom instruction to include the effective use of technological resources and media to enhance learning is paramount to the success of today’s classroom. The twenty-first century student is the first generation to be immersed in information and communication technologies (ICT) for their entire lives, and this requires the creation of new literacies and new ways of learning. There are three tenets related to the judicious use of technological resources and tools:

1. **Encourage critical reading and thinking.**
   When students use technological resources to answer questions or conduct research, they have access to a wide variety of sources of information, rather than merely a single textbook. This multitude of choices requires them to think critically about their sources, and to evaluate their validity. Teachers need to model this type of thinking for students, showing them how to select information and consider the appropriateness of the information provided by the source.

2. **Promote high-level thinking.**
   Because of the wide variety of information available through the use of technology, and the many ways that information can be used and manipulated, teachers can engage students’ thinking in many more ways than in traditional classroom teaching. Among other things, students can conduct research using a myriad of different types of resources, participate in dialogue with people from all over the world, summarize the information they have found, produce their own texts and visual media, and analyze information and apply it to real-life situations.

3. **Channel and scaffold.**
   Navigating the huge array of resources available can be daunting and even counterproductive. Teachers must channel their students in the direction they need to go as they learn from technological media. Choosing appropriate websites and creating webquests help to narrow the choices available on a particular topic. Scaffolding is also necessary, as teachers support their students with graphic organizers,
note-taking guides, questions, models, and cooperative learning (Building Teaching Skills and Dispositions, My Education Lab, 2011).

Concomitantly, teachers who implement and utilize technological tools and resources in their classrooms as part of their instructional planning, support the development of learners who are discriminatory thinkers and independent learners. According the Richardson (2013), “For the learner, these are exciting times” (p. 10). Today’s classroom teacher needs to match that excitement with the facilitation of learning opportunities that can engage, channel, and nurture that excitement in a meaningful way. In the 21st Century, these “learning opportunities” must include the innovative use of new technologies. Most teachers use multiple strategies when it comes to using technology in their classroom, whether they realize it or not. For example, a math classroom is no exception. All math teachers use calculators every day for instructional purposes, along with other traditional forms of technology. However, according to Magana and Marzano, (2014), technology use in the classroom will become a “Knowledge Revolution,” which will completely transform the structure of our schools (p. 5).

Many teachers in their classrooms and administrators in their schools, for that matter, have a myriad of opportunities to develop their delivery of content with the integration of technology into every lesson. According to Magana and Marzano (2014), “Edison predicted, ‘Books . . . will soon be obsolete in the school. . . .' While Edison’s prediction has not, as of yet, come true, the availability of educational technology continues to increase” (p. 3). Edison believed that all schools will retrofit the classroom to use only technology. Currently, no one school has been identified as having completely retrofitted its classrooms to accommodate the utilization of technology as the sole delivery of classroom content. Nonetheless, the capability exists for just such a learning environment. In Nebraska, for example, 53% of the 249 public school districts are one-to-one, according to the 2014 Nebraska Department of Education Technology Report. All students in these school districts are able to use the same iPad, Mac computer, or laptop for the entire year. That means that out of those 249, there are 134 public school districts that are one-to-one. In addition to the 134 districts that are one-to-one, there are 32, or 13% that are “bring your own device” in the state Nebraska.

Current research on the use of technology tools in the classroom has shown that there are multiple ways of retrofitting classrooms to successfully and effectively deliver classroom content and multiple tools to get you there. According to Pitler, Hubbell, and Kuhn (2012), there are nine different categories of technology that are used in the classroom in general. Word processing applications are not so “cutting edge” relative to technology use in the classroom today. Microsoft Word and Office, for example, are fairly commonplace in the classroom. Other tools, however, are not so common and include various learning management systems, organizing and brainstorming software, data collection and analysis tools, communication and collaboration software, and instructional media. All of these technology tools allow for organized thinking, connecting and categorizing ideas, and showing processes, as well as collection and analysis of data, and various tools used for communication for both the teacher and the student.
Teachers have become increasingly cognizant of the importance of implementation and utilization of strategies aimed at helping students “master” classroom content. One of the strategies is called flipped learning, where students access instructional videos and other resources at home and then come to class to practice what they have learned. Bergmann (2013) says, “Flipped learning is not about how to use videos in your lessons. It’s about how to best use your in-class time with students” (p. 16). Many teachers may automatically think about a video camera for preparing the lesson; however, flipped classroom videos of the teacher talking and showing examples of the instruction can easily be recorded with the use of a computer equipped with a camera without even showing the teacher’s face. If teachers give the students a fifteen-minute video to watch at home, then the teacher can spend most of the face-to-face time answering questions on the material. Many effective technology applications can be used when doing a flipped classroom.

Blended learning, or hybrid learning, is another strategy that uses technology to help teach the students new material. According to Magana & Marzano (2014), blended learning is defined as instruction that combines online and face-to-face elements. Blended learning helps give the teacher and students more time to discuss the material and to answer questions, rather than spending most of the time lecturing. Blended learning can also be described as using interactive instruction. According to Pitler, Hubbell, and Kuhn (2012), “Well-made software programs allow teachers to choose which learning objectives students need to practice, offer sophisticated and seamless multimedia to keep the learner engaged, and provide immediate feedback and scaffolding in order to help students understand and practice a concept” (p. 174). Blended learning and interactive instruction are based on the same needs for the students and are powerful strategies in teaching that use technology as a supplement resource.

The math classroom is poised for the impactful implementation and utilization of technology as a mode of content delivery. For example, there are many iPad applications that can be used to retrofit math classrooms with the new technology. Show Me is just one of the many applications that can be used for flipped classrooms or blended learning. Other applications that can be used to help better basic math skills or note taking skills including “Rocket Math”, “Syncpad”, “DoodleToo”, “Notes”, “Evernote”, “AudioNote”, “Infinote”, and “PaperDesk.” Rocket Math is a free application that works with basic math skills, telling time, handling money, and identifying three-dimensional shapes (Pitler, Hubbell, Kuhn, 2012). Syncpad, DoodleToo, Evernote, AudioNote, Infinote, and PaperDesk are all applications that are used for note taking skills. Syncpad and DoodleToo are applications that “allow multiple students to collaborate by drawing, writing, and chatting” (Pitler, Hubbell, Kuhn, 2012, p. 82). Evernote, AudioNote, Infinote, and PaperDesk are each different applications that help students on their note-taking skills. Each of these applications uses different organization techniques to help the students take better notes.

Facilitation of a one-to-one initiative focused on device accessibility that allows for the implementation of so many powerful instructional tools and resources does not come without it challenges. Professional development related to training teachers to implement and utilize these technology tools and resources has to be an academic leader’s priority in any school setting when it comes to retrofitting the classrooms with
new technology. “Technology comes too fast, and a teacher isn’t knowledgeable about it. They aren’t really taught how to use them. There are time issues and it can be a distraction” (9-12 Math Teacher, personal communication, October 2014). This statement is exactly why teachers need multiple opportunities to get professional development in technology. According to Borko, Whitcomb, and Liston (2009), “Recent advances in digital technologies are having a strong impact on teacher education and professional development” (p. 5). The strong impact on teacher education and professional development makes an impact on how the students learn. If the teachers' knowledge of technology is not being expanded and supported by professional development, then how can teachers integrate technology into the classroom? Borko, Whitcomb, and Liston (2009) gave three of the most common professional development forms. The three main forms are “(a) video and digitized artifacts as a tool to provide a shared classroom experience in teacher education and professional development, (b) online social networks for educators, and (c) online professional development programs” (p. 5). Other forms of professional development include conferences from the following organizations: Nebraska Technology Association, National Social Sciences Association, and Nebraska Department of Education, and many others.

