

**JOURNAL
OF BORDER
EDUCATIONAL
RESEARCH**

VOLUME 4 • NUMBER 1

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JOURNAL OF BORDER EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH VOLUME 4 • NUMBER 1 • SPRING 2005

The Journal of Border Educational Research

ISSN: 1548-3185

Frequency: Biannually

Editor:

Randel D. Brown, Texas A&M International University
5201 Univeristy Blvd. Laredo, TX 78041

Associate Editors:

Jeffery H.D. Cornelius-White, Missouri State University
Trace Pirtle, Texas A&M International University
Terry Shepherd, Texas A&M International University

Subscriptions rates (postage included):

General: \$45.00
Student: \$20.00
Agency/Library: \$75.00

The Journal of Border Educational Research is an initiative of Texas A&M International University's College of Education. Article and editorials published in the *Journal of Border Educational Research* do not necessarily reflect endorsement by Texas A&M International University's College of Education.

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Editorial

Randel D. Brown
Texas A&M International University

Welcome to Volume 4 of *The Journal of Border Educational Research*! Our vision for *The Journal* is to present an open discussion of knowledge and application of educational issues surrounding border regions and other cross-cultural experiences. We hope *The Journal* serves as a venue for meaningful discussions that will influence the daily practice of inspiring people to learn. This issue of *The Journal* includes an excellent collection of articles produced by practicing educators who daily inspire their students to learn. Their work reminds me of a former graduate student who's thoughtfulness inspired me and others who new him to continue our work of inspiring learning. The following was his philosophy of magic in the classroom.

As a special education teacher, I endeavor to provide students with the best education possible. I believe that commitment is more likely to be achieved in the classroom, where magic is possible. In the classroom, where, at any given moment someone will say or do the thing that, like an incantation or waving of a wand, triggers that precious teachable moment in a fellow human being.

In the past, the belief was that the magic should only be in the possession of the teacher. Only the teacher had the wisdom to decide when and where the magic could be used. Only the teacher could decide who was worthy to receive the gift of learning. Sadly, sometimes the teacher would also decide who was not worthy of the magic or who was immune to the magic. Perhaps, they were afraid that the magic would fail, and that they would be exposed as pretenders, false magicians, and even failures. Students who were resistant to the magic were identified. Those students were labeled so that when the magic failed, the failure could be blamed on the student. The student had to be the point of failure because the magic or at least the illusion of magic had to be protected.

Teachers collected and safeguarded their magical charms, their special techniques, their scope and sequence, and their magical lesson circle. Older teachers ceremoniously passed their charms over to their apprentice teachers, but the working of the magic, we would have to figure out on our own. Some struggled a lifetime for that perfect spell that always seemed to elude them, while others gave up. Occasionally, one of those teachers would take a break from the search, and if they were lucky, they'd get a chance to look behind the curtain. And when they looked, they didn't find the wizard, nor did they find a man just pretending to be one. What they found, if they were willing to accept the truth, was that the magic could happen without them. They found out that the magic

could happen without the charms, without the scope and sequence, and without the magic lesson circle. They found that the magic could happen at anytime, anywhere and more importantly, they discovered that the magic can happen to anyone.

I want to be able to tell my fellow professionals, who struggle day after day to bring the magic to their classrooms, to pay no attention to the man behind the curtain. I want to be able to show them that the curriculum can be a living, breathing thing that is responsive to the needs of all students. I want to be able to show them that instruction can happen whenever a student becomes interested enough in something new to make it their own. I especially want to be able to show them that we can teach everyone, that we can ignore the labels. I also want to be able to show them how a classroom can become a place where random acts of magic occur continuously and spontaneously wherever a child is found.

Richard Shinn 1957-2002

I hope you enjoy The Journal!

**An Analysis of Extant Data that Addresses Sociological, Curricular, Instructional,
and Academic Assessment Issues That Affect Hispanic Students'
College Readiness in South Texas**

Humberto González
Sandra Cavazos
Estela De La Garza
Edmundo García, Jr.
Erica Benavides García
Elva Margarita Martínez
Annette Orozco Pérez
Abraham Rodríguez, II
Gerardo S. Rodríguez
María De Lourdes Viloria

Texas A&M International University

Introduction

The changing demographics in Texas and the southwest have created concern for educators in public schools and higher education. As Texas becomes a minority majority population, the challenges associated with diversity, the growing need to accelerate acculturation, the dilemma of English as a Second Language (ESL), and low socio-economic status are but a few of the many factors involved in educating a changing population.

The challenge for educators is daunting. Public schools must prepare more students for college. Universities and colleges must accept the students, retain them, accelerate their learning and graduate them. The reality is somber though, because not enough Hispanics students are graduating college ready. The number of students entering higher education and dropping out is considerable. Research shows that in Texas as many as one-third of high school students leave without graduating (Intercultural Development Research Association, 2005). The Hispanic population is expected to grow significantly in the Texas border region. Almost 45% of students in Texas public schools today are members of a minority population.

Of the students that can overcome obstacles and barriers and are able to graduate from high school, only one in five actually enrolls in a Texas public university in the fall, four enroll in a 2-year college and more than half do not enroll at all (IDRA, 2005). Of the high school students that are able to access a college education, one of four is economically disadvantaged, for Latinos, it is one of two (IDRA, 2005).

Yet, according to the National Center for Public Policy and Higher Education, in Texas "low and middle income students have to bear 40% of their family's income for a public four-year college and 30% of the annual family income for a community college." In contrast, tuition has increased 29% for 2-year institutions and 63% for 4-year institutions.

This study will reflect on social, academic, and college readiness issues pertaining to Hispanic students in the South Texas region. Additionally, the study focused on comparing extant data to regional, state, and national levels.

It will be the intent of this study to identify areas and issues that may help public schools and higher education institutions to better serve the Hispanic community of South Texas by presenting existing data that is relevant and applicable.

Sociological Issues

The sociological factors that influence college readiness for Hispanic high school students in South Texas will be explored in this section. There are many great schools, administrators and teachers in our country, but we all know that many barriers impede the Hispanic children in receiving the quality of education they need to succeed. The results have been that Hispanics now have the highest dropout rates, some of the highest teen pregnancy rates and live in predominately economically depressed and low property wealth areas (Galvan, 1993). Consequently, many are not prepared to enter institutions of higher learning. Ironically, since the Brown v. Board of Education decision, African Americans and Latinos have had a backward movement towards segregation and poverty.

The sociopolitical practices that have driven our educational reforms since the 1960's have failed to focus on the outcome of school policies and practices specifically curriculum, pedagogy, tracking, testing, discipline, and hiring (Nieto, 2004). Society needs to review the current state of education since the continuing segregation of students based on race and ethnicity has been escalating for the last twenty years. Most of the progress made toward desegregating schools in two decades prior to 1988 has been lost in the last fifteen years. Ironically, since the Brown v. Board of Education decision, African Americans and Latinos have had a backward movement towards segregation and poverty (Orfield, 2001).

Hispanic students continue to lag behind in their attainment of higher education and have higher high-school dropout rates in South Texas. An analysis of the 2003-2004 Texas Public Education Information Management System (PEIMS) was utilized to desegregate Hispanic dropout data in Southwest Texas, as indicated on Table 1.

Table 1

Longitudinal Rate Analysis of Student Group Dropouts (Grades 9 – 12)

County	Low SES	Drop-Out Number	Total Students	Hispanics
Webb	0.90%	227	22,077	1.10%
Brooks	0.00%	0	864	0.00%
Cameron	0.90%	419	39,537	1.10%
Duval	0.70%	12	1,451	0.80%
Hidalgo	0.90%	752	66,866	1.20%
Jim Hogg	0.00%	6	549	.10%
Karnes	0.00%	10	1,274	1.10%
Starr	2.10%	173	6,609	2.60%
Willacy	1.10%	30	2,250	1.30%
Zapata	1.80%	31	1,357	2.30%

Note. Information extracted from the TEA secondary school completion and dropouts in Texas public schools 2002-2003.

Vera (1989) states that any educational policy must recognize certain realities for the following reasons. First, access to higher education for minority students is tied to educational barriers that begin in the elementary and secondary schools. Second, the efforts being proposed must be realistic. Texas needs not only to create a pool of students, but also to provide financial aid to those students that need to attend school. Third, the program must be funded, and those monies, as in state-mandated programs, must be set aside and budgeted by Texas Legislature. Fourth, any educational effort, including the Texas plan must be evaluated in light of how it will increase the quality, not just the quantity, of minority access to higher education (Galvan, 1993).

In 1981, after a 30-month investigation, the Office of Civil Rights (OCR) of the U.S. Department of Education found the state of Texas to be in violation of the civil rights laws. In its investigation of Hispanics in higher education, OCR found that Hispanics were significantly underrepresented in several major state educational institutions such as the University of Texas at Austin and Texas A & M University. It found that the Mexican Americans attending college were concentrated in four places: Laredo State University, Pan American University, Texas A & I University, and the University of Texas at El Paso. The state voluntarily agreed to submit a 5-year plan to increase the number of minority undergraduate and graduate students, increase the number of minorities graduating, encourage racial balance among the colleges and universities, and increase the presence of minorities of the faculty, staff, and governing boards of its post-secondary institutions (Galvan, 1993).

Texas developed a 5-year plan; however, none of the objectives of the plan were met. The enrollment of Mexican Americans increased in colleges and universities but it was not sufficient to meet the goals. At the same time, the number of Mexican Americans graduating from high schools increased. The OCR's objectives were based on the number of students graduating from high school. The enrollment of Hispanics in Texas' higher education institutions was less than half the number of new Hispanic undergraduates needed to reach the goal (Galvan, 1993).

The next area researched as a possible detrimental sociological factor impeding the Hispanic students' higher level of education is teen pregnancy. Historically, teen pregnancy has adversely affected Hispanic students. As indicated on Tables 2 and 3, the number of Hispanic teenage girls getting pregnant in South Texas is staggering.

Table 2
 Births for Webb County 2001-2002

Race	Unkown ages	Ages 10 to 14	Ages 15 to 17	Ages 18 to 19	Ages 20 to 24	Ages 25 to 29	Ages 30 to 34	Ages 35 plus	All Ages
White	0	0	6	6	26	47	51	20	156
Black	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	2	6
Hispanic	0	36	781	1,144	3,301	3,244	2,159	1,014	11,679
Other	1	0	0	1	4	9	11	9	35
All Races	1	36	787	1,152	3,332	3,302	2,221	1,045	11,876

Note. From Texas Department of Health. Compiled data includes the following counties: Brooks, Cameron, Duval, Hidalgo, Jim Hogg, Karnes, Starr, Webb, Willacy, and Zapata.

Table 3
Births for Multiple South Texas Counties 2001-2002

Race	Unkown ages	Ages 10 to 14	Ages 15 to 17	Ages 18 to 19	Ages 20 to 24	Ages 25 to 29	Ages 30 to 34	Ages 35 plus	All Ages
White	0	6	104	230	702	818	754	395	3,010
Black	0	0	6	7	16	16	13	11	69
Hispanic	3	225	4,133	6,336	18,356	16,743	10,681	5,075	61,552
Other	1	0	13	33	94	92	148	79	460
All Races	5	231	4,256	6,606	19,168	14,669	11,596	5,560	65,091

Note. From Texas Department of Health. Compiled data includes the following counties: Brooks, Cameron, Duval, Hidalgo, Jim Hogg, Karnes, Starr, Webb, Willacy, and Zapata.

To compound the situation many school districts across Texas have ignored the problem and have not set up programs to continue the students' education during pregnancy. In 2002, a battle was being fought in a little Texas town, called Luling, about 45 miles southeast of Austin. Two students filed a discrimination suit against the local school district under Title IX for banning them from attending classes during their pregnancies (Proctor, 2002).

Mandated by federal requirements, Texas school districts that receive federal monies are required to establish programs to meet the needs of pregnant students so that their education is not interrupted. The Pregnancy, Education, and Parenting (PEP) Program has been established in many school districts to meet the requirements of federal guidelines. Ms. Nina Jackson, a counselor for the Fort Worth Independent School District, which has a very comprehensive program in place, says that many of the urban school districts have programs in place because of the large number of pregnancies that impact the district, but the problem is in the rural districts where there are many inconsistencies and schools tend to push the students out once they get pregnant (Proctor, 2002).

The third sociological factor impeding Hispanic students access to higher education is their concentration in predominately economically depressed areas and their low-median household income. According to Steve H. Murdock, State Demographer, in 1999, the average family income for Anglos was \$47,162 compared to \$29,873 for Hispanics. The per-pupil allocation for the school districts in Texas is correlated to the size and value of its tax base.

Demetrío Rodríguez, a parent in San Antonio's Edgewood Independent School District, one of the state's poorest districts, filed a lawsuit (Edgewood v. Kirby) in 1971 in response to the inequities of the Texas school funding system. Many Mexican Americans in Texas live in low wealth school districts such as Edgewood ISD in San Antonio and a very large number attend public schools. The disparity in resources between Texas' low wealth school districts and school districts with a high property tax base has provided many

Texas children with a substandard education. Many of these children are not prepared to participate in higher education (Cardenas, 1990).

One of the most influential factors that will aid Hispanics to join the mainstream is higher education. Higher education will not solve all the problems that Hispanics encounter, but without it, it is almost impossible to join the mainstream and become productive citizens (Galvan, 1993). Programs, like the federally funded Upward Bound Program at Laredo Community College (LCC), have made an important impact to the Laredo economy, as indicated on Table 4.

Table 4

Longitudinal Study: Laredo Community College Upward Program 1972 – 2000 (Totals of Upward Bound Alumni)

Degree	Total
Associate's	149
Bachelor's	403
Technical	223
Master's & Doctorate's	25

Note. Total number of students impacted was 800. Most of these students are first generation Hispanic college students.

It will take a deliberate plan to solve the inequity, limited access, and social injustice that currently prevail in education. The root of the disparity is the fact that language minority students lack the reading, math, and social skills that are required for students to be able to attend college. Currently, only 17% of Hispanic fourth graders read at their grade level, and the percentage is even lower in mathematics (Hernandez, 2004). Another reason that makes this a greater challenge is the fact that compared to 12% of white students who are enrolled in calculus at the high school level only 6.6% of Latinos are enrolled. The number of students enrolled in physics is 30.7% for whites and 18.9% for Hispanics (National Center for Education Statistics, 2002).

Hispanic Serving Institutions (HSI) play a critical role in America's higher education system, particularly in their capacity to serve underrepresented populations, said witnesses before the U.S. House of Subcommittee on Select Education on October 6, 2003. Not only do HSI improve access to higher education for Hispanic Americans, but they also are committed to providing academic excellence to low-income and disadvantaged students.

Dr. Juliet García, president of the University of Texas at Brownsville (UTB) states that the mission at UTB is to provide accessible and affordable post-secondary educations of high quality, to conduct research that expands knowledge and to present programs of continuing education, public service, and cultural value to meet the needs of the community. More than 80% of UTB students have received a form of financial assistance. They are students who are predominately first-generation college students. About 93% of the students are Hispanic, and for many, Spanish is their preferred language at home.

The reauthorization of the Higher Education Act by Congress has expanded the educational opportunities for Hispanic students. Funding for HSI has increased by more than 35% since President Bush took office, growing from \$68.5 million in fiscal year 2001, to \$92.4 million in fiscal year 2003. The fiscal year funding level for HSI in the education spending bill, passed by the U.S. House of Representatives in July 2003, increased funding by \$1.2 million, to an all-time high of \$93.6 million.

In the year 2040, it is projected that 70% of the Hispanic population in Texas will be under the age of five. Projections for Anglos in Texas are that 40% will be 40 years old or older. Texas cannot afford to have this growing Hispanic population undereducated, and if it does not provide an adequate work force by the year 2040, then it will not be able to compete in a world economy.

It is recommended that to decrease the Hispanic dropout rates, Texas needs to invest in preparing a better-educated work force. Hispanic high school students need to be motivated and placed in the most appropriate high school graduation completion plan through proper counseling and monitoring for academic progress. Teen pregnancy rates can be decreased if students are allowed to receive sex education and abstinence information in middle school and high school.

Curricular Issues

Education is an evolutionary system. Curricular expectations, test scores, and educational programs drive the different institutions. Educational institutions adapt their classes according to the areas of need of their future students. Some of the factors that affect these decisions are Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) scores, Advanced Placement (AP) test results, and graduation plans. Students are neither critical thinkers nor problem solvers thus resulting in the need to offer remedial courses at Texas public colleges and universities.

Historically, public education has been a complex system with a multi-dimensional purpose. It is ironic that in the United States, one-dimensional standardized tests have become such a widely adapted, and often the sole measure to determine a school's educational success or failure. In 1983, the United States educational system was exposed to general criticism at a national level. Commissioned by the Reagan Administration, the National Commission on Excellence in Education published the report "A Nation at Risk," which criticized the overall performance of American public schools. The report lamented the decline of the American economy and placed fault with the public schools. The article goes on to report to the American people that "while we can take justifiable pride in what our schools and colleges have historically accomplished and contributed to the United States and the well being of its people, the educational foundations of our society are presently being eroded by a rising tide of mediocrity that threatens our very future as a Nation and a people." Texas was the first state to counteract the failed educational enterprise described by "A Nation at Risk" as it launched a major educational reform effort (Luce, 1995). An example of Hispanic scores within the Texas Region One Education Service Center (hereafter referred to as "Region One") is the Laredo high school test scores wherein 98% Hispanics have shown to be improving to meet and surpass the state standards as shown in Table 5.

Table 5

TAKS Scores among Laredo High Schools, Region One, and State
 Spring 2003

Subject	Cigarroa	Martin	Nixon	Alexander	Johnson	United	United South	Region One	State
ELA	40	51	59	76	56	67	51	66	70
SS	57	68	70	88	64	74	69	86	90
Math	36	39	39	65	29	47	34	60	68
Science	31	31	38	60	14	46	37	57	68

Spring 2004

Subject	Cigarroa	Martin	Nixon	Alexander	Johnson	United	United South	Region One	State
ELA	62	53	69	83	70	80	75	84	87
SS	81	77	79	91	80	90	85	96	97
Math	49	45	47	74	45	62	54	82	85
Science	52	44	48	69	45	65	58	76	85

According to the 2005 College Board AP Report, the College Board collaborated with colleges and universities to create AP exams in 34 subject areas. The College Board supports secondary schools by training teachers and developing a curriculum of high academic intensity and quality that will enable students to meet the standards for college-level learning in these subjects. As a result, most colleges and universities in the United States, as well as in more than 30 other countries, recognize AP exam results in the admission process as an indicator of a student's ability to succeed in rigorous curricula. The college credit will allow college students to be placed into a higher-level college course or be placed directly into the courses that match their level of academic preparation. As part of Region One, Laredo high schools are promoting the AP test and the successful results among the students as indicated in Table 6.

Table 6

Percentage of Local Students who took and passed the AP Exam for the 2003 – 2004 School Year

Status	Cigarroa	Martin	Nixon	Alexander	Johnson	United	United South	Region One	State
Tested	13	14	6	10	N/A	11	30	17	16
Passed	53	43	28	55	N/A	68	72	36	51

The table reflects the students who graduated from high school under the three most common types of high school diplomas granted: Minimum High School Plan (MHSP), Recommended High School Plan (RHSP), and Distinguished Achievement Plan (DAP). Under the MHSP, a student is required to obtain a minimum of 22 credits to graduate. The RHSP requires a student to obtain 24 credits, including AP courses, to graduate. Under

the DAP, a student is required to obtain 24 credits, including AP courses, and earn four measures. Table 7 indicates the number of students who graduated with a RHSP or DAP.

Table 7
Percentage of Students in Laredo who graduated with RHSP and DAP in the State for the 2003 – 2004 School Year

Type	Cigarroa	Martin	Nixon	Alexander	Johnson	United	United South	Region One	State
RHSP/DAP	85	94	93	88	N/A	86	77	78	64

A student’s academic preparedness, as indicated by the type of high school diploma received, is a critical characteristic for predicting the student’s future success in higher education. Increasing the graduation rate would have the greatest impact on achieving the state’s goal of increasing the number of students that are better prepared for college. According to Table 8, Laredo high school completion rates have exceeded state rates.

Table 8
Percentage Comparison of the 2002 – 2003 Completion Rates among Laredo High Schools, Region One, and State

Year	Cigarroa	Martin	Nixon	Alexander	Johnson	United	United South	Region One	State
2002	92.1	94.1	94.6	99.3	N/A	98.6	94.4	78.4	82.8
2003	96.2	92.4	92.4	98.8	N/A	98.6	97.0	79.9	84.2

In post-secondary education, there has been an ongoing debate on student remediation among educators, policy makers, and the public. Central to this debate is the question of whether remedial course offerings are appropriate at the college level and whether those courses should be offered at all 4-year higher education institutions or restricted to 2-year colleges.

The two Laredo higher education institutions show that the percentage of freshmen enrolled in remedial courses are similar to the national statistics provided by National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) as indicated in Table 9.

Table 9
Percentages of First Time College Students at Texas A & M International University (TAMIU) and LCC taking Remedial Courses since the 2001 School Year

Institution	2001	2002	2003	2004
TAMIU	38	34	26	35
LCC	68	58	62	59

The 2000 survey determined that the most common strategy to assess students was to administer national assessment tests to all incoming students, such as the American

College Testing (ACT) or Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT). Between 57% and 61% of all institutions used this approach. The second most common approach was to administer placement tests to incoming students who met various criteria (i.e., low SAT/ACT scores). Most institutions have some kind of restriction on the extent to which remedial students can participate in regular courses and the type of credit awarded for remedial coursework. The survey results indicate that 82% to 88% of institutions placed some restrictions on the regular courses that students could take while they were enrolled in remedial reading, writing, or mathematics courses. Fewer institutions, 12% to 18%, reported they did not impose any restrictions on regular academic courses for students enrolled in remedial reading, writing, or mathematics courses. In addition, 1% or less of the institutions did not allow students to take any regular academic courses while they were enrolled in remedial courses. Institution credit was given 73% to 78% of the time for remedial courses. Fewer institutions, 2% to 4%, reported giving either elective degree credit or subject degree credit. Furthermore, 9% to 10% of institutions did not give any credit for remedial reading, writing, or mathematics courses.

Local higher education institutions use placement tests for those students with low SAT/ACT scores or low grade point averages (GPA). These students are allowed to take other regular classes while enrolled in remedial courses. Furthermore, these students do not receive any credit for the remedial courses.

In conclusion, the development of high-stakes testing has become a global movement in the United States. In Texas, these tests measure specific student knowledge but should not be the absolute and sole measure to determine a school's educational success or failure because they do not address the multi-dimensional purposes of public education. In Laredo, students have fared well in TAKS, AP testing and graduation rates. The local completion rates have exceeded the state rates. However, there are high percentages of college freshmen enrolled in remedial courses at higher educational institutions in Laredo. To cope with this current situation, we must continue to encourage all high school students to follow the DAP, which is the most rigorous graduation plan. It will help them reduce the risk of having to enroll in college remedial courses.

Instructional Issues

The purpose of the following analysis is to explore Alternative Certification Programs (ACP) and the impact such programs have had on student success. The focus of Texas education policy has switched from ensuring competency in basic skills to a more rigorous curriculum focusing on problem-solving and higher-order thinking skills (Texas Education Agency, 1995). With this in mind, and the emerging need of a population of students that is increasingly more diverse, state education officials began to focus their efforts on teacher education programs and the changing of these programs in order to meet current federal legislation, namely that all students can succeed. Subsequently, there has been a big change in preparation routes many teachers end up taking in order to comply with certification standards.

According to information released from the State Board for Educator Certification (SBEC), demographics of first-year teachers have stayed consistent over a period of 4 years from 1999 to 2003. The ratio of females to males also remained stable. Ethnic

groups stayed pretty much on level although there was an increase in Hispanic teachers from 22% to 26%. Overall, first-year teachers in Texas were predominately female and white. Where there was a big change was the preparation routes many teachers wound up taking in order to comply with teacher certification standards. Between 1999 and 2003, there was a steady shift from the traditional undergraduate preparation programs to more post-baccalaureate, alternative certification routes. According to Herbert (2003), this route appears to be on track to become the primary source of new teachers in Texas within the next ten years. To answer the question of whether alternative certification is working, we need to first research the ACP and what it has to offer to prospective teachers and whether the alternative education route has an impact on teacher success.

Program distribution indicates a slow decline from 66% of teachers going the traditional university route in 1999 to 45% in 2003. Subsequently, the percentage of teachers going through alternative certification increased from 17% to 34%. On Table 10, information taken from SBEC shows this increase.

Table 10
Percentage of Beginning Teachers by Year of Initial Certification

Degree Route	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Undergraduate	66%	70%	65%	54%	46%
Post-Baccalaureate	17%	8%	10%	19%	19%
Alternative	17%	22%	25%	27%	35%

Furthermore, percentages of Hispanics in alternative education routes rose significantly from 20% in 1999 to 35% as indicated in Table 11.

Table 11
Percentage of Hispanics by Year of Initial Certification

Degree Route	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Undergraduate	69%	71%	65%	57%	51%
Post-Baccalaureate	11%	5%	7%	14%	14%
Alternative	20%	24%	28%	29%	35%

This increase is significant given that the ethnic composition of the state continues to show an increase in the Hispanics population. These teachers continue to fill high need specialization subjects, such as bilingual education and special education positions. According to a study done in the National Center for Alternative Certification, large inner cities have huge school districts that oversee many very large schools enroll high proportions of students from many racial/ethnic groups and from high poverty areas. One-fourth of the students in this country are enrolled in inner city schools (Feistritzer, Haar, Hobar, & Scullian, 2005).

As stated, the impact these teachers have on student learning is profound. Students are in need of specialized instruction in the areas of bilingual education, special

education, math, and science. Teachers that go through the alternative certification route are more likely to begin their teaching careers in these areas. The effects they have on student learning are also very significant, given the high stakes of the testing accountability system in place in Texas. Research suggests that teachers who come through the ACP have success because of the fact that most of them have been successful in their previous occupations and bring with them a wealth of practical knowledge and positive experiences that can be utilized in the classroom and everyday teaching (Cimusz, Coudt, Stevens, & Calderon, 1993).

The demand for ESL, bilingual and special education teachers continues to be high. As mentioned, these are high need teaching areas where the bulk of teachers who go through the alternative certification route are trained and prepared. Research suggests that teachers of Limited English Proficiency (LEP) students must receive continuous professional development in order to meet federal mandates. ACP have been structured in a way as to gear college coursework and best practices in the teaching of LEP students that will result in effective and successful teachers (U.S. Department of Education, 1995).

Part of what has made ACP successful in these areas is the strong mentoring and support the teachers receive while completing their first year. The mentors are required to go through a certain amount of professional development hours yearly and must observe the mentoring teacher at least three times a year (Paige, Reese, Petrilli, & Gore, 2004). In addition, mentees are able to observe their mentor teacher as well as other teachers during the school year. Recently, the use of the Internet and mentor e-mail conferencing has begun to be utilized by ACP. This further reinforces the support that is so critical in teacher success and retention.

Teachers who go through alternative education routes are more likely to continue their teaching careers. In a SBEC study done over a 3-year period from 1998 to 2000, it was noted that the number of teachers in undergraduate programs who quit teaching after their first year was higher than attrition rates from post-baccalaureate programs and ACP.

In summary, the non-traditional routes to teacher certification will continue to be the trend in years to come in Texas. The changing demographic make-up demands there be more qualified teachers to meet the ever-changing ethnic composition. ACP can provide specialized training for future teachers to meet these demands, especially in the areas of special education, ESL, and bilingual education. Student success will depend on how we are able to meet the demand for highly qualified teachers in these areas. The federal government will continue to gather and disseminate data to the states in the form of standardized tests in order for state universities to continuously evaluate teacher ACP and their effectiveness on student success. The success of ACP lies in continuous teacher training and professional development. Collaboration and cooperation with school districts will further strengthen ACP as education continues to evolve in the era of accountability. In conclusion, the ACP achieve three goals: effective and successful teachers, student success, and meeting the state's need for qualified teachers.

For years, professional development has played an essential role in the success of educational reform. Professional development has served as the link between where prospective and experienced educators have been, are now, and where they will need to

be to meet new instructional challenges (Kent, 2004). The overall mission of professional development is to prepare and support educators to guide and assist Hispanic students in order to achieve higher standards of learning and development. Moreover, professional development works best when it is part of a systems-thinking effort to improve and integrate the recruitment, selection, preparation, and advanced certification of highly-qualified educators in South Texas.

If teachers are not given adequate opportunities to learn through sustained professional development experiences, they will have little chance of meeting the ever-increasing demands of our technological society. For this reason, professional development for teachers is a critical component of improving schools, Hispanic students, and teachers in South Texas school districts.

With regards to student college readiness, professional development opportunities for educators in school districts that comprise Region One have recently revolved around a program offered exclusively through the College Board Web site. SpringBoard is a teacher-based program that prepares students in grades 6-12 with the critical thinking, reasoning and writing skills they need to be successful in college. SpringBoard is a unique program designed around the rigorous College Board Standards for College Success (College Board, 2005).

The opportunities for teachers to prepare Hispanic students for college readiness are available through the state-of-the-art SpringBoard training system. The problem arises when the goals and objectives of the program conflict with the low number of students participating in the school's AP program. Another problem arises when students' perceptions of college readiness differs with teachers' perceptions of college readiness for their students. Beginning in the Fall of 2002, Region One began a research project relating to the national educational initiative, Gaining Early Awareness and Readiness for Undergraduate Programs (GEAR UP). The research population consists of over 6,000 freshmen students from 22 low socio-economic status high schools between Laredo and Brownsville, and the population's educational progress from school year to school year will continue to be noted up to their graduation dates. Preliminary data provided through Region One indicates that although 96% of the research population think that they will attend college and 89% feel that they will graduate from a post-secondary educational institution, between 20% and 25% of the teachers from these sample schools feel that these students are prepared to succeed at the college level. Educational opportunities to prepare students for college readiness are available through the AP program, yet low numbers of students enrolled in such programs exist throughout the region. And as indicated in an aforementioned statement, student and teacher perceptions of college readiness differ from one another (Leal, personal interview, 2005).

The opportunity for Hispanic students to involve themselves in college readiness courses (e.g., AP classes) is available as part of the Texas public school system. Students in South Texas schools can enroll in such courses with encouragement and support from their counselors and teachers. Ultimately school administrators are held accountable for their students' performance rates and should therefore fulfill their commitment of providing high-quality professional development. The direct relationship between low student participation

in AP classes and low teacher belief that students are prepared for college is attributed to effective staff development training necessary to strengthen teachers' instructional strategies to meet learners' needs.

Academic Assessment Issues

Nearly half of the 2004 high school graduates (e.g., approximately 2.9 million) took a national assessment as reported by the College Board. There is a select group of students who take the College Board tests; thus, the results of these tests should not be applied to a specific subgroup, school, district, region or state (Using Aggregate ACT Scores, 2002). Only the most recent examination results are used by the College Board in preparation of their reports whenever a student takes a national assessment such as the ACT or SAT more than once.

Even though there was a 0.1 score increase on the ACT for Hispanics in Region One, Hispanics obtained lower ACT score when compared to Hispanics in Texas and in the United States. There are more Hispanics in Region One and in Texas who are electing to take the ACT or SAT and are showing a 0.4% increase in At/Above Criterion standard.

Table 12
 SAT Mean Score

SAT results	Texas-Hispanics	Region One Hispanics	Texas wide	Region One	National - Hispanics	Nation wide
2004	-	-	992	-	909	1026
2003	891	887	989/993	903	-	-
2002	893	889	986	904	-	-

Note. From Texas Education Agency AEIS Region One Performance Report & 2004 College Bound Seniors: A Profile of SAT Program Test-Takers.

As reflected in Table 12, from 2002 to 2003 there was a decrease in the SAT mean score for Hispanics in Texas and in Region One. The data in the table above clearly shows that Hispanics in Texas and in Region One are scoring approximately 20 to 22 points lower than Hispanics in the United States.

Table 13
 Percentage of Students Enrolled in Advanced Courses

Advanced Courses	Texas - Hispanics	Region One - Hispanics	Texas wide	Region One
2002-2003	15.2	20.7	19.7	21.4
2001-2002	14.9	19.7	19.4	20.4

Note. From Texas Education Agency AEIS Region One Performance Report. In Table 13, there is evidence that more Hispanics in Texas and in Region One are enrolling in advanced courses.

Table 14

Percentage of Students in Grades 11 and 12 who took at least one AP/IB Exam

AP/IB Results	Texas - Hispanics	Region One - Hispanics	Texas wide	Region One
2003	12.2	16.5	16.1	17.5
2002	11.4	16.3	15.0	17.2

Note. From Texas Education Agency AEIS Region One Performance Report.