At the outset of this research project, the assumption was that classrooms, math classrooms specifically, don’t utilize technology in the classroom as much as other subject areas do. The literature review, which focused on educational leadership in the area of technology as an instructional tool to enhance classroom instruction, suggested that there are many technology tools that can be used specifically in a math classroom. In an attempt to either confirm or disprove what the literature had conjectured, research data was collected utilizing a survey disseminated via SurveyMonkey.com, and interviews conducted with four math teachers and a specialist at the Nebraska Department of Education on the topic of implementation of technology tools as a vehicle for successful delivery and mastery of math content. Following the completion of the survey and interviews, an analysis of the data brought the research to its conclusion.

The survey, disseminated to math teachers across the state of Nebraska, included nine questions related to three specific areas of discussion: what technology is used, how it is used, and the level of professional development that is committed to retrofitting the classrooms with the new technology. All of the classroom teachers were 7-12 math teachers, with a few of them teaching programming. All respondents noted that they use technology in the classroom. Calculators were the most presented form of technology with SmartBoards, computers, iPads, and supplemental websites also being utilized. About 50% of the respondents said that technology is often used as a management tool. However, 22.22% and 27.78% of the respondents said that they never or sometimes used technology as a management tool. The main reason for using technology in the classroom is for homework and assignments and for formative assessment purposes. One math teacher stated that “Technology does not manage the classroom, the teacher does. The technology is only for reporting issues” (7-12 Math Teacher, Personal Communication, December 2014). That statement not only says that technology is used as a tool for educational purposes, but also for communication. When the respondents were asked about how often technology is used as an instructional tool in their classrooms, 61.11% said often, with 16.67% and 22.22% saying sometimes and always. Technology has become one of the most utilized
instructional tools. The level of professional development in the schools varies greatly. Thirty-eight percent of the schools rarely provide professional development seminars, while 72% of schools hold seminars one to three times per semester. With how fast technology is evolving, the concern is that one to three times per semester might not even be enough professional development to prepare classroom teachers to effectively respond to the need for effective and meaningful implementation of technology in the classroom.

Four teachers from various sizes of schools and a Nebraska Department of Education math specialist consented to an interview. The interviews for the four teachers consisted of eleven questions. Questions were related to what technology is currently being used in the classroom, how it is being used, and how much professional development related to the implementation of technology in the classroom is provided. All teachers said they use technology in some manner. The type of technology consists of calculators, SmartBoards, laptops, projectors, and ELMO’s. The use of technology in their classrooms focused specifically on connection to enhancing classroom instruction; technology for classroom management and record-keeping was secondary. The professional development questions were based mainly on how often seminars are held to help inform the teachers of new technology that can be utilized in the classrooms. “Technology comes too fast, and a teacher isn’t knowledgeable about it. They aren’t really taught how to use it” (7-12 Math Teacher, personal communication, October 2014). One of the interviewees said, “There are weekly meetings that last an hour. Those meetings are mainly used for professional development to give us ideas of different technology supplements that we can use” (7-12 Math Teacher, personal communication, October 2014). Even though this specific school has weekly meetings, one hour each week still might not be enough. “The level of commitment to support of professional development for technology use in the classroom is good, but could always be better. It’s difficult to make time and almost has to be forced” (9-12 Math Teacher, Personal Communication, October 2014). A math specialist at the Nebraska Department of Education was asked about what their role is when implementing technology into the math classrooms. “No one directly helps implement technology into the classrooms, but there is a lot of support for using technology” (Informed Expert in Education in Nebraska, Personal Communication, October 2014). The Nebraska Department of Education tries to inform teachers of the new technology updates by holding workshops. There is support for the teachers; however, it’s hard to find the time to give proper professional development to the teachers.

In conclusion, Magana and Marzano (2014) said it perfectly: “Educational technology and effective instructional strategies when used together result in greater student achievement than when either is used alone. Technology tools have the power to enhance instructional strategies, therefore increasing students’ engagement, participation, and learning” (p. 149). If given the proper technology tools and instruction, the teachers can increase the knowledge and involvement of their students. The 21st Century classrooms can’t be a classroom without technology use. While retrofitting the math classroom with the new technology is somewhat at odds with the what might have been previously perceived as the traditional method of delivery of math content, the research supports the conclusion that math teachers are cognizant of the fact that teaching with technology is the new classroom tradition. They are moving forward with
planning and preparation for classroom instruction that is supported with the use of technology. Not lost in the research is the fact that in order to experiment with new technologies, classroom teachers need to be supported by their academic leadership related to provision for directed, timely, purposeful, and practical professional development related to the implementation of technology in the classroom. According to a 7-12 Math teacher, “I have tried different technology, but there are just some things that you can’t learn with technology. It would be totally cool, and I would learn how to use it, but I think it would just become a fad” (Personal Communication, October 2014). It is a fact that while there are many different types of technology tools schools do invest in, simply because they become very popular very fast, these same technology tools end up “collecting dust” for various reasons. Even though some technology becomes just a fad, especially in math classrooms, teachers clearly want to learn how to use different technology supplements to positively impact student achievement. “Taking time to save time” is an important mantra when it comes to technology use in the classroom. Learning how to properly use new technology out the outset of its implementation helps the teachers spend less time learning during class, and gives more time teaching for impact. Pitler, Hubbell, and Kuhn (2012) said, “It is important to first design a quality lesson plan and then select the most appropriate technologies to support that lesson” (p. 221). Implementing and utilizing technology that fits best with the lesson, as well as being one that teachers are knowledgeable of and competent in utilizing in the classroom, is the best strategy for retrofitting the math classrooms, and any other content area classroom for that matter, with technology.

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The Stigma of Stupid: 
A Quantitative Analysis of College Students’ Use of Disability-Related Language

Nicole Sims
California State University – Chico
I. Introduction  

*Nature of stigma and here is where I come to talk about disability*

I was born with Cerebral Palsy, a disability that in my case affects the mobility and control of my right side. Because of this, I have been stigmatized in everyday life because it is a difference that I believe people notice and find discreditable. I have always seen myself in between disabled and non-disabled and as Erving Goffman would say, I can often “pass” as able-bodied. I have consciously and subconsciously passed in public many times in order to easily participate in social contexts without reference to my disability. Indeed, it was pointed out to me recently that the tattoo on my right ankle is a form of covering because it distracts attention from my surgical scars. In getting the tattoo, my intention was to highlight my ankle, but it is also conveniently used to “cover” as able-bodied (Goffman, 1963, p. 102). Another way I pass is using lifts on the bottom of my right shoe; the cobbler does a great job of adapting my shoes in a way that makes them look streamlined and uniform so that I can wear cute shoes and people rarely notice that my right shoe is taller than my left. Both my tattoo and my custom shoes help divert attention from a potentially stigmatizing disability; it is my way of “identity management”.

In other words, I learned how to adapt to a world that was not made for me, as does everyone who has a “disability” relative to the people who all presumably have a “normal ability”. This realization stimulated my interest in the sociological concept of “disability”, which I incorporated into written assignments for courses as well as extracurricular activities. My professors were very open to me exploring an often foreign topic to them, that of disability. Working at the California State University, Chico Accessibility Resource Center, which provides accommodations to disabled students on campus like myself has given me an extensive practical understanding of how disability works in our culture. My academic and work experience led me to a place where professors in different fields on campus would ask me to speak to their classes about my experiences, research on disability, and academic plans to advocate for disabled people. Needless to say, shaping my topic of interest developed over a long period of time. Part of this development was a growing interest in language use.

Specifically, I introduced myself to language in the context of disability when in an English course, I did a project about ableism, which I understand as a common form of prejudice and/or discrimination towards physically and/or cognitively disabled people. A large part of this project was about ableist language, which is language that “intentionally or inadvertently targets an individual with a disability” (Parker Marie Malloy, 2013). I furthered my research in another English course about semantics, by exploring the way people understand ableist language in their everyday lives. From these experiences, I developed an approach to the language used to describe disability. I am fascinated by how disability-related language (DRL) or common words that have a historical connection to the experiences of disabled people and that shape our cultural understanding of disability and disabled people today. Language in context of disability has changed and evolved overtime and that affects the way society understands disability as well as how non-disabled people (NDP) interact with disabled people as a result of the way language impacts ideas of disability.