As a result of more Hispanic students taking advanced courses, which is denoted in Table 14, the State of Texas and Region One, has seen an increase in the percentage of Hispanic students who took at least one AP and/or International Baccalaureate Organizations (IB) exam. Across Texas, there was a drop in the percentage of examinees who have at least one AP/IB score At/Above the Criterion (3_AP or 4_IB); however, there was an increase in the percentage of Hispanics in Texas and in Region One who scored At/Above Criterion.

Table 15

Percentage of Students who Graduated under RHSP or DAP

RHSP/DAP Graduates	Texas - Hispanics	Region One - Hispanics	Texas wide	Region One
2003	63.3	77.5	63.7	78.0
2002	58.1	73.4	58.2	74.0

Note. From Texas Education Agency AEIS Region One Performance Report.

Table 15 data reveals that Texas has seen an increase across the state in the percentage of students who are graduating under the RHSP or the DAP.

Table 16

Percentage of Students who achieved College Readiness in Math and English Language Arts as per the Texas Success Initiative (TSI)

College Readiness - TSI	Texas - Hispanics	Region One - Hispanics	Texas wide	Region One
Math 2004	29.0	31.0	43.0	33.0
ELA 2004	20.0	22.0	29.0	24.0

Note. From Texas Education Agency AEIS Region One Performance Report.

As reflected in Table 16, the percentage of students who achieved “College Readiness” in math and English Language Arts as per the TSI has increased by at least 9% for Hispanics in Texas and in Region One; however, Texas-wide there was a significant increase of 14%. The TSI began in 2003, after the 77th Legislature replaced the Texas Academic Skills Program (TASP) with the Texas Higher Education Assessment (THEA) to assess and in order to improve college readiness in reading, writing, and mathematics among high school graduates. Students’ TAKS scores may be used to determine if a student is ready for

college. In addition, colleges and universities may use different examinations to determine if a student is college ready (Glossary for the AEIS, 2004).

With reference to the TAAS/TASP data, not only was there an increase in the percentage of Hispanics from 2002 to 2003, but also a greater percentage of Hispanic students in Region One met college readiness criteria on the TAAS/TASP when compared to Hispanics in Texas. However, Hispanics are still lagging behind students in Texas who met college readiness criteria on the TAAS/TASP.

TAKS 2004 data reveals that the percentage of Hispanics in Region One in the area of math, social studies, and language arts who met the TAKS standard in Grade 11 are higher than Hispanics in Texas. In science, the percentage of Hispanics in Region One and in Texas who met the Grade 11 TAKS standard is the same.

Table 17
 Percentage of Dropout/Completion/Student Status Rate

Dropout, Completion, Student Status Rate (Gr. 9 - 12)	Texas - Hispanics	Region One - Hispanics	Texas wide	Region One
Graduated 2003	77.3	79.9	84.2	80.5
Graduated 2002	75.7	78.4	82.8	79.1
Received GED 2003	2.9	1.7	3.3	1.8
Received GED 2002	3.7	2.0	4.1	2.1
Continued HS 2003	12.6	12.2	7.9	11.8
Continued HS 2002	12.8	12.8	8.0	12.4
Dropped out (4-yr) 2003	7.1	6.2	4.5	5.9
Dropped out (4-yr) 2002	7.8	6.8	5.0	6.5

Note. From Texas Education Agency AEIS Region One Performance Report. Table 17 shows that more Hispanics in Texas and in Region One are graduating from high school and fewer Hispanics are dropping out. This data contradicts longitudinal dropout rates referenced in Table 1.

Finally, there is an inverse relationship between a family’s income and students’ average ACT composite score and SAT combined score. For example if the family income is less than \$18,000, the average ACT score is 18.0; however, if the family income is more than \$100,000, the average ACT composite score is 23.5. If the family income is less than \$10,000, the average SAT score is 872; however, if the family income is more than \$100,000, the average SAT composite score is 1115.

Similarly, other correlations were found in the “2004 College-Bound Seniors: A Profile of SAT Program Test-Takers” report prepared by the College Board SAT Summary Reporting Service (SRS). For example, parental education may also impact a student’s SAT combined score. Students with parents who have no high school diploma will obtain a combined SAT score of 860; wherein students whose parents have a graduate degree obtain a combined SAT score of 1122. Furthermore, students who use a calculator almost every day obtain a combined SAT score of 1063, which is higher than students who use a

calculator once or twice weekly or less and scored a 963 combined score. Also, students who took the Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test (PSAT) and/or National Merit Scholarship Qualifying Test (NMQST) as a junior, sophomore, or younger obtained a higher SAT combined score of 1047 compared to students who did not take the PSAT and scored 948. Finally, students from large cities scored 1000, which is lower than students from suburban towns who scored 1066.

It is important to note there has been an increase from 2002-2003 of more Hispanics in Texas and in Region One enrolling in rigorous courses and taking national and AP/IB assessments. Furthermore, in most evaluation and assessment instruments, Hispanics in Texas and in Region One have shown an increase in scores except on the SAT. More Hispanics are enrolled in advanced courses and passing At/Above the Criterion score in Region One when compared to Hispanics in Texas and all students in Texas. However, Hispanics in Texas and in Region One are still lagging behind the Texas-wide percentage of students who achieved "college readiness" on math and English language arts as well as on national (i.e., ACT/SAT) and state (i.e., TAKS) assessments. When there is an increase in the number of students in a subgroup (i.e., Hispanics) testing, there may be an initial decrease or stagnation on the overall success of a particular subgroup. Comparing 2003 and 2004 SAT scores, the two fastest-growing groups of SAT takers were Mexican American and Other Hispanic students (SAT Scores Hold Steady, 2005). The key to college success is taking challenging courses in high school and studying hard (Average National ACT Score Rises, 2004). Overall, the study of advanced math has increased, yet the study of English composition and grammar has decreased. Moreover, enrollment in advanced courses that affects SAT scores varies by race or ethnicity. There is data that indicates an average SAT score will rise as parents are more educated, as family income rises, when students take challenging courses and finally that rising GPA's/grades and falling test scores may signal grade inflation in the United States. The school location may also impact a student's average SAT score (2004 College Bound Seniors, 2004).

Texas should follow the lead set by other states in the United States that require all high school students who are juniors to take a national assessment such as the ACT or SAT. At a minimum, high school students should be required to take a college or pre-college entrance exam such as the THEA, ASSET, Accuplacer, COMPASS, PLAN, EXPLORE, or the PSAT. School districts in Texas can use this data to review and revise curriculum and instruction, to predict success in the advanced placement program, or to identify students' college readiness (Camara & Millsap, 1998).

Conclusions

In conclusion, the results of this study affirm the belief, that Hispanic students in south Texas, as a group, are not where they need to be academically. All stakeholders need to work together to make sure Hispanic students are ready for college. Although there are areas such as AP course participation that seem to show improvement, there are formidable gaps that may be lessened by addressing the sociological, curricular, instructional and academic assessment issues that play a vital role in students' college readiness.

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The Impact of the Dual Language and Transitional Bilingual Programs on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills

Ruth Idalia Castillo
Texas Education Service Center Reg. 2

Jana Sanders
Texas A& M University Corpus Christi

Abstract

“Accountability is at the top of the American educational agenda in the U.S. at the present time” (Lessow-Hurley, 2005, p.61). The pressure that school administrators, educators and parents feel about the accountability in the education system brings a debate about the length of time it takes to learn a second language and about the most effective instructional practices that foster the academic success for these students (Ovando, et al., 2003). This research study compares and contrasts the performance data, as measured by the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS™) in math and reading, between third grade English language learners who were enrolled in Transitional Bilingual Programs and those enrolled in the Dual Language Bilingual Program for at least three years. The results shows that students enrolled in the Dual Language Bilingual Program perform higher in math and reading TAKS™ tests scores compared with students enrolled in the Transitional Bilingual Program.

Since 1950 there have been many concerns about what students are learning and how it can be measured. These concerns and the public perception that students were illiterate brought a reform in education and also opened the door to numerous research efforts that intended to explain how the mind works, how humans learn, and how people use their intelligence to solve problems (Janesick, 2001). Around the same time, two major events took place. First, the United State’s politicians started to compare U.S. schools with schools from Japan, Korea and China. They particularly focused on test scores and argued that U.S. teachers, schools, and students were behind in academic achievement compared with the rest of the world. These arguments provoked a necessity to create assessment tests that could prove the contrary (Janesick, 2001). Second, the “dominion belief amongst academics was that bilingualism had a detrimental effect on thinking” (Baker, 2001).

These two issues, and the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 brought more pressure to educators who needed to ensure that all second language learners made adequate progress in all areas in the state wide assessment, over a specified time period (Lessow-Hurley, 2005). There has been a huge controversy regarding the effectiveness of bilingual education on students’ cognitive development and academic performance. Educators, politicians, and the community in general question the positive or negative

influence that bilingual education programs will bring to the students' academic progress. There have been numerous studies conducted that reveal how bilingual education, when well implemented, can improve students' cognitive development and academic skills (Alanis, 2000). One of the most recent longitudinal studies conducted by Thomas and Collier reflects that students who stay in a Dual Language Bilingual Program for more than four years have a higher academic achievement compared with students who stay in short-term or remedial bilingual programs (Thomas & Collier, 2001).

The Transitional Bilingual Program is considered as a remediation or subtractive bilingual program. "The goal of this program is to develop a student's proficiency in English....Students are expected to move out of a transitional program....after a period of approximately three years" (Lessow-Hurley, 2005, p.12). The time frame, that bilingual programs have for students to acquire English language, creates a misconception among parents and teachers who assume that it takes a short time to acquire a second language (Ovando, et al, 2003).

The Enrichment Bilingual Program, such as Dual Language Bilingual Programs or Two-Way Bilingual Programs' goal is to provide full bilingual and biliteracy proficiency in two languages for language minority and majority students (Ovando, et al., 2003).

Thomas and Collier (2001) also state that language learners who enroll in Dual Language Programs achieve a greater academic level compared with the ones who attend other types of bilingual programs. Although the number of schools offering Dual Language Programs in Texas has increased from 27 schools in 2002 to 48 schools in 2004 (Center for Applied Linguistic, Directory, 2000), the majority of elementary schools in the state of Texas have chosen to implement the remedial or subtractive Transitional Bilingual Program over enrichment or additive Dual Language Bilingual Programs. Even though researchers show that students who have substantial instruction in their primary language for at least 4 years perform higher in the content areas of the assessment test in contrast with students who are moved quickly into English only instruction (Alanis, 2000; Ramírez, Yuen & Ramey, 199; Thomas & Collier, 2001).

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to compare and contrast math and reading performance data on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS™) between third grade English language learners who were enrolled in Transitional Bilingual Programs and those enrolled in the Dual Language Bilingual Program for at least three years.

This study also conducted an additional analysis to evaluate students' performance in the reading and math on TAKS™ regarding English proficiency at the start of the Transitional or Dual Language Bilingual Program. Students' level of English proficiency was classified according of students' IDEA Oral Proficiency Test (IPT) scores.

The students who participated in this study were enrolled in five pre-kindergarten through fifth grade public elementary schools located in a large urban school district in the southwestern Texas. Three of these elementary schools offer the Transitional Bilingual Program and the other two offer the Dual Language Bilingual Program.

Review of Literature

Over the past decades testing has become a major tool in the educational and policy arena both at the local and national levels. During his presidential campaign of 2000,

George W. Bush mentioned the need for an educational reform where all children would have access to higher education and one of the tools to achieve this goal was to establish higher academic tests. He also stated that “... without testing the education reform is a journey without a compass, teachers and administrators cannot change their methods to meet high goals, standards are little more than scraps of paper and parents are left in the dark” (cited by Hillocks, 2002, p. 10-11).

The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 was signed into law by President George W. Bush on January 8, 2002, and it requires all students to be included in the accountability of the school (Lessow-Hurley, 2005). Although, The No Child Left Behind Act intends to upgrade the achievement levels for all the students, it also brings concerns among administrators, teachers and parents of English Language Learners. These concerns revolve around the impact that bilingual programs have on students' academic achievement, their performance on the state mandated assessment test (TAKS™) and how to create appropriate strategies and curriculums that may help all students to pass the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (P. Pope & M. Flores, personal communication, Nov. 11, 2002). Their primary concern is due to the misconception about the negative impact that Early Exit Bilingual programs have on English language learners and their performance on academic assessments (Thomas & Collier, 2001).

In the past, there has been a great deal of pressure on teachers and administrators to acquire satisfactory scores on achievement tests. However, today greater emphasis on teacher measurements and evaluation accountability makes teaching to the test more likely to occur. The Texas Education Agency (2002) claims also that “One of the major concerns about the standardized achievement test is that when test scores are used to make important decisions, teachers may teach to the test too directly.”

The Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS™) test is designed to obtain data that reflects students' academic performance and to present data that shows public school districts' academic progress (Texas Education Agency, 2002). Schools with students who do not perform well on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills test are to be subjected to corrective action such as: replacement of school staff, implementation of a new curriculum, or appointed outside experts to advise the school. The threat of corrective actions creates enormous pressure on administrators and teachers for their students to perform well on the TAKS™ test. Because of this pressure, many teachers direct their teaching to test preparation in the effort to facilitate higher student assessments' scores (Janesick, 2001; Feldman, 2000) rather than toward learning goals. McNeil conducted a study in 2000 about Texas' test assessment; she concluded that schools in Texas spent a large amount of time practicing for the test (cited in Janesick, 2001). Ovando, et al. (2003) states “Teachers feel daily pressure to cover the content of these test, often at the cost of more meaningful and substantive learning material” (p.325). On the other hand, students also have the pressure to pass the TAKS™ test because this test will determine if they will be promoted to the next grade level, and whether they will receive a high-school diploma.

Transitional Bilingual as the Dual Language Bilingual Program has the same goal, “the acquisition of English language skills so that English language learners can succeed in an English only mainstream classroom” (Lessow-Hurley, 2005, p.25). Lessow-Hurley also

claims that the difference between these two bilingual programs consist in the amount of time that native language is used for instructional purposes, and the support or development of students' primary language.

The Transitional Bilingual Program's aim is to move children into English-only instruction within two or three years. The purpose of these programs is to move students to an all-English instruction classroom as soon as possible without maintaining or developing students' native language (Ovando, et al., 2003). Parents, educators, and politicians who support the Transitional Bilingual Programs assume that students' first language will interfere in the acquisition of the second language. According to Cummins (1983), this assumption is based in the Separate Underlying Proficiency Model. This model suggests that the two languages operate separately and with a restricted amount of room in the brain for each language. Based on this model, opponents to bilingual education have the conception that if students' native language is developed, the space for the second language will be limited and the students will never acquire efficiency in the second language.

On the other hand, the Dual Language Bilingual Program is a model where half of the students in the class are minority language students, and the other half are majority language students. This program offers academic instruction in both languages for the language minority and majority students (Lindholm-Leary, 2001).

There are a variety of terms used to describe the Dual Language Bilingual Programs such as: Two Way Immersion, Two-Way Bilingual Education, Enrichment Programs, Bilingual Immersion, Double Immersion, Dual Language Education etc. (Baker, 2001). Regardless of the term that is used, this program supports and promotes students' native language while facilitating the learning of a second language. Jong (2002) mentions different designs of Dual Language Programs such as 90/10 and 50/50. The classification of these programs depends upon the amount of time that the second language is used for instruction. For instance, the 90/10 bilingual model program provides 90 percent of instruction in students' native language and 10 percent in the second language. The 50/50 program provides 50 percent of instruction in students' native language and 50 percent in the second language. Dual Language Programs aim to enable children to achieve a higher level of proficiency in both languages within 6 to 7 years (Baker, 2001; Lindholm-Leary, 2000, 2001).

Cummins (1983) states The Dual Language Program bases its approach on the Iceberg Analogy or the Common Underlying Proficiency Model. He also mentions that this model represents how the languages are interconnected, and even though there is a visible difference in conversation, both languages operate through the same central processing system.

In 1968, President Lyndon Johnson signed the Bilingual Educational Act that provides financial assistance to local elementary or secondary educational agencies to meet the special education need of limited English speaker. The Bilingual Educational Act opened the door to bilingual education, and during the 1970's, Dual Language Education Programs were formed in three other school districts: Washington, DC, San Diego, California and Chicago, Illinois (Lessow-Hurley, 2005; Lindholm-Leary, 2001).

In spite of the Bilingual Education Act, many citizens, legislators, and politicians from different states are opposed to Dual Language Programs and some states no longer

support bilingual education. For instance, in 1987 California eliminated its mandate for bilingual education, and in 1998 votes approved Proposition 227 that rejected bilingual education programs in California public schools (Genzuck, 1998).

Ovando, et al. (2003) conclude that one powerful organization entitled “English Only” has been established to oppose Bilingual Education Programs. This organization is one of the most powerful opponents of bilingual education programs, and advocates for the “sink-or-swim or structural immersion program.” The sink or swim program provides instruction only in English and its goal is to teach English to non-English language speaking students for a period of a year. Supporters of the “English Only” organization have not realized the implications that Proposition 227 will restrict foreign language instruction for all California students including native English speakers (Baker, 2001; Lindholm-Leary, 2001).

Petrovic and Olmstead (2001) maintain that critics and opponents of bilingual education programs claim these programs have a negative influence on students’ academic achievement. For instance, the dominant belief among people, from the early 19th century until approximately the 1960’s, was that bilingualism had detrimental effects on the thinking process and academic achievement and does not have any benefit for the students. Further, they claim bilingualism will lead to social and economic division within society.

Ramírez, Yuen and Ramey (1991) performed a longitudinal study comparing different bilingual programs (transitional and late exit bilingual program). The results suggested that students in Late Exit Bilingual Programs performed higher in math, reading and language skills compare with students enrolled in transitional programs. Villarreal (1999) points out that transitional bilingual programs, when implemented correctly, can have a positive affect on the academic achievement of English language learners, but one of the major limitations that this program has is the belief that English language learners come to school with a language and culture that interfere in their learning process.

Baker and Hornberger (2001) also report that recent research provides evidence that bilingualism has a positive influence on cognitive flexibility and divergent thinking. One of the assets that the Dual Language Bilingual Program provides to society is its aim for all the students to be involved regardless if they are English language learners or already have mastered the English language. The ultimate goal of the Dual Language Program is bilingualism and biliteracy for all the students (Lessow-Hurley, 2005). In 1990 Holm and Holm concluded that the incorporation of high quality bilingual education programs in the schools could promote higher levels of academic achievement and language proficiency in both languages and also increase the positive psychosocial outcomes (as cited by Lindholm-Leary 2000).

Dual Language Programs have the potential to promote the multilingual and multicultural competencies necessary for the global business job market while at the same time eradicating the achievement gap between language minority and language majority students (Lindholm-Leary, 2000). The U.S. Secretary of Education, Richard W. Riley, also highlighted the advantages that the Dual Language Bilingual Program brings to the nation in June 2000. He stated, “Knowledge is power” (“Saber es poder”) and in an international economy, knowledge of a second language is power. He assured that the people who speak English as well as another language would soon be a wonderful asset for the

nation. He also encouraged schools to adopt Dual Language Programs where children are challenged to meet high academic standards in two languages (United States Department of Education, Testing, 2002).

Numerous research studies have shown that bilingual students perform the same or better than monolingual students on tasks that call for divergent thinking, pattern recognition and problem solving. These abilities are important elements that may increase the performance on academic achievement tests such as the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS™) (Alanis, 2000; Thomas & Collier, 2001). In fact, the Alanis (2000) study indicates that the majority of the students enrolled in a Dual Language Bilingual Program performed equal to or greater on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAAS), test when compared with students who participated in a monolingual regular public school program. Therefore, the Dual language Bilingual Program may help teachers and students with the pressure that TAKS™ test brings to the classrooms.

Method

Because the purpose of this study was comparative in nature and had a small population, it was difficult to use a random selection. The data was collected from the reading and math Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS™) from the 2003-2004 school year of students enrolled in five public elementary schools with the highest number of English Language Learners. These public elementary schools are located in a large urban school district in the southwestern section of Texas. Three of the five public elementary schools offer the Transitional Bilingual Program and the other two public elementary schools offer the Dual Language Bilingual Programs. The students who participated in this study were enrolled, at least for three years, in the same elementary school.

Participants

This research study included 89 students who are enrolled in two different bilingual programs. One group of students (a total of 31) was enrolled in three schools that offer the Transitional Bilingual Program. The second group of students (total of 58) was enrolled in two schools that offer the Dual Language Bilingual Program. There were 14 female and 17 male students enrolled in the Transitional Bilingual Program. There were 29 female and 29 male students enrolled in the Dual Language Bilingual Program.

Results

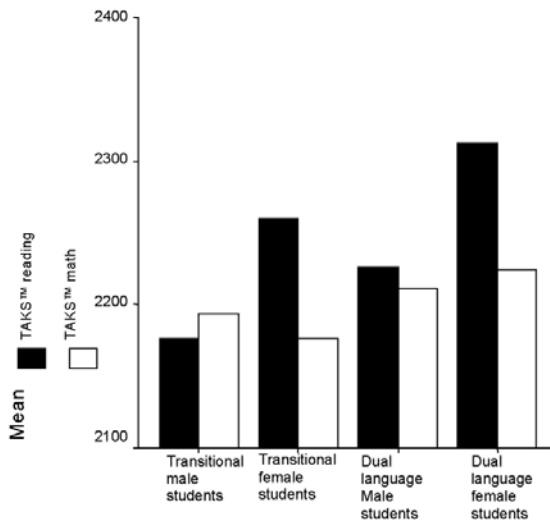
This study used the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to analyze data collected from the reading and math TAKS™ scores of 58 third grade students enrolled in the Dual Language Bilingual Program compared with 31 third grade students enrolled in the Transitional Bilingual Program. The Analysis of Variance shows no statistically significant difference in the reading TAKS™ scores $F(1,87) = 3.22$ $p' .07$ between students enrolled, for at least three consecutive years, in the Dual Language Program compared with students enrolled, for at least three consecutive years, in the Transitional Bilingual Program.

Likewise, there were no statistically significant differences in math TAKS™ scores $F(1,87) = 1.16$ $p' .29$ between students enrolled, for at least three consecutive years, in the Dual Language Program compared with students enrolled, for at least three consecutive years, in the Transitional Bilingual Program.

Though no statistically significant differences were found in the reading and math TAKS™ test scores between all students in the Transitional Bilingual program compared with all students in the Dual Language Bilingual program, this analysis of variance does show that students enrolled for at least for three years in the Dual Language Bilingual Program performed slightly better on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (reading and math) when compared with students enrolled for at least for three years in the Transitional Bilingual Program. The same results are found in the gender analysis. Female students enrolled in the Dual Language Bilingual Program performed slightly better in the reading and math TAKS™ test compared with the female students enrolled in the Transitional Bilingual Program. Likewise, the results show that male students enrolled in the Dual Language Bilingual Program performed slightly better in the reading and math TAKS™ test compared with the male students enrolled in the Transitional Bilingual Program as the following figure shows

In this study the data analyzed was obtained from the reading and math TAKS™ test scores suggests that there is not a statistically significant difference between third grade students enrolled in the Transitional Bilingual Program compared with the third grade students enrolled in the Dual Language Bilingual Program. Although no statistically significant difference was found, it is important to note that the analysis shows that the third grade students enrolled in the Dual Language Bilingual Program obtained higher scores in the reading and math TAKS™ tests compared with third grade students enrolled in the Transitional Bilingual Program as the following figure shows.

Mean comparison of the reading and math TAKS™ scores between female and male students in the Transitional and Dual Language Bilingual Programs for a period of three years.



Discussion

Due to the increased number of English language learners enrolled in Texas schools and the accountability its educational system is facing, this study shows that the Dual Language Bilingual Program may be a more effective approach to promote higher academic achievement on standardized tests.

Several results of this research project should be addressed. First, contrary to what many opponents of the Dual Language Bilingual Program think this program does not negatively affect students' academic performance. In fact, students' academic progress was equal or even slightly better than students in the Transitional Bilingual Programs (Ramírez, 1991; Thomas & Collier, 2001). Moreover, it is recommended that students enrolled in the Dual Language Bilingual Program stay in this program at least five to six years in order to obtain a clear and measurable result (Cummins, 1983). Therefore, in future research studies it will be of critical value to determine how the participants of this study are going to perform on standardized tests in upcoming grade levels.

Pérez & Torres-Guzmán (2002) claim that the role of bilingual educational programs is to help students to develop pride in who they are as well as to improve their academic skills and critical thinking. However, English language learners will have difficulty developing pride in themselves when "in United States classrooms, linguistic diversity has commonly been viewed as a temporary, if troublesome, barrier to learning" (Nieto, 2000, p.191).

As parents and educators we need to be aware of schools that offer the Transition Bilingual Program because, according to research, it is no more than a quick solution for English as a second language. This may even result in lower academic achievement or unfortunately elevated school "drop out" statistics. Of course, the Transitional Bilingual Program is better than not having a bilingual program. However, the authors wonder if there is any strong evidence that these bilingual programs are still offered to our students when "knowing two languages well and being biliterate opens doors to the technological world that is advancing more rapidly than we can keep up?" (Espino & Minava, 2003).

Recommendations

It is extremely important that all schools in the nation provide educational programs that are meaningful for every student. The Dual Language Bilingual Program intends to address the needs for second language learners, and to close the academic gap that exists between the minority and majority students. Unfortunately, in spite of numerous research studies results that show the academic and social benefits that the Dual Language Bilingual Program brings to the minority or majority students (Alanis, 2000; Kirk, 2002; Ramírez, et al., 1991; Thomas & Collier, 2001), the Transitional Bilingual Program is the most implemented in public schools throughout the nation.

The authors hope for bilingual programs that promote bilingualism, biliteracy, and grade level academic achievement is still alive. Currently there is a bill (SB.78) that Senator Shapleigh developed. This bill addresses the importance and the benefits that the Two Way Bilingual Program has on all the students, and establishes a Two-Way Developmental Bilingual Education Pilot Project in five schools districts with higher percentage of English learner students.

This bill can be the opportunity for all students to become bilingual and biliterate, but still it is urgent that school administrators, educators, and parents give their support to the Dual Language Bilingual Program in order to be implemented in all school districts.

Being bilingual and biliterate individuals provide to our society further employment opportunities, cognitive flexibility and the opportunity to learn about a new worldview (Pang, 2001).

It is recommended that future research studies conduct a longitudinal study of English language learners enrolled in different bilingual programs, and their performance on standardized tests compared with the monolingual learners' test.

Another beneficial research project would be to determine if there is a difference in the performance on standardized tests between the Enrichment Bilingual Program and the Dual Language Bilingual Program. An additional, future research project should also include a study to compare and contrast the development of the Spanish language on minority and majority students enrolled in the Dual Language Bilingual program at different grade levels.

It is imperative that bilingual education be appreciated as one of the main educational foundations of our future. Bilingual education must be part of our schools. The school system must have bilingual programs that improve students' cognitive, social and academic skills, and numerous of research studies show that students in the Dual Language Bilingual Program acquire these skills. Moreover, the Dual Language Bilingual Program is not only for English language learners; it is a program that benefits both minority and majority students acquiring another language. For this reason, politicians, educators and parents who work to improve the education in our nation must consider the Dual Language Bilingual Program as the next step to improve educational programs.

Only when the Dual Language Bilingual Program is incorporated as a part of the educational system, will students of the public schools have the empowerment to broaden the possibilities for a brighter and more meaningful future.

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Principal Involvement in the Student Teaching Process: Benefits for the School

Michael Ilgenfritz
Cay Evans
Louisiana State University Shreveport

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to assess the extent and type of involvement in the student teaching process by current public school principals and the resulting benefits to the school. A survey was mailed to 94 elementary, middle, and high school principals in two diverse school districts in Louisiana. Forty-nine (52%) surveys were returned. The results showed that principals viewed the student teaching process as being positive. A total of 79 positive experiences were described by the principals compared to 19 total negative experiences. The three major benefits for the school from these experiences were: 1) the student teacher brought new/creative ideas to the school, 2) the student teacher was hired or was a potential hire in the future, and 3) the student teacher was an extra resource for the students/school.

Rising accountability for school performance scores and student achievement have forced principals today to assume multiple roles. These include instructional, cultural, managerial, human resources, strategic, external development, and micro political leadership roles and responsibilities (Portin, 2004). The question arises as to the priority principals place on each of these roles, especially given the unending problem of never having enough time to successfully fulfill all the responsibilities associated with each one.

Cushing, Kerrins, and Johnstone (2003) reported that principals work from 60 to 70 hours per week and still do not feel like they have accomplished all of their responsibilities. In a survey conducted by the Milken Family Foundation in collaboration with the National Association of Secondary School Principals, high school principals identified establishing a supportive learning climate, dealing with personnel issues, and providing curricular leadership as their top three responsibilities with a shortage of time being a major factor in the lack of adequate attention to these duties (George, 2001).

The survey also revealed that principals believe that quality of teachers, climate among teachers and administrators, quality of candidates for teacher openings, and parent satisfaction were the four most important factors that determine success for a school (George, 2001). In fact, the teacher was found to be the most influential school-based factor according to Stronge and Tucker (2000). Teachers are the key component in all of the roles of leadership that a principal must assume as well as having the most impact on school and student achievement.

Time invested in the process of training student teachers is a primary way for a principal not only hire the best teachers possible, but also provide for professional growth

for the current faculty. The purpose of this study was to assess the extent and type of involvement in the student teaching process by current public school principals and the resulting benefits to the schools.

Method

Ninety-four public elementary, middle, and high school principals in two diverse school districts in Louisiana were subjects in the study. The cultural diversity within these two districts provides a unique backdrop to the study. One parish is the fourth largest in the state with approximately 44,456 students and 75 schools. The parish includes the extremes in terms of location with some of the most rural schools being located in the northwestern part of the district contrasted to large, urban, inner city schools. The district is 62% black and 35% white; the Hispanic population of the city is growing as well and now three schools have been established to house the English as a Second Language programs. Poverty vs wealth provides more diversity in this area with approximately seven school populations falling in the poverty category, two of which are located across the street from Federally funded housing units. Fifty-five percent (55%) of all children qualify for free/reduced lunch.

The second parish in the study is smaller and more rural as a whole but has the unique characteristic of being home to Barksdale Air Force Base. Thousands of base children, with national and international origins, attend local schools. The nature of the base itself with regard to parents contributes to diversity in terms of needs, as well. The district serves 18,686 students in 36 schools with 41% receiving free/reduced lunch. Sixty-five percent (65%) are white; 30% black and 3% Hispanic.

In addition to these characteristics, diversity in terms of other special populations such as students with disabilities is also noted in both districts. Only 19% of the adults in this area achieve a college education with 79% graduating from high school.

The survey, piloted with a group of graduate students, professors of education and psychology, and former administrators, consisted of 18 questions including demographics, the level of principal involvement, procedures used with student teachers, and three open-ended responses relating negative and positive experiences encountered during the student teaching process (see Table 1). Surveys were mailed to all the principals in the two school districts with instructions for completing the surveys.

Forty-nine surveys were mailed back for a return rate of 52%. Percentages were calculated for objective responses. A content analysis (Stemler, 2001) was performed on the open-ended responses. Emergent coding (Haney, Russell, Gulek, & Fierros, 1998) was used to determine categories and reliability (98%).

Table 1. Survey of Principal Participation in the Student Teaching Process

1. Please list each school (name and level) where you have served as principal, the total number of years as principal at that school, the approximate number of students at that school, and the location of the school.

Name of School	# of Years	# of Students	Location of School / State

**2. Have you ever served as a cooperating teacher in the student teaching process?
Yes / No**

If so, please list the number of student teachers that you have worked with on each school level.

School Level	Number of Student Teachers
Elementary (K-5)	
Middle (6-8)	
Junior High (7-8)	
High School (9-12)	

3. If you have worked with student teachers in any position other than principal or cooperating teacher, please list the position(s), the school level, and the number of student teachers that you worked with at that position.

Position	School Level	Number of Student Teachers

4. Do you encourage your teachers to become certified for Supervision of Student Teachers?

- a) all of the time b) occasionally c) rarely d) never

5. Do you encourage local universities to use your school for student teacher placement?

- a) all of the time b) occasionally c) rarely d) never

6. Do you use the student teaching process as a means to recruit and hire teachers for your school?

- a) all of the time b) occasionally c) rarely d) never

The following questions pertain to actions that might be performed by you or your designee. The cooperating teacher should not be considered as a designee but rather an assistant principal, counselor, coordinator, etc. If you do use a designee please list the position(s) here:

When a student teacher is placed at your school do you or your designee...

7. Introduce them to the staff at a faculty meeting?

- a) all of the time b) occasionally c) rarely d) never

8. give them a copy of the faculty handbook?

- a) all of the time b) occasionally c) rarely d) never

9. review policies and procedures used at your school with them?

- a) all of the time b) occasionally c) rarely d) never

10. offer to observe/evaluate them on an informal level?

- a) all of the time b) occasionally c) rarely d) never

11. assign them to the duty schedule?

- a) all of the time b) occasionally c) rarely d) never

12. encourage them to attend extracurricular activities?