These ideas fit well with the Edward Sapir and Ben Lee Whorf (Sapir-Whorf) hypothesis, further examined by Roger Brown and Eric Lenneberg that explores the
way language influences thought in terms negative and positive connotations of
disability-related language in our culture. The sociologist, Erving Goffman is also a
resource to evaluate DRL.

Erving Goffman examined how language shapes stigma in our society and offers a
creative understanding of how our culture creates and sustains stigma, he explored the
ways social identities become social norms that individuals expect to encounter. Through his understandings of the self and stigma, he described the stigmatized,
including the non-disabled and disabled people in everyday interactions and what that
meant in terms of stereotypes---- he wrote, “we use specific stigma terms such a
cripple, bastard, [and] moron in our daily discourse as a source of metaphor and
imagery, typically without giving thought to the original meaning” (Goffman, 1963, pg. 3).
This details Goffman’s belief that language and discourse is connected to stigma in a
significant way.

Goffman pointed out that stigma is situational and changed with every new context
individuals entered. He explained how both the “normals” and “stigmatized individuals”
try to avoid anxiety filled social interactions with one and another, but if an interaction
must occur, it is common for “normals” to avoid the “stigmatized individual’s” disability
altogether (Goffman, 1963, p. 8:18). Goffman would have agreed with his fellow
theorists, Berger and Luckmann who believed stigma was not only situational, but
“socially constructed”, meaning reality is constructed socially by people and nothing
exists outside of that truth. Social construction means people create valid meaning only
through interacting with others (Berger & Luckmann, 1966/1991). This leads to the
understanding that however “normals” (NDP) understand their interaction is how our
culture will reproduce that understanding. So, if there is anxiety and discomfort around
social interaction, stigma is what manifests itself in the way “normals” understand
interactions with “stigmatized individuals”.

Goffman also understood stigma as the social categorization of an individual that
prompts an understanding of a disabled person in “our minds from a whole and usual
person to a tainted, discounted one” (Goffman, 1963, p. 2). Because Goffman studied
“deviant behavior”, he did refer to disabled individuals in his work, but he did not delve
too much into disability-related language specifically. For my research purposes, I am
interested in how stigma manifests through language. In order to study this topic, in
spring 2014, I conducted a survey to help me further understand this connection.

To ensure I was prepared to analyze the data I collected last spring, I reviewed the
relevant literature to determine where my research could fit into previous
understandings of stigma, disability, and language. I was interested to see how my
understanding of these topics from lived experiences could converse with the various
theories and ideas from different eras and especially different fields such as sociology,
biology, and linguistics as well as activism from the disability rights movement.

II. Literature Review

Erving Goffman, a well-known sociologist as an example of how stigma was
explored historically as a social force. Goffman provided the best context for my
research in terms of the implications of stigma and the perspective of the user of stigma
based on his research on the self. Oddly enough, Stephen J Gould, a paleontologist
provided an important context for my understanding of stigma in the modern
bureaucratic world because he studied how society created categories that reified
themselves as social categories. Gould provided my research with a unique perspective for how stigmatized language relates to the concept of intelligence. To explore how language impacts the disability rights movement, I referenced James I. Charlton, a disability rights activist and academic. Charlton was the closest literature I found to the research I worked on for this project, perhaps because he understood the topic in a modern context, as I do. To supplement the linguistic elements of my research I also explored the study of sociolinguistics and the principle of Sapir-Whorf to clarify specifically how language can be explored as an indicator of stigma.

a. Stigma as a social force (Goffman)

Erving Goffman looked at the topic of disability indirectly in his research of stigma. His analysis of stigma examined minorities including the disability minority, in which he defined stigma as "an attribute that is deeply discrediting"(Goffman, 1963, p. 2). With Goffman’s definition, it is quite obvious that disability is seen as a negative attribute that must be dealt with in order to participate in everyday life. The analysis of Goffman in terms the "abomination of the body" and the "blemishes of character" as those categories represent both cognitive and physical disabilities that will stimulate an analysis of DRL as it pertains to my research.

Goffman’s analysis of stigma delves deep into the dynamics of interactions between “normals” and “stigmatized individuals”, where he wrote of the position of each participant, what occurred during the connection, and what came out of said interaction. This process is crucial to examining DRL because language is used in expressing the experience of the interaction. However, for the purpose of this project, “normals” will be understood as non-disabled people (NDP) and “stigmatized individuals” as disabled people or person (DP). Gary Alan Fine and Philip Manning, two distinguished professors of sociology, described Goffman’s understanding of linguistics in the context of stigma as “the activity of speaking [being] social and [needing to] be understood as an element of the situation and not as simply a linguistic construction...Talk cannot be understood merely as the linguistic component of social interaction and analyzed discretely; instead, it must be understood as an inseparable aspect of concerted and coordinated social action" (Fine & Manning, 2003, p. 54-55). Understanding Fine and Manning’s observation of Goffman’s work is necessary in seeing the importance my research puts on DRL’s relationship with social interaction. This can obviously come in a variety of ways, but a vital one is the way context changes the weight, meaning, and value of language.

Following Goffman’s logic, it seems that when a non-disabled person interacts with a disabled person it is common for the NDP to categorize as an attempt to ease their social discomfort around interacting with a DP (19). A place where some of this discomfort may come from is the NDP realizing their commonly used disability-related words potentially means something different in an interaction with a DP.

As F. Davis, a former professor of sociology at University of California, San Diego put it, “common everyday words [are] suddenly made taboo” (Goffman, 1963, p. 19). It is clear here that such context shapes our language choices. NDP enter into this type of social interaction and suddenly their comfortable and normalized vernacular becomes uncomfortable as they see words like “stupid” or “crazy” revealed in a human being as opposed to an abstract. Although categorizing is beneficial for the NDP to make a general connection to the DP, they also see the category of “other”, “separate', or
“different” as less whole than themselves who does not possess the stigma title (Goffman, 1963, p. 2). This disconnect impacts the manifestation of stigma because from Goffman’s perspective, the DP is not sure what will come from the interaction-rejection or acceptance. This may impact the way the DP publicly perform themselves, but it can also affect the way in which the DP is seen in a positive light as well (Goffman, 1963, p. 9).

In this way, Goffman’s work can be used to discuss ways in which DP are dehumanized by NDP even with the best of intentions. As he writes, “minor accomplishment...may be assessed as signs of remarkable and noteworthy capacities in the circumstances” (Goffman, 1963, p. 10). This is a form of stigma as the DP is again singled out and labeled as different, even when they exceed the expectations of NDP. These ordinary deeds expected of every other person suddenly possess miraculous properties when a DP is involved. For a DP “walking nonchalantly down the street, locating the peas on his plate, [or] lighting a cigarette- are no longer ordinary” meaning that because NDP do not assume that disabled person can perform the same tasks as them, the realization that DP often times live very similar lives to non-disabled person can be seen as novel (Goffman, 1963, p. 10). What is important here is that interactions shape our understanding and understanding ultimately develops into language. Regardless of whether the interaction is received positively or negatively, language develops to discuss it. This is where Goffman brought in his account where he interpreted the term cripple, in which the individual asserted, “cripples is an awful word. It specifies! It sets apart! It is too intimate! It is condescending!” (Goffman, 1963, p. 115). The term cripple is the result of a long social history that has evolved over its lifetime, much like our presentation of Goffman’s self.

In such a context, Goffman also developed the dramaturgical concept of self-presentation (Goffman, 1959). This concept describes social life as being a combination of front and back stage performances in everyday life. He believed there was both a front stage, that of public presentation as well as back stage, which reveals itself more often in the private sphere. In both contexts, our self is constantly being developed and revised and it is the job of the “audience” to determine if our performance is sincere or cynical. Part of an individual’s performance is negotiating the definition of the situation in order to get a particular behavior from the audience. The concept of self is relevant to stigmatizing language because the implication is that NDP will alter their presentation of self based on the audience they encounter. To help contextualize this idea, a NDP may avoid particular terms such as “cripple” when in conversation with DP who could fit that societal label, in order to receive receptive behavior from the DP. The NDP wants to present an open and welcoming performance that would not be advanced by culturally sticky or taboo words such as “cripple”.

b. Ways we categorize and stigmatize based on the way we perceive intelligence (Gould)

Stephen J Gould, like Goffman explored the ways we understand the nature of intelligence and by implication, how it can be used as stigma. Gould studied the consequences of using measurements of intelligence, the social consequences of levels of intelligence, and in particular, its effect on social stratification by race. Gould argued against the belief “that intelligence can be meaningfully abstracted as a single number capable of ranking all people on a linear scale of intrinsic and unalterable mental worth”
Essentially, he critiqued the assumption that there was such a thing as intelligence that sits in our heads and can be arranged linearly in society in terms of value. He understood such ranking systems as always favoring the group that write the test, who by definition are “dominant”. Gould’s understanding can be applied to disability-related language because those who created the language were not the individuals who had to feel the weight of the various connotations, thus implying NDP are dominant in the context of disability (Gould, 1996, p. 21).

Gould’s perspective of intelligence provides an important context because the absence of intelligence negatively impacts DP in terms of experiencing increased stigma. As Goffman pointed out, the social construct of stigma lends itself to the assumption that stigma is constructed through language. Meaning, since the perception of intelligence is stigmatized, it also provides meaning through social interaction. It is necessary to recognize the relationship between intelligence and stigma in the way stigmatized intelligence manifests through language as it relates to the societal perception of DP.

What is dangerous about language and intelligence is when they become a mechanism for social control of DP. Gould referred to Socrates’s belief that “a stable society demands that...ranks be honored and that citizens accept the status conferred upon them” (Gould, 1996, p. 51). This would seem to indicate that such ranking has long been important and “honored”. Socrates believed in ranking the honorable and it is easy to see that the dangers of dominant language Gould referred to with this quote are some of the reasons behind why understanding language’s impact on stigma and disability are vital if our society wants to allow fluidity in social mobility. This is particularly consequential for the disabled population who are often seen as being less “honorable” or of a lower “ranking”. When society assigns value to these tests they reinforce the social hierarchy and ranking system. Because the dominant class in society writes these intelligence tests, they are in effect language tests, which reach people on the basis of a privileged type of language use.

By way of explanation, language is the structure by which concepts of intelligence and stigma spread through our culture. Gould implicitly confirmed that spoken stigma is represented by perceived intelligence in his discussion of scientific bias when he explained, “fraud is not historically interesting except as [verbal] gossip” (Gould, 1996, p. 59). This means that a topic has to be interesting enough for society to deem it worthy of remembrance. A demonizing quality such as fraud or disability is memorable because it deviates from the norm. Gould concluded his discussion by saying, “human uniqueness lies in the flexibility of what our brains can do. What is intelligence, if not the ability to face problems in an unprogrammed (or, as we often say, creative) manner?” (Gould, 1996, p. 361) Disability defines human uniqueness as explained by Gould as disability could not possibly be programmed. This view of intelligence is in stark contrast to the type of intelligence perpetuated by intelligence tests because uniqueness can not be ranked. He presented the concept of perceived intelligence and its consequences in a way that challenged reader’s preconceived notions in The Mismeasure of Man. The continued backlash to all forms of stigma reveal itself today in the disability rights movement and ways disabled people reclaim their personal agency.

c. Language impacts the disabled rights movement (James I. Charlton)
“Language is always a reflection of attitude”. This is a quote from Michael Masutha, a Lawyer for Human Rights in Johannesburg, South Africa. This principle underpins my understanding of stigma through disability-related language because it showcases that other people working for the disability rights movement understand the relationship between language and disability.

James I. Charlton, a disability rights activist and academic reiterated Masutha’s point when he stated, “Language informs attitudes and beliefs because it is a medium of translation of expression and thought, when a word or an idea is expressed, an image is generated” (Charlton, 1998, p. 65-66). This is powerful because it profiles the process of how language in fact is stigma. Being aware of this link is crucial to the study of how language influences cultural awareness of disability. Charlton clearly understood this necessity in his two lines about language. I say this because in a sense, his opinion explains how language shapes peoples’ understanding of disability. Charlton provided me with a framework for understanding the importance of language in the context of disability stigma because his research was specifically on the topic of disability. His insight aligns perfectly with the research I am conducting, which affords my ideas a foundation to stand on because it draws on experiences of experts in personal and professional disability contexts.

Charlton is especially compelling because he approaches the topic of disability oppression both from a personal and professional standpoint. His perspective connects the knowledge of historical disability stigma. Noteworthy is Charlton’s reference to Ed Roberts, a key figure in the disability rights movement, who learned in his activist career that “when others speak for you, you lose” (Charlton, 1998, p. 3). This insider tip about the significance of language and the way it is used in the oppression of disabled people is another reason why research of DRL is central to creating a better understanding around the social interactions between disabled and non-disabled people. Societal pressures and unawareness too often convince our culture to allow others to speak for DP and assign meaning through language that significantly affect the lives of DP. Charlton’s opinion on language culminated in his explanation of the consequences language has on stigma. “The process of assigning “meaning” through language...is relentless and takes place most significantly in families, religious institutions, communities, and schools. The dehumanization of people with disabilities through language...has a profound influence on consciousness” (Charlton, 1998, p. 35). This is in fact quite similar to way in which Goffman discussed assigning meaning. Specifically, the assignment of meaning from the naive perspective of the NDP is detrimental because they are not the authority on disability-related language. DP too often are excluded from active participation in the development of language trends and ultimately are understood through descriptors they may or may not agree with because “the words used to describe disability are loaded with social connotations” (Charlton, 1998, p. 66). Through comments like these, Charlton seemed to seamlessly tie together activism and sociological analysis, as he implicitly explores these concepts sociologically. Charlton’s understanding of the implications of disability-related language use fits well within a broader discussion of language and how it influences thought and action.

d. How language can be explored as an indicator of stigma

1. Sociolinguistics
The Language Society of America stated, “[society uses] language to send vital social messages...It is often shocking to realize how extensively we may judge a person's background, character, and intentions based simply upon the person’s language, dialect, or...even the choice of a single word” (Wolfram, 2014). In terms of stigma, people can indicate their opinions or assumptions through language consciously and subconsciously.

People consciously alter their language from one context to the next depending on the listener. Sociolinguistics profiles how even the altering of language says something important about a speaker’s judgment if they feel the need to change their everyday speech based on various contexts. Patterns appear when looking at language in social contexts because it “tells us quite a bit about how we organize our social relationships within a particular community”, meaning language provides an effective way of stratifying society into groups that share similar language use (Wolfram, 2014).

As Wolfman described, uttering simple words implies important cultural understandings, norms, and politeness conventions of which context the speaker is interacting. In the framework of this paper, the utterances of disability-related language such as “stupid, cripple, spaz, crazy, retard, and idiot” demonstrates something about the social position of the speaker and the listener as well as the context of the situation as the listener reacts to the speaker’s use. The hypothesis of Sapir-Whorf also provides a valuable expansion of the importance of research of language for my study.

2. Sapir-Whorf

Roger Brown understood the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis in terms of the way “we cut nature up, organize it into concepts and ascribe significances as we do, largely because we are partners in an agreement that holds throughout our speech community and is codified in the patterns of our language” (as cited in Huber W. Ellingsworth, 1992, p. 50). Brown summarized the hypothesis with his understanding of language as a medium of expressing thought. It is clear with this hypothesis that society assigns meaning to language, as in words do not simply transmit meaning, but also coordinate worldviews. Sapir-Whorf is relevant to this project because it linguistically contextualizes stigma in a way that provides insight into how people’s understanding is shaped through language more significantly than other mediums.