- a) all of the time b) occasionally c) rarely d) never

13. encourage them to meet and talk with the guidance counselor(s)?

- a) all of the time b) occasionally c) rarely d) never

14. encourage them to attend all faculty meetings?

- a) all of the time b) occasionally c) rarely d) never

15. become actively involved in the training of the student teacher?

- a) all of the time b) occasionally c) rarely d) never

16. Do you ever consider student teachers to be a burden/problem for your school and its resources?

If so, please list the top three situations from the most problematic to the least problematic.

17. Have you ever had any negative experiences with the student teacher process while serving as principal?

If so, please list no more than three experiences from the most negative to the least negative.

18. Have you ever had any positive experiences with the student teacher process while serving as principal?

If so, please list no more than three experiences from the most positive to the least positive.

Any other comments or thoughts on this topic:

Results

Twenty-eight (57%) of the respondents were male, and the average number of years in a principal position was 7.3. Twenty-four (49%) stated that they had previously served in the role of cooperating teacher. Forty-eight (98%) encouraged teachers to become certified to supervise student teachers all of the time or occasionally; 47 (96%) encouraged local universities to use their school for student teacher placement all of the time or occasionally; and 39 (80%) stated that they use the student teaching process as a means to recruit and hire teachers all of the time or occasionally (see Table 2).

Table 2. Procedures Used With Student Teachers (n=49)

Question: When a student teacher is placed at your school do you or your designee	All of the Time	Ocasionally	Rarely	Never	Did not respond
... introduce them to the staff at a faculty meeting?	42 or 86%	3	0	0	4
... Give them a copy of the faculty handbook?	34 or 69%	3	5	3	4
... review policies and procedures used at your school with them?	31 or 63%	11	1	1	5
... offer to observe/evaluate them on an informal level?	28 or 57%	13	0	3	5
... assign them to the duty schedule?	19 or 39%	7	2	16	5
... encourage them to attend extra-curricular activities?	33 or 67%	8	2	2	4
... encourage them to meet and talk with the guidance counselor (s)?	14 or 29%	22	5	3	5
... encourage them to attend all faculty meetings?	41 or 84%	3	1	0	4
... become actively involved in training of the student teacher	19 or 39%	20	3	3	4

Questions 7-15 assessed the procedures most frequently used by principals in the student teaching process. The two most frequently cited procedures were “introduce them to staff at faculty meeting” (86%) and “encourage them to attend faculty meetings” (84%). The two least cited procedures were “assign them to duty schedule” (39%) and “encourage them to meet and talk with guidance counselors” (29%) (see Table 3).

Table 3. Level of Principal Involvement

Male	28 or 57%
Female	21 or 43%
Avg. years principal at that school	7.3
Served as cooperating teacher	24 or 49%
Encourage teachers to become certified	48 or 98%
Encourage placement with Universities	47 or 96%
Student teaching process used to recruit	39 or 80%

There were 19 total responses to the open-ended question regarding negative experiences with the student teacher process. The most frequently cited negative experiences were: (1) poor performance or ineffective skills of the student teacher-7 responses; (2) high absenteeism of the student teacher-3 responses; and (3) improper dress of the student teacher-2 responses.

There were 79 total responses to the open-ended question regarding positive experiences with the student teacher process. The most frequently cited positive experiences were: (1) the student teacher brought new/creative ideas to the school-23 responses; (2) the student teacher was hired or was a potential hire in the future-22 responses; and (3) the student teacher was an extra resource for the students/school-12 responses.

Discussion

The principals in this study were obviously experienced with the average number of years 7.3 at their current school and almost half (49%) having served as a cooperating teacher. They seemed to indicate a high level of involvement in the student teaching process collaborating with local Universities as well as promoting the use of student teachers in their school.

Procedurally most responses were clustered between the All of the Time and Occasionally. The assigning of student teachers to the duty schedule, however, showed more variation. Thirty-nine percent (39%) indicated that they assigned student teachers to the duty schedule whereas 33% said they Never assigned duty to student teachers. Most universities expect that student teachers will shadow the cooperating teacher and will participate in duty alongside of the cooperating teacher. That expectation could explain when some principals indicated that they never assigned student teachers duty. Not surprising was the finding that only about half (57%) offered to observe student teachers on an informal level. One would expect evaluation of a student teacher to be of critical

importance to a principal and that this percentage would be greater. Again, the time factor becomes a major deterrent for principals in the evaluation process.

Principals cited only 19 negative experiences related to involvement in the student teacher process compared to an overwhelming 79 positive experiences. This finding supports the view that even busy, often overworked principals, can and do make time for involvement in the student teaching process. It should also be noted that some of the time and effort involved can actually be completed by someone designated by the principal. The principal relies on other staff members at times. "He or she often shows leadership by enabling others to exercise direct influence" (Portin, 2004, p.16).

It is, of course, the negative experiences with student teachers that cause principals as well as cooperating teachers to avoid future involvement in the student teaching process. However, a closer look at the most cited negative experiences indicate that these problems can be solved without much time demand on administrators. For example, high absenteeism and improper dress could be corrected simply by a meeting with the student teaching supervisor from the local university and the student teacher without much time demand on the principal.

Poor performance and inadequate skills of the student teacher, which could create significant problems in the learning process of the students, is much harder to correct and should be a cause of concern for a principal. Principals should not hesitate to step in and correct any situation that would be irreversibly detrimental to the students and their education – even if it means recommending the removal of the student teacher. A collaborative team approach, consisting of the principal, student teacher, cooperating teacher, and college supervisor, will often solve this type of problem. The principal must communicate with the cooperating teacher and have full confidence in his/her judgment during the daily observation of the student teacher. The cooperating teacher should view the experience as a chance to practice and improve supervisory, problem solving, and communication skills (Babkie, 1998), thus making this a positive personal experience as well as a positive experience for the school.

Negatives aside and as supported by the findings of this study, the potential benefits to the school and those involved from a positive student teaching experience are definitely worth the risk. "In a successful experience, student teachers and cooperating teachers will have learned from one another" (Henry, Beasley, & Brighton, 2002, p.67). Student teachers bring new and creative ideas with them including knowledge of the latest technologies.

Principals and cooperating teachers should vigilantly observe student teachers for any skills or knowledge that they possess that may be beneficial to the school. Opportunities should be provided for these student teachers to share the skill or knowledge with other members of the staff (Henry, Beasley, & Brighton, 2002), allowing for teachers to experience leading-edge technologies in their field and to refresh their skills (Babkie, 1998).

With new and creative ideas student teachers can also instill enthusiasm and pride into the cooperating teachers and staff. Weasmer and Woods (2003) noted that a cooperating teacher taught his best when a student teacher was watching and that the interaction with the student teacher motivated him to be the best teacher possible.

Enthusiasm from student teachers can be contagious not only to the cooperating teachers but also to the staff and school as a whole.

The potential hiring possibilities are also a major benefit of principals engaging in the student teaching process. With No Child Left Behind and other school accountability programs come the demands of hiring certified and “highly qualified teachers.” However, according to a report by NEA (Statistics, 2004), Louisiana is experiencing a teacher shortage statewide. The teacher shortage increases the competition for available certified candidates. Student teaching programs are the best source of quality teacher candidates (George, 2001) and student teachers are often hired by the school where they were placed. As noted in this study, 80% of the principals stated that they use the student teaching process as a means to recruit and hire teachers all of the time or occasionally.

The principals’ involvement with student teachers allows them an opportunity to actually observe an individual in a teaching environment and his/her performance in all of the situations that come with it prior to hiring. “In an ideal situation, administrators and selection teams observe promising applicants teaching” (Stronge & Hindman, 2003, p.51). It is extremely hard to gauge a prospective teacher’s potential solely on an interview and resume. Daugherty, Logan, Turner, and Compton (2003) found that with student teachers, an individual’s personal qualities, especially creativity and originality, could be used to predict classroom performance. Student teaching not only allows a school to observe a candidate teaching and his/her personal qualities, but it allows it to be done over an extended period of time in a variety of settings. Even if there is not a job opening presently for the student teacher, he/she can become a potential hire for future needs. The student teacher can also be recommended for employment to other schools in the district, thus still contributing to district improvement.

This study also noted the student teacher as an extra resource for the students and school as a major benefit. An immediately visible benefit for a school participating in the student teaching process is the presence of an additional adult to help with classroom management and instruction. Student teachers can be used in team teaching roles (Weasmer & Woods, 2003). Other assignments could include involvement in extra-curricular activities and student tutoring.

Conclusion

Countless demands are placed on principals to fill varied leadership roles while satisfying accountability requirements. Teacher quality directly contributes to the potential for success or failure of the principal in the fulfillment of these roles. A principal must find ways to hire the best teachers possible as well as providing opportunities for professional growth in the current staff.

Principals must allot a portion of their limited time to ensure that their school participates in the student teaching process. Teachers should be encouraged to become certified for supervision of student teachers so the school is qualified to participate in the program. Principals should foster a collaborative partnership with teacher education institutions that service their area. Not only will this relationship place student teachers in their school but it also allows the principal to provide input into the teacher-training program itself. Investment of time in the student teaching process will directly impact teaching thus maximizing the potential for benefits across all areas of school leadership and accountability.

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Relationship Between Select Variables and Teacher Retention

Connie Sue Greiner
Sue Espinoza
Brenda Smith
Texas A&M University-Commerce

Abstract

The major purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between selected variables and teacher retention. 503 students who had passed the Professional Development (PD) Examination for Certification of Educators in Texas (ExCET) between September 1, 1996 and August 30, 2000 were identified. Five research questions were developed for the study. Research questions numbers one, two, three, and four addressed descriptive characteristics of different groups of participants. Research question number five addressed the relationship between the selected variables and teacher retention. A point-biserial correlation coefficient was used to determine the relationship between the following variables and teacher retention: PD ExCET scores, age, TASP reading scores, and GPA; and a phi coefficient was used to determine the relationship between the following variables and teacher retention: ethnicity, teacher education program completed and gender. The results of the study show that there is no relationship between the selected variables and teacher retention.

When a certified teacher makes the decision to leave the profession, it is rare that a single motivating factor can be identified. Research indicates that factors useful in the prediction of teacher attrition do exist. The current teacher attrition rate combined with the current teacher shortage, especially in high needs areas, and the national emphasis on education excellence creates a need for public school administrators and college and university teacher education program administrators to identify those aspects of a teacher's job which predict the inclination to leave the profession in an effort to retain certified teachers.

Discussion

The overall purpose of this investigation, conducted during the spring and summer of 2003, was to determine the relationship between teacher retention and the following variables: Professional Development Examination for the Certification of Educators in Texas (PD ExCET) scores, Texas Academic Skills Program (TASP) reading scores, age at time of passing the PD ExCET, ethnicity, completion of a field-based teacher education program or emergency permit teacher education program, gender, and undergraduate grade point average.

From the database at a single Texas senior-level university, 503 students who had passed the PD ExCET between September 1, 1996 and August 30, 2000 were identified. The master list was also forwarded electronically to SBEC where public school teaching

assignments for each identified participant for the years covered in the study. All identifying markers were removed from the list before being sent to the researcher.

Before final analyses were conducted, two groups of identified participants were removed from the database: 1) 29 because they did not teach in a Texas public school during the years covered by the study, and 2) 56 because they were hired to teach in a Texas public school in the year 2001 or 2002 so they did not have an opportunity to complete two consecutive years of teaching when this research was completed.

Findings

A number of results from previous studies have been confirmed in this study. The selected variables were not predictors of teacher retention. The following table (Table 1) shows a summary of the results.

	503 Total	388 Stayers	30 Leavers	29 Non-teach	56 2001-2002
PD ExCET	79	79	79	79	78
Age	29	30	29	31	28
TASP	270	270	271	266	269
GPA	3.30	3.31	3.15	3.31	3.33
Gender	M-257 F-246	M-193 F-195	M-18 F-12	M-14 F-15	M-31 F-25
Ethnicity	NM-89% M-11%	NM-88% M-12%	NM-93% M-7%	NM-97% M-3%	NM-88% M-12%
TE Program	FB-53% EP-47%	FB-52% EP-47%	FB-57% EP-43%	FB-62% EP-38%	FB-50% EP-50%

A point-biserial correlation coefficient was conducted between the following variables to determine their relationship to teacher retention: PD ExCET scores, age at time of passing the PD ExCET, TASP reading scores and undergraduate grade point average. A phi coefficient was used to determine the relationship between the following variables and teacher retention: ethnicity, teacher education program completed and gender.

The SPSS 11.5 program was used to analyze the relationship between the variables. Table 2 shows the correlations between teacher retention and the selected variables. The results indicated that there is not a relationship between the selected variables and teacher retention.

Table 2

Relationship Between Teacher Retention and Select Variables

Variable	Point bi-serial	Significance (2-tailed)
PD ExCET score	-.022	.652
Age	.011	.830
TASP reading score	-.012	.799
Undergraduate GPA	.089	.068

Table 3 shows the crosstabulation results for the variables of ethnicity, gender, and type of teacher education program completed. The results indicated that there is not a relationship between the identified variables and teacher retention.

Table 3

Phi Coefficient Results for Select Variables and Teacher Retention

Variable	Point bi-serial	Significance
Ethnicity	-.040	.410
TE program	-.018	.705
Gender	-.053	.279

Conclusions

The need for research in this area was based on a comprehensive review of the literature. Studies found links between teacher retention and state-mandated teacher certification scores, standardized test scores, age, teacher education preparation programs, ethnicity, and gender.

Research has shown that many of the variables used in this study can and do have an effect on standardized test scores, but there is no evidence or research to support that there is a relationship between the variables and teacher retention. Especially in the state of Texas, the Professional Development Examination for Teachers in Texas (PD ExCET) is a means to an end. Future teachers know they must pass the PD ExCET, as well as at least one content area test, in order to be certified to teach in a Texas public school. They will not be hired – and subsequently not paid – unless they have the proper credentials needed for Texas teachers. Whether they remain in the profession depends on many things, including views of teacher preparation and training, and confidence in preparedness (Justice, Anderson, & Greiner, 2003).

Further research into why teachers leave the profession shows that the decision by current teachers is influenced by several factors including administrative and teacher-to-teacher support, especially during the first two years of teaching; paying in-school

mentors; reducing in class-size, with a goal of 20-23 students per class; realistic monetary incentives based on achieving pre-determined academic standards; providing adequate teacher-training opportunities related to classroom management and teaching strategies; and essential student discipline and school security guidelines with standards established and implemented within the district (Justice, Anderson, & Greiner, 2003).

Significant factors leading to teacher retention include adequate teacher preparation, positive pre-service experiences, and initial school placement. Research has shown that many problems encountered by first year teachers are reduced in direct proportion to sufficient teacher preparation (Glassberg, 1980; Taylor & Dale, 1971).

Implications for Practice

According to research by Grissmer and Kirby (1993), accurate measures of teacher attrition are needed to serve several important planning and policy objectives. First, attrition rates determine how many teachers need to be hired each year. Statistics show that generally over 70% of new teachers are hired to replace leaving teachers while only 30% are required to meet the needs of expanding enrollments, smaller class sizes, and new programs which makes it crucial for school districts to measure and predict attrition accurately. Evidence from the 1990-1991 School and Staffing Survey conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics shows that high rates of teacher attrition disrupt program continuity and planning, hinder student learning, and increase school districts' expenditures on recruiting and hiring (Shen, 1997).

The second important planning and policy objective listed by Grissmer and Kirby (1993) is that attrition rates, when accurately measured and interpreted, can provide good indicators of the relative adequacy of compensation levels and working conditions within the profession. Low salaries and poor working conditions are likely to lead to higher attrition and point to a need for corrective policies in these areas.

Third, differential patterns of attrition across subjects may point to the inadequacy of a uniform system of compensation. Without pay differentials to compensate those with highly marketable skills, school districts risk having high turnover among those teachers with perhaps a significant deterioration in the quality of teaching in certain areas (Grissmer & Kirby, 1993). The implications of Grissmer & Kirby's (1993) recommendations of the importance of measuring and monitoring teacher attrition can assist school district administrators in recruiting, hiring, training, and retaining teachers.

Research by Colbert and Wolff (1992) concluded that beginning teacher support must become a higher priority for school districts. This can be accomplished by training administrators and experienced teachers in classroom observation and peer coaching strategies with a collaborative effort between school districts and university schools of education. Second, creative and flexible scheduling is necessary to provide release time to peer coaches and beginners to provide opportunities to build trusting relationships that can contribute to increased career satisfaction and retention of beginning teachers. Third, experienced teachers need to be encouraged to participate in the professional growth of new teachers with added compensation that could include release time, additional instructional materials, university tuition costs and time to attend professional conferences. Fourth, university schools of education must collaborate with local school districts and welcome

them as equal partners in the education business. University faculty in all disciplines should be highly visible in the public school classrooms so they are viewed as competent classroom teachers and not as ivory-tower professors out of contact with the real world of education. Fifth, collaboration between universities, school districts, state departments of education, and teacher credentialing commission must continue to develop, regardless of whether external funding exists to support it. Before policy decisions are made affecting new teacher support, all constituencies involved must be included in the formation of policy. Finally, beginning teachers need structured, intensive, and ongoing support and assistance during the induction years.