The Sapir-Whorf “hypothesis” is actually related to linguistic relativism and determinism in which the linguist, Eric Lenneberg, summarized:

“The structure of anyone’s native language strongly influences or fully determines the world-view he will acquire as he learns the language” (as cited in Kay and Kempton, 1984, p.66).

To test the two hypotheses, Roger Brown and his colleague Eric Lenneberg did an experiment designed to explore the way two languages understood the definitions of color. It was determined that the results demonstrated the “Whorfian effect” in which English speakers saw more of a difference between the category of color examples than speakers of Tarahumara, a Native American language.

I believe that this distinction is significant for thinking about stigma’s relationship with language because where “retard” and “stupid” primarily have a negative connotation in our culture; “crazy” has some positive connotations. For instance, when people say “hey crazy lady!” or “that was a crazy party!” in a cheerful or appreciative tone, the
connotation is positive. Sapir-Whorf is important in understanding the purpose of my research because it demonstrates how the English language differs from other languages in terms of categorization and therefore has a potential impact the way society understands stigma of DP. Much of the understanding of language use is developed in social institutions such as schools.

But can this approach to language perhaps be quantified? Notoriously, studies claimed that the Sapir-Whorf effects did not exist (see McWhorter 2014), which would imply my research is flawed by nature. However, I would argue this research has a special claim on the existence of Sapir-Whorf because of the significant possibility that DRL affects the position that DP have relative to others in society. To fully understand this connection, a crucial element missing from the literature analysis must be filled. That is an evaluation of the effects of using disability-related language on college students’ understanding of disability and disabled people.

III. Methods

The literature I reviewed helped me figure out that research on disability and language tends to be anecdotal and based often most clearly in theoretical approaches by scientists like Goffman and Gould, or in the words of activists like Charlton.

To flesh out what these scholars were trying to say, I created a survey and administered it to California State University, Chico (CSUC) students in Spring 2014. The survey asked students about their knowledge and attitudes of disability and disability-related language. The construction of the survey was done in a manner so that a number of questions regarding college attitudes toward DRL could be used to answer my research question for this paper: how does disability-related language impact students’ understanding of disability and disabled people? Using a survey format allowed me to collect standard demographic data, students’ general knowledge of disability, and DRL as well as information about how students’ felt they would feel and/or react in various disability-related scenarios.

In this paper, I use the data collected to identify how students on my college campus aligned their language with their interactions with disabled people, and ask how their use of language affected their understanding of disability (see Appendix). I did this by creating a question: What are CSUC students’ attitudes and knowledge about disabilities and disability-related language? Next, I chose the quantitative method for answering my question because that way I could have a large sample. Then I created my hypotheses on what results I expected. After that, I created my survey with questions stemming my hypotheses about DRL. I then pretested my survey with students who fit my target population. From what I learned from pre-testing, I revised my survey in preparation for distributing it to CSUC students via the campus survey system. After I collected my results, I analyzed the data using SPSS.

I wanted to understand how CSUC students thought about disability as a concept, how they thought about their language use, and if these factors impacted their interactions with or thoughts about DP—my assumption was that they would be consistent with what Goffman, Gould, Sapir-Whorf, and others wrote. During this process, I also conceptualized my variables. The crucial variable to define was disability-related language, which means words with a historical connection to disabled people including: retard, cripple, stupid, crazy, invalid, and psycho. After creating the
research question to guide my survey construction, I determined what my population and sample would be as well as created my survey.

My population was CSUC students who were enrolled in at least three units and conducted using a random number generating function in Excel 2011. Being on a college campus allowed me to pool subjects with diverse backgrounds for my study. My sample consisted of 296 CSUC students who were randomly selected by class section emails. I created my survey using the platform SurveyMonkey (SurveyMonkey Inc. 2014). Once I had the draft of my first survey, I pretested it to students who met the qualifications for my population. Edits and adjustment were made to the original survey to clarify the questions. After finalizing the survey, I received Institutional Review Board approval from CSUC and administered my survey to my sample.

Responses to my survey were voluntary, biasing the sample in terms of nonresponse bias because “non-respondents were likely to differ from the respondents in ways other than just their willingness to participate in your survey” (Babbie, 2011, p. 289). Participants were provided a link in the email sent to them to my survey hosted on SurveyMonkey. I followed up with the selected sample a week after the initial email was sent by sending a reminder email to the same list of class sections as my initial email. Approximately two weeks following my reminder email, I downloaded my final data set in the form of an Excel spreadsheet from SurveyMonkey 2014. From there, I processed the data in order to be able to run tests using the program SPSS version 20.

Using SPSS, I ran two types of statistical tests. Spearman rho is a test that measures strength and direction of correlation between ordinal variables. For example, a positive Spearman rho indicates a positive correlation between the two variables going in the same direction. A negative Spearman rho indicates a negative relationship between the two variables going in opposite directions. A larger magnitude of the Spearman rho indicates a stronger correlation. The other test I used was the Independent Sample T-test, which tests whether the difference in mean of two samples is statistically significant, which can be used to determine whether or not a nominal variable affects a respondent's answer. The statistical tests I ran are based on survey questions that were answered using a Likert scale, which “calculates the average index score of those agreeing with each of the individual statements” (Babbie, 2008/2011, p.192). An advantage of using a Likert scale is “the unambiguous ordinality of response categories”, this means they lend themselves well to directional tests such as the Spearman rho (Babbie, 2008/2011, p.191). On the hand, the disadvantage of using a Likert scale is that the categories of a given scale are relative, so respondents' definitions of strongly agree could vary significantly.

In order to statistically analyze the selected questions from the survey in context to my research question, in my results section, I profile tests done on the selected questions using SPSS version 20. The tests will include: Spearman’s rho, which measures correlation between two ordinal variables and Independent Samples T-Test, which is a test for difference of means.

IV. Results

In the following section, I present my results from the survey I created in Spring 2014. My results section is fashioned to address the hole I found in the literature regarding the relationship between disability-related language and attitudes toward disabled people. My attempt to fill the hole was done using statistical tests I ran on my
survey data, which determined whether or not my results matched the literature I reviewed. The statistical analysis of my survey results focused on specific questions that will allow me to answer my research question: how does disability-related language impact Chico State students' understanding of disability and disabled people? Some of the questions from my survey are as follows as they relate to the following tables, which summarized my findings.

A Spearman rho correlation was calculated for the index of uses of the word “crazy” and willingness to enter into a conversation with a schizophrenic person. A moderate negative correlation was found \[ r(257) = -.307, \ p < .01 \], indicating a significant relationship between the two variables. Because the correlation coefficient had a magnitude greater than .3, the strength of the correlation was moderate, meaning a respondent who self-reported as using the term “crazy” more often was less willing to enter into a conversation with a schizophrenic person. \( \text{(See Table 1)} \)

A Spearman rho correlation was calculated for the relationship between the number of family or friends a respondent had with a disability and index of calling someone a “retard”. A weak negative correlation was found \[ r(256) = -.224, \ p < .01 \], indicating a significant relationship between the two variables. Because the correlation coefficient had a magnitude between .15 and .3, the strength of the correlation was weak, meaning a respondent who identified as having more family or friends with a disability were less likely to call various people a “retard”. \( \text{(See Table 2)} \)

A Spearman rho correlation was calculated for the relationship between index of uses of “retard” and willingness to spend an evening socializing with an Autistic person. A moderate negative correlation was found \[ r(275) = -.313, \ p < .01 \], indicating a significant relationship between the two variables. Because the correlation coefficient had a magnitude greater than .3, the strength of the correlation was moderate, meaning a respondent who used “retard” more often was less willing to spend an evening socializing with an Autistic person. \( \text{(See Table 3)} \)

An Independent Samples T-Test was calculated comparing the relationship whether or not the respondent had a visible disability and use of the term “Disabled Person”. A relationship was found \[ T=2.691, \ p < .05 \], indicating the relationship between the two variables is statistically significant. Respondents who identified as having a visible disability were more likely to use the term “Disabled Person” than respondents who did not identify as having a visible disability. \( \text{(See Table 4)} \)

Table 1 details a respondent who self-reported as using the term “crazy” more often was less willing to enter into a conversation with a schizophrenic person. Table 2 represents data on respondents who had family or friends with a disability were significantly less likely to call various people “retard”. Table 3 summarizes a respondent who used “retard” more often was less willing to spend an evening socializing with an Autistic person. Table 4 reports on how respondents who identified as having a visible disability were more likely to use the term “Disabled Person” than respondents who did not identify as having a visible disability. The subsequent analysis will put the observed trends in a discourse with the literature review.

V. Discussion

Based on Goffman’s work with the concept of stigma, I focused on results that related to disability-related language that may carry stigma such as “retard” and “crazy”. At the end of the literature review, I concluded that a crucial part of my research was not
addressed in the literature. Surveying a variety of students on my campus resulted in
data that I could use to fill the hole missing from the literature on college students’ use
of DRL and how that impacts their understanding of disability and disabled people.

Broadly, Table 2 commented on how social context affects understanding of
language use. Sociolinguistics marries the understanding that language and meaning
are social acts. Language is developed and fostered in various social contexts such as
familial relations and friendships. The results of Table 2 show that respondents who had
family members or friends with a disability were significantly less likely to call various
people “retarded”. This result can be understood in the framework of sociolinguistics
because experts in the field believe language “tells us quite a bit about how we organize
our social relationships within a particular community” (Wolfram, 2014). That being said,
it is simple to understand how whether or not respondents had disabled family or friends
influenced the language respondents used or refrained from using in the context of
disability. The results explaining respondent's language use ultimately depended on
values and morals they were socialized into believing. From my data, it appears that
respondents who had family or friends with disabilities were more conscious of the
choice to not use “retard” because of their social context than a respondent who did not
have those sort of emotional connections to DP. For instance, respondents’ use of
“retarded” could be influenced by a personal connection to the casual use of “retard”.
What is interesting about the word “retard” is where the respondent fell on that spectrum
depended on the social contexts they interacted in. Similarly to Sociolinguistics, Roger
Brown delved into the understanding of Sapir-Whorf when he explained “we cut nature
up, organize it into concepts and ascribe significances as we do, largely because we
are partners in an agreement that holds throughout our speech community and is
codified in the patterns of our language” (as cited in Huber W. Ellingsworth, 1992, p.
50). This comment supports the findings of Table 2 because the disabled family or
friends that respondents identified as having critically influenced the way the
respondents attributed meaning to disability. This familial foundation would potentially
change their language use and interactions with disabled people because they would
have a fundamentally different understanding of disability.

James I. Charlton had a similar understanding of the social development of
language. He explained, “the process of assigning “meaning” through language...is
relentless and takes place most significantly in families, religious institutions,
communities, and schools. The dehumanization of people with disabilities through
language...has a profound influence on consciousness” (Charlton, 1998, p. 35). Table
2 strongly supports his claim by suggesting that family and friends are deeply
significant to the meaning developed through language. He also proposed the
understanding that language is a method by which disabled people are dehumanized,
so respondents who understand the implications of language in terms of disability will
be more conscientious than their neighbor. Contrasting Table 2, Table 4 examined how
disabled respondents responded to DRL Based on the literature, it was most helpful to
analyze this table in terms of Goffman’s and Charlton’s work on stigma and language.

Table 4 results really get at personal agency for DP relating to self-identity. Where
Erving Goffman argued NDP categorize (assumingly by using DRL) as an attempt to
ease the potential of social discomfort around interacting with a DP, Table 4 results
reveal that DP work to reclaim categories that may be used outside their control in
typical contexts such as with disabled respondents using the term “disabled person” (Goffman, 1963, p. 19). This term may contrast what is socially acceptable in some social groups and this may seem like a small distinction for some, but others it is vastly important for how DP identify themselves in society. Ed Roberts, a key figure in the disability rights movement seemed to understand this by saying, “when others speak for you, you lose” (Charlton, 1998, p. 3). The results of this test suggested the imperative realization that DRL first and foremost impacts disabled people and how they are represented in society. That being said, it is significant for DP to reclaim language as a way of empowerment as opposed to how the meaning of DRL is often constructed by NDP.

Stephen J. Gould in effect explored this same phenomenon using intelligence testing for reinforcing social hierarchy in how DRL may be used without the consent of the people it affects. He asserted that language becomes dangerous when it becomes a mechanism for social control. And indeed, the results of Table 4, which compared whether or not the respondent had a visible disability and use of the term “Disabled Person” comments on disabled respondents unknowingly rebelling against Gould’s reference to Socrates’s belief that “citizens accept the status conferred upon them” because disabled respondents are not simply accepting the titles and definition imposed onto them, but using them for their own purposes (Gould, 1996, p. 51). While DP fight against stigma, NDP may consciously or subconsciously support stigma. The use of disability-related language can impact stigma and in turn influence opinions and beliefs as shown by the results of Table 1, which are supported by the principles of Sociolinguistics and Sapir-Whorf.

Table 1, which compared the index of uses of the word “crazy” and willingness to enter into a conversation with a schizophrenic person explain that respondents who uses the term “crazy” in various contexts are less willing to enter into a conversation with a schizophrenic person than respondents who use “crazy” less often. The results remarks on the relationship between DRL and stigma directed at disabled people. Table 1 reflects the fact that sociolinguistics is contextualized so that NDP may alter their actions depending on the situation, which is why a person’s social assumptions can be indicated by their consciously or subconsciously language use. Because Table 1, that explored the relation between uses of the word “crazy” and willingness to enter into a conversation with a schizophrenic person is concerned with how language influences actions and in turn, opinions, respondents who were more likely to use “crazy” in different contexts were overall less willing to converse with a schizophrenic person compared to respondents who used the term “crazy” less often. This more than any other test done in the study profiles the impact language has on action. This test’s results explain that the more a respondent used DRL, the more they essentially made assumptions about disabled people, which would potentially inhibit even a conversation between the two parties. As Charlton referenced in his research, “language is always a reflection of attitude” (Charlton, 1998, p. 65). Table 3, which compared the index of uses of “retard” and willingness to spend an evening socializing with an Autistic person validates this connection between language and action as well.

Table 3 results profiled respondent who used “retard” more often was less willing to spend an evening socializing with an Autistic person. These results also reinforce Charlton’s point similarly to Table 1 because the Table 3 results demonstrate how use
of the term “retard” correlates to the willingness the respondent possessed in spending an evening socializing with a cognitively disabled person (Autistic person). In other words, the use of DRL mirrors respondents attitudes towards the disabled group often referenced with words such as “retard”. Charlton further illustrated implications when he claimed, “language informs attitudes and beliefs because it is a medium of translation of expression and thought. When a word or an idea is expressed, an image is generated” (Charlton, 1998, p. 65-66). Charlton’s reference to the image generated when language is used to indicate an idea is bone-chillingly honest, especially when related to the results in Table 1 and Table 3. DRL yields very clear pictures, but vague definitions as it is used in innumerable applications. But, even with the assumed separation of modern meaning from historical meaning, language still impacts respondents interactions with the group affected by the meanings behind DRL since the words were medical diagnoses. These tests establish the vital importance of understanding the implications of using DRL for the users and the receivers of the meaning behind these words.

VI. Conclusion
My study of how disability-related language impacts Chico State students’ understanding of disability and disabled people began because I was personally invested in the topic. But what resulted from my research was a sociological analysis of a social problem. My first task was to read literature that could be used to explore the topic. From there, I conducted a quantitative SurveyMonkey survey of CSUC students in Spring 2014 based on my survey question: what are CSUC students' attitudes and knowledge about disabilities and disability-related language? After collecting the data, I ran statistical tests using SPSS version 20 and I then analyzed said results in relation to the literature I collected. The results from my research have broader implications beyond the purposes of this paper.