Further analysis of the data provides implications regarding the current emphasis on state-mandated teacher certification tests and teacher retention. In addition, there are implications for future practice that may be of use to public school administrators. The findings of the study provide public school administrators and college and university administrators and educators with an indication of the importance of effective teacher education programs, effective public school mentoring programs, and the need for open communication between the two entities.

1. Findings may be useful in designing programs to attract intermittent teachers into more continuous teaching in response to emerging teacher shortages (Chapman & Green, 1986).
2. Research indicates that teachers who stayed in the profession for several years before leaving tended not to have found either greater satisfaction or financial reward in the jobs into which they went. People who changed careers tended to fall behind both those who taught continuously and those who never entered teaching in their reward attainment. These findings have implications for the career advising of potential teacher education students (Chapman & Green, 1986).
3. Principals who emphasize identity, competency and efficacy as the three main goals of the induction period for new teachers are likely to develop teachers who believe in themselves and who are skilled at making a difference in the lives of young people. Principals who keep good teachers are those who provide an environment in which new teachers develop competence, gain a sense of efficacy, and take pride in being teachers (Jorissen, 2002).
4. Influence administrator formulation of policies regarding accountability issues, faculty instructional strategies and content selection in the courses, and student performance on teacher certification tests (Simonsson & Poelzer 2002).
5. Knowledge and information on how to select or prepare students effectively for teacher certification is central in both higher education and school districts (Simonsson & Poelzer, 2002)

Recommendations for Further Study

Several areas for further research are suggested by this study and are listed below:

1. Future research should include an in-depth study of the different teacher education

programs completed by identified participants. Changes in the field-based teacher education program and the emergency permit program over the years included in the study could have made a difference in the preparation of the participants to be successful in their public school assignment. Findings would provide practical information for instructional administrators.

2. Further investigation into the reason why some of the participants, who completed all requirements for state certification, chose not to enter the teaching field. Implementation of Chapman's Multi-factor Model to explain teacher recruitment and attrition could be used with this group (Chapman, 1984).
3. Duplication of the study is recommended at other colleges or universities that offer teacher education programs to compare results with PD ExCET successful students.
4. Existing research literature suggests that attrition from teaching is influenced by a variety of factors that are probably best revealed by the study of longitudinal samples of teachers. A goal would be to test the general hypothesis that attrition from teacher preparation and the early teaching years does not necessarily reduce the quality of the remaining teaching pool (Pigge, 1996).

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Crossing the Ghanaian Border University & Public Schools Partnership

Caryl Johnson
Nell Jones
Eastern New Mexico University

Abstract

Eighteen New Mexico public school teachers, primarily from rural, ethnically diverse areas of New Mexico, participated in the Ghanaian Area Studies in Diversity Globalization: An Intercultural Perspective of Rural Ghanaian Villages as part of a Fulbright-Hays Group Abroad Program. This program was a partnership between Eastern New Mexico University (ENMU), College of Education and the teacher-participants and their school districts. The purpose of the partnership was to provide an expansion of international, cross-cultural area studies that would bring a global perspective to the 5th through 12th grade classrooms of New Mexico. A goal of the project was to internationalize the school curriculum for New Mexico classrooms with the introduction to Ghanaian culture and social science issues. Through curriculum materials that were developed as a result of this project, the New Mexico students are getting a perspective of what daily life is like in rural Ghana.

From the beginning, a sense of excitement and achievement permeated this partnership, which involved eighteen New Mexico public school teachers and Eastern New Mexico University (ENMU). The partnership was established when ENMU invited public school teachers of New Mexico to be part of a Fulbright-Hays Group Abroad Program. The teachers who participated in this partnership were involved in a Ghanaian area studies in diversity globalization: an intercultural perspective of rural Ghanaian villages. This was a once in a lifetime experience for most of these New Mexico schoolteachers. The teachers lived in the rural Ghanaian village of Wusuta, located in the Kpando District of the Volta Region of Ghana.

The purpose of this partnership between ENMU and the teachers was to expand their global perspective by living in and conducting field research in Ghana. The following were the goals of this partnership. The first goal was to provide an expansion of international, cross-cultural area studies that would bring a global perspective to the 5th through 12th grade classrooms of New Mexico. By living in and conducting field research in Ghana, the teachers gained a true cross-cultural experience and a new global perspective.

Three elementary teachers in the Clovis School District have carried out one application of this goal. In the fall of 2003, three teachers at two elementary schools and their classroom children were involved in an extensive learning project. The children learned about Ghana through their teachers' first hand experience. After several weeks of studying about Ghana, the children and their teachers had a market day and a Durbar

celebration (dancing, drumming, singing, speeches honoring individuals) the week of October 6. The three teachers began their planning of this teaching unit while they still were in Ghana. As Fulbright project director, Caryl Johnson remembers talking with them about their plans and how one elementary school would host the market day and the other school host the Durbar. The children were to walk from one African village to the next (from one elementary school to the other elementary school). The authors were invited to participate in both events and gratified that what the teachers had learned in this partnership between the ENMU and public schools was being put into practice. There was great enthusiasm among the elementary children. "I think it's unique and fun! We're learning different things about their culture and what they wear and what their daily chores are," said Chris Carby a sixth-grader at Highland Elementary School. J.C. Sandoval a sixth-grader at Barry Elementary School said, "My teacher went to Africa, and she is teaching us about it. It's fun!" Barbara Parson, Elementary teacher at Barry Elementary School said, "I have been pleased with the students' responses. I think it's remarkable. It's fantastic that they get to learn what we saw and heard over there."

The second major goal of this project was the exploration of current issues of rural Ghana from an educational social sciences point of view. The teachers interacted with various university professors at the University of Ghana and with elementary through high school teachers and administrators in Wusuta, Kpando and Vapko. The village of Wusuta had three elementary schools and two junior high schools. The towns of Kpando and Vapko had high schools that the New Mexico high school teachers visited. Through these contacts the teachers identified many current issues of rural Ghana from an educational social sciences point of view. This was one of the strong features of the project. As a major part of their field experience, the New Mexico teachers spent much of their research time in the rural Ghanaian schools. Identifying some of the current Ghanaian educational issues was a real eye-opener for the New Mexico teachers. Among these issues, they found schools with no textbooks for the children, a lack of school supplies for teachers and children, teachers who had not been paid in over two years, and poor physical conditions of the schools. An administrator in Vapko commented that little of the World Bank loans actually filter down to local levels, reaffirming the belief that developing countries have difficulties in equitable distribution of funds. Yet, the researchers found enthusiasm for learning in the students and enthusiasm for teaching and the teachers. Upon returning to New Mexico and their classrooms, research teachers have been sharing this perspective with their students, other teachers, and administrators within their districts.

A third goal of this partnership was to internationalize the school curriculum for New Mexico 5th through 12th grade classrooms with the introduction to Ghanaian culture and social science issues. Through curriculum materials developed by teacher-participants, New Mexico students are getting a perspective of what daily life is like in rural Ghana. The Elementary teachers from Clovis, New Mexico and their Ghanaian project serve as a prime example. The elementary children involved in this project were able to identify and discuss social science issues of the rural Ghanaian people when the program director did a site visit. As program director, I was pleasantly surprised and impressed with the students' knowledge about Ghana and the Ghanaian culture.

The following are some of the curriculum materials that the teacher-participants have written and are currently putting into practice because of this partnership:

- Folktales of Ghana (collection of oral history by High School English Teachers)
- Agricultural Practice in Ghana (High School Agricultural Teachers)
- Ghanaian Nutrition & Cooking (High School Family & Consumer Sciences Teacher)
- Dina's Day (Daily routines of an adolescent girl in Wusuta – Elementary Teacher)
- Mark in Ghana (Daily routine of an adolescent boy in Wusuta –Elementary Teacher)
- Childhood Entertainment (Elementary Teacher)
- Kente Cloth: It's Ewe Origin (Middle School Teacher)
- Oral Traditions and Education in Ghana (High School Teacher)
- Global Influences & Development in Equatorial African: Ghana as a Model (Jr. High School Teacher)
- Cross Cultural Creativity as a Means to Global Education (Jr. High School Teacher)

The objective of this partnership between ENMU and the public school teachers was to expose the teachers to Ghanaian culture, history, geography, politics, educational systems, religion, and social science issues and to facilitate learning within these areas so that this knowledge could be and is being integrated into their classroom activities.

As part of this project/partnership the teachers took six hours of graduate credit through the College of Education. They developed two different research papers. One paper was to focus on and answer three broad-based questions related to the culture, education system, and what they learned as an educator experiencing another culture. In the second paper they were to develop lesson plans that they could use in their classrooms and would share with other teachers and administrators at their school and within their school district. In order to develop these lesson plans the teachers researched a topic that they could use with their students. Examples of these teaching units are listed above.

The following are some of the comments from the teachers as a result of their experience. "Sharing my experience begins this week (August 8, 2003). I hope to dispel some of the commonly held myths that many Americans have about the 'dark continent' of Africa. I also hope to encourage the curiosity of young people about the ever-shrinking world in which we live. So many of our students have never been outside the United States, and they have little concept of world affairs and cultures. This past month opened my eyes to a beautiful part of the world and to a beautiful people. It is a priceless experience" (Nell Jones, Co-author and former High School English teacher and presently adjunct instructor ENMU and Clovis Community College).

One of the questions that the teachers were asked to respond to as part of their learning experience was "What did you learn about yourself as a researcher in a setting apart from your own culture? How will you apply your experiences to teaching?" Jolene Welborn, Junior High School from Socorro, New Mexico responds, "I have always believed

that experience in other countries creates an enlightened teacher, one who will be able to understand and accommodate many cultural differences, especially in a setting as unique and diverse as that of the U.S. The demographics of my target school are predominantly Hispanic and Native American cultures. I had no idea how to teach to the culture. I have discovered that one of the best ways to overcome the obstacles was to gain global perspective through international study and travel.”

Angela Czubak, a middle school teacher from the Red River area of New Mexico responds, “My experience in the Ghanaian Area Studies Diversity Globalization Project truly influenced my way of thinking in terms of teaching about other cultures in my classroom. There is no doubt that my experience in Ghana has changed the way I view the world and how I believe the world perceives me. I am the perfect example of Christine Bennett’s view of how people from different cultures may perceive the world differently, often unaware that there are alternative ways of perceiving, believing, behaving, and judging. With that in mind, I am certain that I will grow in my understanding of other cultures, further allowing me to nurture my students as they grow.”

Terry Pipkin, a Clovis New Mexico Elementary School teacher and one of the teachers involved in the extensive Ghanaian project between the two elementary schools, states, “I will keep Wusuta in my heart. Those children will stay connected to my life through letter exchanges with my students and I will speak to any group that asks me to let them know there are treasures everywhere even in Ghana.” Terry, while in Ghana, wrote a postcard to each of her students. When they started the new school year, she discussed the Ghanaian postcards with her students. This was an excellent way to get the children interested in the new unit in which they were to be involved for the next two months.

The assessment on the effectiveness of this partnership between ENMU and the public school teachers was achieved by improving the curriculum and instruction at the teacher participants’ institutions. Any time educators are able to add a global perspective to their teaching they have improved the curriculum and instruction at their educational institution. The following are examples of what they have added to their teaching units:

- Factors affecting food production in Ghana
- Cultivation of major each crops – cocoa, etc.
- Ghanaian farming tools and Ghanaian agricultural practices
- Compare and contrast climate and growing seasons of Ghana and New Mexico
- Compare and contrast duties and responsibilities of a U.S.A. extension agent and a Ghanaian extension agent
- Compare and contrast food pyramids used in U.S.A. and Ghana
- Compare and contrast student lifestyles and daily activities in Ghana and New Mexico
- Make an Ewe word book (Ewe are the ethnic group of Wusuta)
- Use Ghanaian folktales for a puppet theater production
- Children’s literature of Ghana
- Music and games of Ghana
- Ewe kente cloth – history and origin; symbolism and color significance; materials and weaving technique
- Global view through the eyes of Wusuta

Draw similarities between Ghanaian folktales and stories told in the U.S.

A further assessment can be made on the impact of this partnership and the professional development of the teacher participants. One of the questions that we asked them to address as part of their field experience was related to the impact of their Ghanaian experience on their professional development. The following are some of the responses. "This experience has taught me that travel is an important part of my development as a history teacher. Text research alone does not fully complete one's understanding of a culture. To continue pursuing this kind of experience can only continue to improve my teaching," (Kimberly Scarborough). Alissa Green reflects, "People of all communities are so similar. There are many more similarities than there are differences, and yet it is the differences that are the focus. There is a desire for more and the idea that education is the key; education is always the key no matter whom or where you are. My experience in Ghana has helped me to grow as a person, and as an educator. I have had the opportunity to relate to a totally different and diverse culture, and have acquired new knowledge, skills and attitudes. As a teacher, I need these things to be effective in my multicultural classroom."

"In all these experiences there was a synchrony unlike any I have experienced in everyday life," says Angela Czubak. "There is no doubt in my mind that as a researcher in a cultural setting other than my own, I have a lot to learn, especially as a person from a low-context culture researching a high-context culture" (referring to Edward T. Hall's Theory on High and Low Context Cultures).

Questions posed by Nell Jones. "Defining my personal impact of a first visit to a third-world country almost defeats me. How do I express the multitude of impressions, emotions, and events that I experienced? What is important? What is insignificant? What is lasting? What changes have I had? Have I grown as a compassionate member of the human race? What are the long range implications for me? These questions haunt my thinking as I struggle to process the entire experience." In summary, Nell states, "One thing I do know: my month in Ghana was a totally positive experience. Every day led to fresh understandings and questions."

The teachers' assessment of this Ghanaian project as a partnership speaks for its self and the value of international experience. The assessment made by teachers included:

"International experiences enhance teaching."

"The value is priceless because I'll have memories forever to share with others."

"Value-firsthand experience with diversity; this provides more than a picture."

"Very valuable! Firsthand experiences are so helpful in teaching about other cultures."

"Seeing how others live and work and sharing their success and failures."

"Immeasurable!"

"Just to see how other families live is of vital importance and allows a completely different perspective we could not otherwise attain."

"I have more insight into other cultures that I can share with my students. The possibility of enriching diversity classes."

“I can directly draw on the experience in my teaching of middle school history and geography. It provides an amazing opportunity for field study outside of our society.”

As Fulbright-Hays project director and assistant professor of ENMU, Johnson has visited schools to assess the teacher-participants' Ghanaian projects as related to improvement in curriculum and instruction. The importance of this partnership is clear and the impact is strong, on the teachers, their students, and the curriculum. These teachers have made a large impact on broadening the curriculum and instruction at their schools. Feedback from participants across the state has been positive in the changes that they are making to improve their curriculum and instruction. The project director personally feels that the only way to study another culture is to be actively involved in the daily life of that culture and then share one's findings with one's students and institution.

Nell Jones, co-author of this article, is involved in teacher training at Eastern New Mexico University. She is having an impact on the future teachers of the State of New Mexico and their development of curriculum materials as they make their way out into the education world. She also feels that the travel to and interaction with other cultures is a vital enrichment for the classroom teacher. Nell was one of the participants in this partnership project.

There have been many opportunities to share our knowledge and experience. On November 20, 2003 the project director and several of the teacher participants presented a forum on the Fulbright-Hays Group Abroad Program and Ghanaian experience at Eastern New Mexico University. Local educators were invited to this event, which was sponsored by the Dean of the College of Education at ENMU. As project director I provided background information about ENMU's partnership with the public school teachers. The teachers shared their cultural experiences. Copies of lesson plans that the teachers had developed as a result of this project were made available to local educators. Another teacher has presented her findings to six groups of teachers in New Mexico and Texas.

In June 2004, three of the teachers from this project will present a two hour session at the Teaching Excellence workshop, which is focused on improving classroom teaching. The partnership between ENMU and the public school teachers of New Mexico grows as this workshop is open to all New Mexico educators. Terry Pipkin, teacher researcher, says, “Every day brings new opportunities as a result of this project.”

In summary, the sense of excitement and achievement of this partnership between ENMU and the eighteen public school teachers and their school districts continues.