The implications of the results of my quantitative survey suggest that DRL first and foremost impacts disabled people and how they are represented in society. This reflects Stephen J. Gould’s research that asserted that language becomes dangerous when it becomes a mechanism for social control. My research results could be used as concrete example in support of the need to further study the effects of DRL on individuals' opinions and actions. The results showed that disabled respondents rebel against Socrates’ idea that people should stay in their predetermined social position. Disabled respondents do this by using imposed upon definitions such as “disabled person” for their own purposes as opposed to social purposes. In other words, the use of DRL illustrated that respondents’ attitudes towards the disabled population is based on a social hierarchy and reflected in their language use. Charlton noted, “when a word or an idea is expressed, an image is generated” (Charlton, 1998, p. 65-66). That means that when respondents use DRL, it impacts the way they interact with disabled people because there is an assumption that goes along with the language they choose to use. What is paramount to understand about my research of disability-related language on Chico State students’ understanding of disability and disabled people is that language impacts sentiment and sentiment impacts real world interactions between disabled and non-disabled people. Being aware of the clout that language has culturally will allow individuals to be more mindful of the effects language has on the interactions between them and someone that appears different from them.
References

Table 1: Results of Spearman rho comparing the index of uses of the word “crazy” and willingness to enter into a conversation with a schizophrenic person.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Correlation Coefficient</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Index of Uses of Crazy</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schizophrenic person a conversation</td>
<td>-0.907**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>257</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 2: Results of Spearman rho comparing the number of family or friends a respondent had with a disability and the index of calling someone a “retard”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Correlation Coefficient</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td># Friends/Family w/ Disabilities</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index of Calling Retard</td>
<td>-0.224**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spearman's rho</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index of Calling Retard</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
Table 3: Results of Spearman rho comparing the index of uses of “retard” and willingness to spend an evening socializing with an Autistic person.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Autistic person spend an evening socializing</th>
<th>Index of Uses of Retard</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spearman’s rho</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autistic person spend an evening socializing</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index of Uses of Retard</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>-.313**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4: Results of Independent Samples T-Test comparing whether or not the respondent had a visible disability and use of the term “Disabled Person”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Samples T-Test Comparing Use of “Disabled Person” and Whether or Not the Respondent Had a Visible Disability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>t-test for Equality of Means</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Disabled Person”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


1. A Survey of Liuzhou City

Liuzhou is the second biggest city in Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region, China. There are four districts and six counties in Liuzhou.
The total area of Liuzhou is 18,600 square kilometers. It is a region where 48 minority nationalities people live in compact communities, such as Han, Zhuang, Miao, Yao, Dong and so on. The total population in Liuzhou is 3.72 Million (Liuzhou Municipal Government, n.d.).

2.1 The Definition of Port
- Chinese government defined port as: **The area that cargo, goods, and transportation vehicles can directly enter or exit the border of the country** (Gu, 2014).
- My definition of Port: **The area that people, cargo, goods, and transportation vehicles can enter or exit the country**.

2.2 The Classification of Ports in China

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Authorization for Opening</th>
<th>Ways of Transportation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Class Port; Second Class port</td>
<td>Harbor (Sea Port, Inland River Port); Dry Port (Railway Port, Road Port); Air Port</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Liaoning Provincial College of Communications, n.d.)

2.3 The Introduction of the Port of Liuzhou
- The port of Liuzhou is a first class inland river port. It is located in Liujiang River, which is a grade IV channel with a 500 ton traffic capacity. The Port of Liuzhou was officially opened up to the outside world on June 01, 1990. It served the import and export goods clearance for the cities of Liuzhou, Laibin, and Hechi. There were two Customs control wharf area in the Port of Liuzhou from 1990 to 2010.
Liuzhou Zhegujiang Wharf Control Area

It served the goods clearance business in the wet season, which is from April to November. It is the permanent customs control wharf in the port of Liuzhou. The area is 12,000 square meters. The office is 725 square meters, the ware-house is 1800 square meters. It has a 1000 ton container berth, and a 500 ton cargo berth. There is one 40 ton and a 50 ton crane in the control area. The annual capacity in this control area is 0.5 million ton (Liuzhou Municipal Commission of Commerce, 1990).

Wuxuan Shuangshi Wharf Control Area

It is located in the downstream of Liujiang River. It served in the dry season, which is from December to March. When the water level goes down in dry season, the boat cannot reach to Liuzhou Zhegujiang Wharf Control Area, which is located in the upstream of Liujiang River. Shuangshi Wharf Control Area would help to serves the goods clearance business for Liuzhou import and export business. Therefore, it was a temporary customs control wharf in the port of Liuzhou. Shuangshi Wharf Control Area was 7,999 square meters. The office was 350 square meters. The annual capacity was 0.15 million ton (Liuzhou Municipal Commission of Commerce, 1990).

In 2010, according to the General Administration of Customs of the People's Republic of China's No. 171 Order, Shuangshi Wharf Control Area was disqualified by Nanning Customs because there was no electronic monitoring system, wagon balance, and warehouse in this control area. Therefore, Zhegujiang Wharf Control Area become the only customs control area in the port of Liuzhou.
2.4 The Problem that the Port of Liuzhou Confront With

-Zhegujiang Wharf Control Area

The first problem is that the working zone is too small, only 12,000 square meters. And there is a flood bank behind it. Therefore, it is difficult for it to expand. The second problem is that there is a railway culvert in the way of the enter and exit zone. It often causes traffic jams. The third problem is that Liuzhou Zhegujiang Wharf is a wharf for domestic trade and foreign trade. It increases the difficulty of supervising the working zone for customs. The fourth problem is that since Shuangshi Wharf Control Area was disqualified by customs supervision, there is no wharf to serve Liuzhou Port in the dry season. Hence, Liuzhou Port cannot serve the import and export business in Liuzhou in the dry season. The fifth problem is that with the increase of the foreign trade value in Liuzhou, Zhegujiang Wharf Control Area is oversaturated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Import &amp; Export Cargo Volume(Ton)</th>
<th>The Annual Capacity Volume (Ton)</th>
<th>Volume Saturation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>338861</td>
<td>750000</td>
<td>45.18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>453863</td>
<td>500000</td>
<td>90.78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>733871</td>
<td>500000</td>
<td>147.77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>583921</td>
<td>500000</td>
<td>106.78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>586000</td>
<td>500000</td>
<td>116%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.5 The Ratio of Dependence on Foreign Trade in Liuzhou

The ratio of dependence on foreign trade is the ratio that total foreign trade value in Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The higher the ratio, the higher the degree of dependence of an economy on foreign trade. The higher the ratio, the higher degree of the market’s openness.

Ratio of Dependence on Foreign Trade= Total Foreign Trade/ GDP*100%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Foreign Trade Value in Liuzhou (Billion $)</th>
<th>Liuzhou GDP (Billion $)</th>
<th>RDFT in Liuzhou</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>21.04</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>25.28</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>29.54</td>
<td>10.52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>8.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>35.34</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Liuzhou Municipal Commission of Commerce, 2010-2014)

(Liuzhou Municipal Statistical Bureau, 2010-2014)
3.1 The Port Planning of Liuzhou

In order to change the current situation, Liuzhou Port Administration Office, which is in charge of formulating and implementing the city's port developing plan and doing the port administration, made a plan for the port of Liuzhou to enhance the construction of the port infrastructure, so as to expand the opening platform in Liuzhou. The plan is building the port of Liuzhou into an integrated port with comprehensive a bonded zone, an inland river port, a dry port, and an air port.

3.2 The Definition of Comprehensive Bonded Zone

Comprehensive bonded zone is a special customs supervision area, which is established in inland China and is approved by the State Council. The functions of the comprehensive bonded zone is providing warehouse logistics, foreign trade, international purchase, allocation and distribution, international transit, testing and after-sales services, product displaying, research and development, processing, manufacturing, and port service. It is a special area with the highest level of openness, the most preferential policies, and the most simplified procedures in current mainland China (China Machinery Marketing Academy, n.d.).