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South Texas Higher Education: Critical Thinking in the Classroom

Sue Bradley
Jack Bradley
Texas A&M University-Kingsville

Abstract

Changing demographics in the last two decades has increased the Hispanic population across the nation. In South Texas, the minority has become the majority. Current research identifies cooperative learning and critical thinking as major contributors in the achievement of Hispanic students. The purpose of this study was to conduct a cross sectional survey of college students' perceptions of the level of critical thinking activity occurring in their university classrooms. Two groups were surveyed: freshmen and upper classmen. The findings of this study were rather disconcerting as the freshmen participants perceived more critical thinking behavior to be occurring in their classrooms, than the upper classmen. Students gave suggestions that critical thinking could be improved in university classrooms; primarily related to active student involvement, peer interaction, group projects, and class discussions.

"The under-education of Latino students constitutes a social and economic liability for the United States" (Gandara, 2004, p.57). This bold statement opens an article on building bridges to college for Latino students. According to Gandara, Latinos are the largest ethnic majority, yet are the least likely to graduate from high school and go on to college. Current demographics indicate a shift from a predominately European American population to one that is substantially non-white. "In 1980, 74 percent of the population consisted of European Americans; 14.5 percent African American; 8 percent Hispanic, and 3 percent other. In 2000, the profile changed, with a decrease in the European American population by ten percent and an increase in the other groups: 17 percent for Hispanics, 16 percent for African Americans and 3 percent for all others (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2002, p.223).

Clearly, the increase in Hispanics plays a substantial role in the demographic shift. The Hispanic subgroups are also found in distinct geographic areas. Because of its proximity to México, the minority is now the majority in South Texas. But as the student population changed, has the classroom instruction changed? Exactly what constitutes effective instruction for Hispanic students? In a report for the Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence (2002), cooperative learning is identified as a major contributor to the achievement of Hispanic students. "This instructional approach stimulates learning and helps students come to complex understandings through opportunities to discuss and defend their ideas with others" (Padron, Waxman, & Rivera, 2002, p.12). This report continues to emphasize the importance of active student involvement and the need for a

change in the role of the educator from a lecturer to a facilitator of learning. Unfortunately change does not happen with ease.

It's not uncommon to find university professors who see themselves as critical thinkers, progressive and even radical critics of the status quo, but who rely on orthodox pedagogical methods to transmit heterodox ideas...Some of these instructors proceed largely by lecturing, by fishing for right answers during discussions, even by giving grades. And that is its chief lesson that students will take away: not the explicit content of the course, but the idea that classrooms are places where students listen and memorize facts and figure out how to snag a good mark. (Kohn, 2004, p.93)

Since acquiring critical thinking skills is generally believed to be learned over time, it would logically follow that critical thinking would be a continued focus through higher education. What exactly is critical thinking?

Historical Perspective

What is the historical perspective on the development of critical thought and the belief in the practice of questioning? The goal in education today is to ensure that both knowledge, meaning the accumulation of facts, and critical thinking are valued equally. But, historically has this been the case? Were individuals rewarded for critical and creative thinking?

"One of the first thinkers in the history of critical thought is that of Socrates, a Greek teacher from some 2400 years ago. Socrates discovered a method of questioning that, when applied to the leaders of his day, convinced him that most of them could not rationally justify their claims to knowledge. They arrogantly answered his initial questions, but could not intelligently justify what they thought they knew. For this public exposure of the superficial thinking of authorities, Socrates was rewarded with execution" (Paul & Elder, 2002, p.137).

Fourteen-hundred years later the practice of questioning beliefs became acceptable. History has seen the concept of critical thinking evolve to emphasize gathering evidence leading to sound reasoning. The 20th century brought an understanding of the power of the school to virtually indoctrinate students to society. In Folkways (1940), Sumner addresses this issue: "Schools make persons all on one pattern, orthodoxy. School education, unless it is regulated by the best knowledge and good sense, will produce men and women who are all of one pattern, as if turned in a lathe" (p.630). In this text, he continues to emphasize that it's the schools responsibility to develop critical thinkers to produce a good citizenry. John Dewey agreed and emphasized that humans need to be grounded in actual purposes or goals" (Paul & Elder, 2002, p.140). Piaget added the idea that humans need to "develop critical thought that is able to reason within multiple standpoints" (Paul & Elder, 2002, p.140).

As the concept of critical thinking grew, its diverse associations with creative problem solving, the question of behaviors related to critical thought arose. So what is

critical thinking? “Critical thinking is one way to judge arguments, advertising, and other information. It is a skill. Like most skills, the more you practice, the better you get at it” (Wandberg, 2001, p.16).

Davis & Rimm (1994) explain:

Critical thinking as evaluating biases, qualifications and consistencies of speakers, and evaluating assumptions, opinions, ambiguities, whether conclusions follow, and many others. Critical thinking as problem solving includes teaching students to identify assumptions and values, examine different sides of an issue and possible actions and make decisions or else teaching students to define a problem, select pertinent information, recognize assumptions, formulate hypotheses, and draw conclusions. (p.253)

Unfortunately, Gabler & Schroeder (2003) identifies the problem in the following, “Although educators at every level value critical thinking abilities, the skills associated with critical thinking are seldom taught overtly.” She also adds, “The need for individuals to think critically comes at a time when researchers have noted the limited influence of high school and college experiences on the thinking abilities of students” (p.19).

Unfortunately, “many teachers and students currently approach content, not as a mode of thinking, not as a system for thought, or even as a system of thought but, rather as a sequence of stuff to be routinely covered and committed to memory...Critical thinking in contrast approaches all content explicitly as thinking” (Paul & Elder, 2001, p.139).

In 1990, National Goals 2000 included critical thinking in education, and the “U.S. Department of Education established goals mandating critical thinking for all college graduates by the end of the century” (Bush, 1990, p.9)

The question remains: Are students from kindergarten through college experiencing a thoughtful curriculum in a positive critical thinking environment? The following study analyzes the perceptions of eighty college freshmen and 80 upper classmen related to their critical thinking experiences.

Methods

Participants

The study occurred in the southern part of the state of Texas, with participating students coming to us from a number of different schools in the area. Eighty-five of the participants were identified as interdisciplinary education majors with a widely diverse background in coursework. All of these students had already been accepted into Teacher Education, which designates these students as having reached at least junior status.

There were 82 respondents in the Freshman group. These students were part of an “Introduction to Education” class. Therefore, their reflections came from a more limited college experience.

Methods

Participants were given a Likert-type survey (SA, A, SD, D) and asked to reflect on their experiences related to critical thinking in the classroom. The survey was designed

using a series of overt teacher and student behaviors to facilitate student understanding of each item. These behaviors reflect the elements of critical thinking and characteristics that promote a positive critical thinking environment.

Paul and Elder (2001) identify eight basic features of all thinking by stating, "Whenever we think, we think for a purpose within a point of view based on an assumption leading to implications and consequences. We use concepts and theories to interpret data, facts and experiences, to answer questions, solve problems and resolve issues" (p.139).

Current studies identify the following as indicators of a positive thinking environment:

1. Student-centered discussions that feature students raising questions.
2. Students explain, analyze, and generalize topics.
3. Teacher raises challenging initial question, uses questions raised by students, and requires students to summarize points?
4. Teachers facilitate brainstorming and offer student choices in how they demonstrate their understanding.
5. Students and teachers participate in discussion practicing active listening while recognizing conflicting points of view.
6. Teacher joins students in learning rather than simply remaining just an authority figure. (Gabler & Schroeder, 2003, p. 24)

Results

The results of the survey were both startling and disconcerting. On each of the twenty items, the freshmen mean was higher than the upperclassmen mean. The items with the largest differences in means related to whether professor encourages students to expand on answers, whether multiple students are asked for their point of view in discussion, whether the professor asks "what if" or "why" questions, and whether the professor allows time for students to explain their thoughts and justify their points of view. The need for stimulating critical thinking and developing reasoning skills seemingly should increase as students get closer to the work force. However, the items with the smallest differences in means primarily revolved around students having the opportunity to learn from each other, helping each other solve problems, and answer questions. Students having the opportunity to relate new learning to past experiences also had a low difference in mean, certainly indicating a positive effort toward clarity of understanding. The critical thinking survey with the data attached follows, showing the difference between the freshmen and junior/senior means.

Critical Thinking Survey with Data Attached

Critical Thinking Survey

This survey is designed to evaluate your experience in higher education related to critical thinking. Please circle the appropriate answer, reflecting on your experience since you entered the university. Mark agree, strongly agree, disagree or strongly disagree.

Key to Answering Choices:

Strongly Agree = SA Agree = A Disagree = D Strongly Disagree = SD

I. Encourages Student Interaction/Cooperation 4 3 2 1

1. Students work in small groups in pairs. SA A D SD
 Senior/Junior Mean = 2.964 Freshmen Mean = 3.073 Difference = 0.108

2. Students respond to other students. SA A D SD
 Senior/Junior Mean = 3.025 Freshmen Mean = 3.244 Difference = 0.218

3. Students help others analyze and solve problems. SA A D SD
 Senior/Junior Mean = 2.894 Freshmen Mean = 3.049 Difference = 0.154

II. Encourages Students to Justify Ideas

4. Professor probes for multiple correct responses. SA A D SD
 Senior/Junior Mean = 2.682 Freshmen Mean = 3.037 Difference = 0.354

5. Students analyze sources of information for reliability, relevance. SA A D SD
 Senior/Junior Mean = 2.741 Freshmen Mean = 2.963 Difference = 0.222

6. Professor frequently asks, "Why do you believe this is true? SA A D SD
 Senior/Junior Mean = 2.588 Freshmen Mean = 2.878 Difference = 0.289

7. Students have opportunities to relate new learning to past experiences.
 SA A D SD
 Senior/Junior Mean = 2.894 Freshmen Mean = 2.902 Difference = 0.008

III. Encourages Student Exploration of Alternatives

8. Multiple students are asked for their point of view in discussion. SA A D SD
 Senior/Junior Mean = 2.729 Freshmen Mean = 3.134 Difference = 0.404
 4 3 2 1

9. Professor allows time for students to explain their thoughts and justify their point of view. SA A D SD
 Senior/Junior Mean = 2.694 Freshmen Mean = 3.037 Difference = 0.342

10. Professor establishes expectations for divergent responses. SA A D SD
 Senior/Junior Mean = 2.600 Freshmen Mean = 2.841 Difference = 0.241

IV. Asks Open-Ended Questions

11. Professor asks open-ended questions with multiple answers as frequently as single answer questions. SA A D SD
 Senior/Junior Mean = 2.588 Freshmen Mean = 2.878 Difference = 0.289

V. Models Reasoning Strategies

12. Professor uses clear examples to facilitate thought. SA A D SD
Senior/Junior Mean = 2.894 Freshmen Mean = 3.146 Difference = 0.252

13. Professor poses “what if” questions. SA A D SD
Senior/Junior Mean = 2.647 Freshmen Mean = 3.025 Difference = 0.377

VI. Elicits Verbalization of Student Reasoning & Clarification

14. Professor poses “why” questions to facilitate higher order thinking.
SA A D SD
Senior/Junior Mean = 2.823 Freshmen Mean = 3.171 Difference = 0.347

15. Professor allows “think time” following questions. SA A D SD
Senior/Junior Mean = 2.729 Freshmen Mean = 2.976 Difference = 0.246

16. Professor encourages students to expand on answers. SA A D SD
Senior/Junior Mean = 2.729 Freshmen Mean = 3.183 Difference = 0.453

VII. Encourages Students to Ask Questions

17. Professor poses problematic situations. SA A D SD
Senior/Junior Mean = 2.694 Freshmen Mean = 2.927 Difference = 0.232

18. Professor encourages students to explore possibilities by withholding the correct answer.

SA A D SD
Senior/Junior Mean = 2.65 Freshmen Mean = 2.96 Difference = 0.304
4 3 2 1

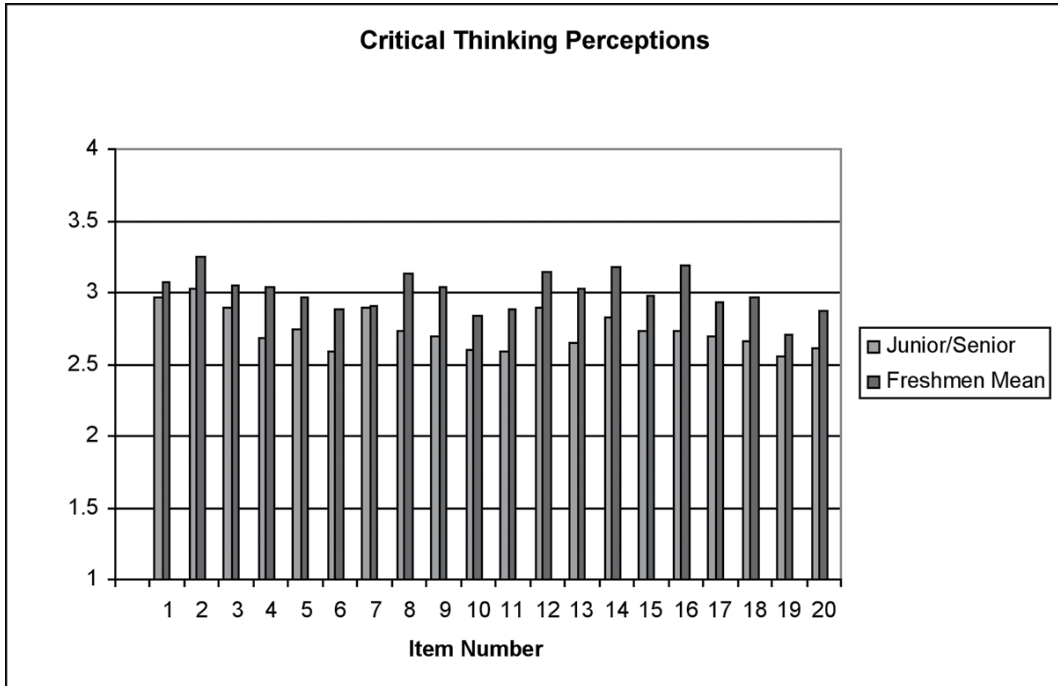
19. Professor encourages students to answer other student’s questions.
SA A D SD
Senior/Junior Mean = 2.552 Freshmen Mean = 2.707 Difference = 0.154

VIII. Promotes Silent Reflecting of Ideas

20. Professor allows time for reflection
SA A D SD
Senior/Junior Mean = 2.611 Freshmen Mean = 2.866 Difference = 0.254

General Patterns

On all twenty items, the freshmen mean was higher than the junior/senior mean, indicating that freshmen students perceive that they are experiencing more critical thinking in their classes than the junior/senior students.



Items with the Largest Differences in Means

Item 16 [0.453], item 8 [0.404], item 13 [0.377], item 14 [0.347], and item 9 [0.342].

16. Professor encourages students to expand on answers. SA A D SD
 Senior/Junior Mean = 2.729 Freshmen Mean = 3.183 Difference = 0.453

8. Multiple students are asked for their point of view in discussion. SA A D SD
 Senior/Junior Mean = 2.729 Freshmen Mean = 3.134 Difference = 0.404

13. Professor poses “what if” questions. SA A D SD
 Senior/Junior Mean = 2.647 Freshmen Mean = 3.025 Difference = 0.377

14. Professor poses “why” questions to facilitate higher order thinking. SA A D SD
 Senior/Junior Mean = 2.823 Freshmen Mean = 3.171 Difference = 0.347

9. Professor allows time for students to explain their thoughts and justify their point of view.

SA A D SD

Senior/Junior Mean = 2.694 Freshmen Mean = 3.037 Difference = 0.342

Student Comments

Perhaps the most interesting information came from the open-ended responses from the students. Students were to finish the following statement:

“I believe critical thinking can be enhanced in university classrooms by:”

Both groups had multiple responses related to:

1. a reduction in lecture time.
2. increased time in open discussion.
3. a question-asking atmosphere will open-ended divergent responses.
4. hands-on projects, challenging activities.
5. having their teachers listen to them, time to think about the question and formulate responses.
6. encouraging students to express their point of view or opinion on something expressed in class.
7. improving the types of questions asked.
8. having smaller classes so small groups are more workable.
9. getting the professor and the students to know each other.
10. letting students figure things out for themselves to a certain extent.
11. allowing students to respond to peers within class time.
12. using critical thinking type tests instead of multiple-choice tests.