3.3 The Conditions for Establishing Comprehensive Boned Zone

- First, corresponding the national development and strategic planning.
- Second, upgrading from the existing customs special supervision area and bonded supervision zone.
- Third, entering requirement by large-scale projects (China Machinery Marketing Academy, n.d.).

### Gross Industrial Output Value (GIOV) in Liuzhou (year 2010-2014)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>GIOV in Liuzhou (Billion $)</th>
<th>GIOV in Guangxi (Billion $)</th>
<th>Proportion of Guangxi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>42.46</td>
<td>186.72</td>
<td>22.73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>58.4</td>
<td>241.44</td>
<td>20.87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>57.32</td>
<td>275.2</td>
<td>21.04%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>64.23</td>
<td>308.48</td>
<td>20.92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>76.72</td>
<td>345.8</td>
<td>20.46%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Liuzhou is the biggest industry city in Guangxi. Its gross industrial output accounts for one-fifth of Guangxi's. There are 2,848 industry enterprises with full range of industrial sectors in Liuzhou. Among them, 10 are large-scale enterprises; 834 are industrial enterprises above designated size; 7 enterprises are in the top five hundred list in the Chinese Manufacturing Enterprises. The pillar industries are automobile, machinery, and extractive metallurgy (Liuzhou Municipal Commission of Commerce, 2014).

In the year of 2014, the State Council approved the upgrading of the West River Economic Zone to the National Development and Strategic.
3.4 The Transportation Network of Liuzhou City

Liuzhou, as the leading city in West River Economic Zone, is the nearest and strongest industrial city and the transportation hub which linking Chinese southwest, middle-of-south, southern part of China, and Southeast Asia.

**Highway System - Local Highways**

![Local Highways Diagram]

**Highway System - State Highways**

![State Highways Diagram](http://www.gped.org.cn/chuanhu/tiangong/zhuanti/trafffic050702.jpg)

**Railway System**

![Railway System Diagram](http://pic.baike.soso.com/p/20140221/20140221001726-11866985.jpg)

**Waterway System**

![Waterway System Diagram](http://zh.wikipedia.org/wiki/%E7%8E%A0/%E6%9C%89#/media/File:Zhujiangrivermap.png)

**Aviation System**

![Aviation System Diagram](http://pic.baike.soso.com/p/20140221/20140221001726-11866985.jpg)
Conclusion

- Supported by the National Development and Strategic of West River Economic Zone, the strong industrial economy, and the developed transportation network, the port of Liuzhou will be built into an integrated port with a comprehensive bonded zone, an inland river port, a dry port, and an air port.

References


271
Liuzhou’s Housing Supply: Affordable Quality Housing for Everyone

Presented by Huazhi Zhang

City division in terms of real estate

In China, the city’s status of real estate can be divided into 4 tiers according to their political status, economic power, city size and regional influence:

1. The first-tier city: Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, Shenzhen, Tianjin
2. The second-tier city: Chongqing, Nanjing, Wuhan, Chengdu, Shenyang, etc. They are all regional central cities or Vice-provincial cities. Many of them are provincial capital cities.
3. The third-tier city: The prefecture-level city with strong economic power. **Liuzhou is classed in this category.**
4. The fourth-tier city: The other cities.
Real estate coordinated development

The real estate coordinated development with the natural beauty and preserving historical cultural heritage.

The real estate of Liuzhou has accommodate the full range of incomes upon development plans which depend with “livable” high quality housing.

Homeownership—Chinese traditional concept

- In China, Home ownership is a prerequisite for happiness. It involves many different income levels and sectors of the economy and has a profound influence on social life.
- There has been a traditional idea of housing ownership in China since ancient times that is closely linked to both marriage and employment.
- There is a Chinese saying, whose English equivalent is “a person who has property has constancy of purpose”.
Homeownership—Chinese traditional concept

Housing is a kind of private property with absolute demand for every person & Housing is a kind of valuable commodity in market.

It is necessary for government to supervise and adjust the housing market & Housing cannot be provided only by the government.

Urbanization in China

The left chart shows that Chinese urbanization rate increases from 18.9% in 1990 to 52.57% in 2012. The urban population reaches 710 millions in 2012.

The majority of demand for housing comes from the demand generated by the process of urbanization as large numbers of rural residents move to the city. Throughout China urbanization is expected to result in the movement of about 400 million rural residents to cities in the next 20 years.
Urbanization of Liuzhou

- By the end of 2015, the urbanization rate of Liuzhou would be at least 58%, which means about 800 thousands of rural residents will move to the city.
- Liuzhou is the industrial powerhouse in Guangxi province with a large work force of industrial workers, skilled technicians and professionals of all kinds. To maintain this status the city must provide an adequate supply of quality housing within the range price of all of the different income strata in order to accommodate them and make them comfortable working in the city.

Challenge caused by Urbanization

- Such a rate of urbanization is unique in the world and it creates a number of problems.
- Since housing is closely related to social stability, and the improvement of people’s living standard, proper solutions to housing problems are essential to development of the labor and urban economy in Liuzhou and throughout China.
The land resources inside Liuzhou are relatively scarce. How can the city deal with the explosion of the city's population caused by urbanization?

Liudong New District has developed since 2006. It is one of the 3 biggest new districts in Guangxi province. The planning land area is 135 square kilometers and it will be a second city center for Liuzhou in the future.

Develop new district

From 2008, Liuzhou have updated old and dilapidated houses in the old core as relocation opens opportunities.

Update old town
Individual housing information system

- In the last 10 years, Liuzhou municipal government has implemented a series of financial and tax policies which have successfully regulated the real estate market and kept basic housing prices at affordable and reasonable levels.
- At the center of these efforts is the individual housing information system that provides the basis for the tax and financial policies.
- For example, for second-home buyers, the government makes home buying more expensive by raising down-payment rates on the second purchase and raising mortgage rates.

Housing price compare with citizen’s average annual income

Housing price and income data clearly illustrate the impact of these effort. The diagram below illustrates the variation trend of the Per capita annual average disposable income, new-housing price and second-housing price from 2007 to 2013.

It’s obvious that citizen’s disposable income increases much faster than the price increase of housing price.
Three tiers of housing in Liuzhou

With considerable variation within strata housing in Liuzhou is divided into three tiers:

- High end Executive/Professional
- Middle Income Technical/Service
- Working Class.

High quality housing from high-end development company

In recent years, more and more domestic top level real estate development companies began construction of top-end estate development projects in Liuzhou.

- China Poly Group Corporation
- Wanda Group
- The Evergrande Real Estate Group
Providing multiple options for middle class

- Liuzhou has gradually set up an perfect intermediary market for second-hand house and real estate financial products—a whole new middle class industry.
- Safety and convenience are further improved by information management.
- For instance, the association of real estate agents was established to regulate the behaviors of the estate agents and an online trading platform of housing was set up for the safety and transparency of estate transactions.

By these measures, Liuzhou government provides top level services and a variety of housing options to its growing middle class.

Indemnification for Lower Income Families

Housing is a basic human right and necessity. It has two properties: the property of commodity and the property of social security. The government plays a vital role by helping the real estate industry fully meet the needs of lower income residents.

Housing security system

- 01 Economically affordable housing
- 02 Low-rent housing
- 03 Public rental housing
- 04 Old house renovation for enterprise workers
Rapid development of indemnificatory housing

1. 11,000 indemnificatory housing units were built in 2010
2. 27,476 indemnificatory housing units had been completed by the end of 2010
3. 33,500 indemnificatory housing units were built in 2013
4. 130,000 units of indemnificatory housing will be completed by the end of 2020

The prospect of future

By the end of 2020, Liuzhou will have had 130,000 units of indemnificatory housing, which can solve the housing problem of 416,000 citizens. The coverage rate of indemnificatory housing in Liuzhou will reach 23% by the end of the 12th five-year plan. Housing guarantee object will be further enlarged, and housing guarantee level, housing guarantee manner will be significant improved at that time.
Thank you for listening!

Company LOGO