One thought-provoking comment came from a freshman who said that critical thinking could be enhanced by “Giving professors a checklist of the survey things and have them implement them in their curriculum. The main problem I’ve noticed is there isn’t enough time to respond and students do not respond because they don’t want to be wrong or in discord with the teacher’s personal views. They fear being “labeled” with an impression about who they are, so their grade may be affected subjectively rather than objectively.”

Discussion

Unfortunately, the results of the study indicate that both the freshmen and the junior/senior students perceive the need for more critical thinking in their classes. Even more disconcerting, on all twenty items on the survey, the freshmen mean was higher than the junior/senior means. We expected the reverse, thinking that upper level classes would be preparing students for subsequent entry into the work force.

As a department, we feel challenged to be models in creating critical thinking classrooms. The three items on our survey with the largest differences in means between junior/senior students and freshmen all relate to increasing student talk. These include items: 16. Professor encourages students to expand on answers; 8. Multiple students are asked for their point of view in discussion; and 13. Professor poses “what if” questions. Are these not skills that prospective employers expect our graduates to possess?

Open-ended responses from students in both groups pointed to a need for active student involvement in small groups and in open discussion. We might have expected students to respond that they were experiencing this type of instructional activities.

Some concern exists if we staunchly equate all critical thinking to be defined solely by our narrow set of skills. The elements of teaching that facilitate critical thinking can vary with the type of setting and purpose for instruction. Educators agree that the purpose of education is to create an informed citizenry capable of participating in global affairs. In all subjects, students use language to master skills, develop reasoning and logic skills, and grow into maturity. Disciplines have joined together to acknowledge their interdependence. These essentials of education include the ability to use language to communicate and think, to use mathematics to solve problems, to use abstraction and symbols to apply scientific methods, to reason logically, to utilize technology, to understand the arts, language, and culture, to apply knowledge about health, nutrition, and physical activity, to acquire the ability to meet unexpected challenges, to make informed value judgments and to basically go on with learning for a lifetime. The purpose of the items on the survey was to stimulate thinking and talking.

It is our hope that instructors who read this study will more readily implement suggested critical thinking activities in their own classrooms. Critical thinking is a process. A simple conclusion can be drawn from the study: Instructors in higher education need professional development, just as public school teachers do.

Are we promoting critical thinking in our classrooms? Wilkenson and Durrow (1990) address this issue in "Encouraging Independent Thinking." Their text begins as if a student is talking, "I don't know if this is the answer you want, but...The student's eyes are fixed on the instructor, watching for a sign that it's safe to proceed...Classmates watch and listen, so that when their turn comes they at least know what not to say" (p.249).

So how does the effective professor get beyond this barrier? "From the onset, we should emphasize that most questions have more than one side. It is not necessary to go to the length of the instructor who told his colleagues they must never utter a conclusive statement...but one should mention conflicting schools of interpretation or alternative explanation where they exist" (Wilkenson & Durrow, 1990, p.252). In addition, sometimes our views change over time and "it is useful to show classes how our evaluations have altered and explain why we have abandoned some of our earlier views" (Wilkenson & Durrow, 1990, p.250). How can we send the message to our students that it is perfectly acceptable to have a differing viewpoint than ours? Wilkenson & Durrow (1990) cited two good examples:

1. Intentionally selecting one of a poet's worst sonnets and then praising the only student who admitted he didn't like it.
2. Having students pretend to be lawyers presenting a case. Both sides of the issue get presented. (p.252)

For Further Study

1. It would be interesting to survey students at the other universities in South Texas, using a similar instrument. In doing this study we sometimes wondered if the participants had a common understanding of the terms and concepts used.

2. It would be interesting to replicate this study in other parts of the country, away from the Texas A&M University-Kingsville area. Professors could survey their students to see if they perceive that critical thinking is happening in their college classroom.

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A Student Suggested Redesign of a Principal Preparation Program

Claudio Salinas
Texas A&M International University

Abstract

Graduate students in a practicum class participated in a survey on changes they would make to the present principal preparation program they were about to finish. The survey of their anonymously secured responses was set into a questionnaire encompassing the range of their ideas. This questionnaire was then presented to these students to access their agreement or disagreement with the range of items in the instrument. Surprisingly, their set of responses was very much in agreement with certain recommendations recently made by the Southern Regional Education Board.

The idea of improving principal preparation programs has been a matter of concern for many sectors of our society for some time (Creighton, 2002; Griffiths, Stout, & Forsyth, 1988). Of recent note are reform suggestions from foundations and professional organizations (Achilles, 2003; Creighton, 2003; McCarthy, 1998; Murphy, 1999; & Young, 2004). One sector whose voice has not been too readily evident in the literature is that of students in principal preparation programs.

This paper describes a program redesign generated as an exercise with graduate students in a traditional principal preparation program at a university in South Texas. Their design was then compared and contrasted with strategies for principal preparation program change proposed by the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) and similar recommendations from other critics.

The SREB proposed six strategies for producing good principals (O'Neill, K., Fry, B., Hill, D., & Bottoms, G., 2003). The first strategy calls for the selection of promising candidates with a high aptitude as a leader. The second strategy calls for restructuring university courses and field-based learning such that the highest priority is the production of principals who can lead schools to excellence in student achievement. The next strategy is for programs to incorporate field-based practice throughout the preparation program so that candidates engage in real instructional leadership activities under the supervision of expert mentors. Strategy number four calls for principal licensure (certification) to be linked to a school leader's demonstrated ability to improve school performance. The fifth strategy calls for the creation of alternative certification programs for principal candidates who are proven leaders as teachers in raising student achievement and have a master's degree. And the last strategy calls for the creation of state leadership academies to cultivate leadership teams for assisting middle-tier schools and for the grooming of team leaders to become school leaders.

Similar suggestions for change have come from other critics. On the topic of selection of prospective program candidates, including recruitment, the concerns and

recommendations by others were on the same theme. The effectiveness of the preparation programs is partly due to the quality of entering candidates. Therefore, select and recruit high ability candidates (Erlandson, 1997; Murphy, 1999; Creighton, 2003; Hale & Moorman, 2003). In the same manner, others also call for the recalibration of the principal preparation programs to produce principals that can make a difference and raise student achievement (Erlandson, 1997; Murphy, 1999; McCarthy, 1999). And, similarly, other critics also call for more emphasis on real world training (Erlandson, 1997; Martin, Ford, Murphy, & Muth, 1998; Holifield & Dickinson, 1998; Hale & Moorman, 2003).

This study arose as a point of curiosity as to what recommendations graduate students in a practicum class, which is close to the end of their principal preparation program, had of the program design at this university in South Texas. No such survey was known to have been done before with these students or their predecessors and this university had just been accepted to participate in a Lighthouse Initiative of the Texas Principal Preparation Network (TPPN). Participants in the Lighthouse Initiative engage in a critical review of the content and delivery of their principal preparation programs.

Two research questions guided this study: (a) What changes would students suggest be made to the present principal preparation program to better meet the demands of the No Child Left Behind legislation? and (b) How do these changes compare to recommendations found in a recent SREB report?

Methodology

The students in this class represented a convenience group. Most were members of a cohort and had just participated in an educational conference, held locally, in which the main theme was meeting the challenges of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) legislation. A good portion of this group had presented papers at this conference. The class consisted of 31 students.

These students were asked to respond anonymously in writing to two questions: (a) In light of expectations coming as a result of NCLB, what do you envision is expected of a "high-performing principal?" and (b) If leadership begins with an effective school principal that can lead school improvement and raise student achievement, how would you redesign the principal preparation program to assure a supply of "high-performing principals?"

Thirty-one students participated in the generation of individual change recommendations anonymously. A list was formed from the variety of responses that had been submitted. This list was further re-grouped into different sets of categories as a new questionnaire with the assistance of a number of graduate students.

The new questionnaire was then submitted to the original set of students to check for the extent of their agreement or disagreement (Likert Scale). Twenty-five of the original 31 students (80.6%) were able to participate in the new questionnaire response portion of the study. Their responses were tabulated as frequency responses. In addition, these latter results were then compared and contrasted with the strategies for producing good principals produced by the SREB.

Results and Findings

The tabulation of the frequency responses to the new questionnaire are shown in Table 1. The first category contained item 1 and it had 75% agreement among the

participants. The second category contained items 2-13. The range of agreement among the students was from 50% to 92.8%.

The students were 50% in agreement on moving the ILD class to an earlier spot in the sequence of courses and also in having the professional paper design revisited. They were most interested in being kept abreast of the latest educational legislation (100%), keeping the class sizes small (92.8%), and being reminded of how students learn and how to teach to the diversity of the students (92.8%).

Table 1
 Tabulation of Student Responses of Categorized Questionnaire

Category/Item	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Entry Standards			
1. Set high standards	3	3	21 (75%)
Classes			
2. Keep classes small	0	2	26 (92.8%)
3. Keep class load at 6 hrs.	5	4	19 (67.8%)
4. Extend Law Class	7	4	17 (60.7%)
5. Attend Board meetings	0	3	25 (89.3%)
6. Combine Supervision and Principalship	4	6	18 (64.3%)
7. Sequence supervision classes closely	2	3	23 (82.1%)
8. Move ILD class earlier	2	8	14 (50%)
9. On-site visits are good	1	2	25 (89.3%)
10. No book reports in Practicum	0	4	24 (85.7%)
11. Restructure professional paper	2	12	14 (50%)
12. Latest legislation updates	0	0	28 (100%)
13. Reminder on learning	0	2	26 (92.8%)
Additions to Coursework			
14. More "hands-on" work	0	2	26 (92.8%)
15. Dealing w/parents/community	3	7	18 (64.3%)
16. Action-based research	1	5	22 (78.6%)
17. Research-based presentations	1	5	22 (78.6%)
18. More problem-solving with critical analysis	0	2	26 (92.8%)
19. Closing achievement studies	1	5	22 (78.6%)
20. Future trends studies	1	9	18 (64.3%)
21. Align portfolio work	0	4	24 (85.7%)
Expansion of Field-Based Experience			
22. Program-long field practice	0	2	26 (92.8%)
23. Train supervising administrator	1	5	22 (78.6%)
24. Gradual participation in field	0	4	22 (78.6%)
25. Work with school leaders	1	2	25 (89.3%)
26. Connect theory and practice	0	2	26 (92.8%)
27. Keep journals/reflections	3	12	13 (46.4%)
Technology			
28. More on technology programs for impacting students Induction Program	1	9	18 (64.3%)

29. Work pro bono at school	0	2	26 (92.8%)
30. Clear list of activities	1	1	26 (92.8%)
31. Work with leadership team	1	1	26 (92.8%)
Symposia			
32. Successful administrators	1	4	23 (82.1%)
33. Closing achievement gap	0	1	27 (96.4%)
34. Discuss real life situations	2	1	25 (89.3%)
Other			
35. Human Resources Manag.	1	3	24 (85.7%)
36. Counseling & legislation	1	4	23 (82.1%)
37. Interviews/Interviewing	1	8	19 (67.8%)
38. Pay Program on Plan	0	7	21 (75%)
39. Job Fair	0	1	27 (96.4%)
40. More exposure to conferences	0	1	27 (96.4%)

The next category contained items 14-21. The students were least in agreement (64.3%) in having additional coursework in dealing with parents and community members and, also, in studying more about future trends.

They were most in agreement (92.8%) in wanting more “hands-on” work such as found in schools like the budget and interviewing. Similarly, they wanted more problem-solving activities with follow-up analysis of the solutions.

Items 22-27 were found in the category of field-based experience. The students were in least agreement (46.4%) in keeping a journal of their reflections on the different experiences. They were in highest agreement (92.8%) in asking for field-experience throughout the duration of the preparation program and, also, to having these practices reflect the knowledge studied in class. Another point of interest was that they (78.6%) wanted school administrators serving as supervisors during their field-practice to have training as mentors. They (78.6%) wanted a gradual progression of participation in the field experience. And they (89.3%) wanted to eventually work with the school administrators at their place of field-experience in investigating achievement gaps and to work in resolving identified problems.

In the category of Technology, there was one item and 64.3% of the students were on agreement here. Induction, the next category, contained items 29-31. Students were in equal agreement (92.8%) on the three items.

They seek a clear set of expectations and activities for the student candidates when at their field practice, to be part of the a school’s leadership and problem-solving team, and to have an opportunity to work pro-bono to obtain real experience.

Another category, symposia, had similar results to the previous one. They seek (82.1%) to have successful school administrators to share of their experiences with them at seminar type settings; to discuss real life situations (89.3%) at schools; and to have them share practices (96.4%) for closing achievement gaps.

And the last category contained a mixture of items. The students were especially interested (96.4%) in more conference type experiences and job fair (6.4%) opportunities.

They also noted an interest in Human Resource management (50%), Counseling (82.1%), and Interviews (67.8%).

Then the above results were compared and contrasted against the strategies suggested by SREB. A comparison of the item (1) about who is to gain entry into the program reveals that 75% of the students want the best to get in. This was quite in accord with the SREB strategy. Most of the items contained as items 2-34 assert a wish to have a revision of different aspects of the current perceived deployment of the program. Most were agreed upon by at least 50% of the participants. This, too, is in agreement with the SREB strategy to recalibrate preparation programs. And then the items that reference a desire to extend the field experience, 22-26 and 29-31, assert at a minimum of 65% agreement on calling for this. This is in agreement with the emphasis of real-world training by the SREB.

The immediate comparison of the suggestions made by the students is that they were very much in line with most strategies suggested by SREB and similar critics. The students were not cognizant of the SREB report.

The students were unaware of the SREB report and did not address strategies 4, 5, and 6 of that report.

Conclusion

The students had plenty to share about how a traditional preparation program can look at itself and improve itself from the perspective of out-going students. Their suggestions were extensive. They also hit the target in terms of the SREB strategies applicable to their areas of concern. Their program redesign was very much like the first three strategies made by the SREB and similar critics.

It remains to see how this information and other similar information can impact this program once it takes a look at itself. The contribution made by the students has got to be brought into consideration along with input from other sources, such as the schools that assist this program. It is all a partnership and all the players have to be involved in proposed changes. Their suggestions are bound to be a part of the program's self-study.

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Sites of Resistance: Responding to Stories as an Exercise in Dangerous Memory

Bryant Griffith
Texas A & M University at Corpus Christi

George Labercane
The University of Calgary

Abstract

The purpose of this paper was to examine the responses of six Hispanic women to a chapter from Cisneros' (1989) book "The House on Mango Street (A House of My Own)". This story, about having a place of one's own, was read to each of the women who were then asked to respond to the story. These women, who came from México and South America, were able to resonate with Cisneros' account given its background. These responses were then analyzed from two perspectives: Rosenblatt's (1978) reader response theory and from the perspective of Critical Literacy (i.e. Bourdieu's, 1990, sociological model). These results served to provide an entry into future research with a larger subject population.

In order not to forget that past, a community is involved in retelling its story, its constitutive narrative, and in so doing it offers examples of the men and women who have embodied and exemplified the meaning of the community (Metz, 1980, quoted in McDonald,, 2001, 259).

As McDonald(2001) states, "Sites of resistance are formed when sufficient people oppose the dominant culture, remember their cultural stories, and imagine a future toward which they are prepared to work" (p. 258). Coupled with this notion is the belief, as espoused by Boyd-Batstone (2002), that culture is a story with multiple authors. And in keeping with the theme of his article, when anyone reads stories, they respond to their reading with aesthetic images and sensations drawn the experiences of their cultural background (p. 131).

Boyd-Batstone's (2002) paper dealt with a reflection of how culture affects reader response in terms of sharing power, negotiating culture, and giving voice. In examining this relationship, he calls upon the work of Erika, a Latina fifth-grade bilingual student. Erika's response to *The House on Mango Street* by Sandra Cisneros (1989) demonstrates three ways that reader response and culture connect: (1) plugging into another's story, (2) telling one's own story, and (3) connecting to a family story (p. 132)

Our paper, in turn, takes up the notion of sites of resistance and, in particular, connecting to the memories of a small group of Hispanic women who form an important link to the Hispanic culture of the Southern region of the state of Texas.

Taking our lead from the experiences of Erika in her response to *The House on Mango Street* we asked a small group of Hispanic women to respond to one of Cisneros's stories (*A House of My Own*). The story was presented to each subject and the researcher simply asked each individual to engage in a response to the story once it was read to them orally by the researcher. All responses were tape recorded with questions asked throughout the session to probe for an understanding of each subject's response to the piece being read. In keeping with ethical considerations, consent forms soliciting permission to publish results of this research were sought from each subject.

Given the limited size of this sample, no attempt will be made to claim that this is an ethnographic study; rather the claim is that this is a "single snapshot" glimpse at a group of Hispanic women whose views on their situation is worth examining for the insights they provides. In a very limited sense, one might see this as a kind of pilot project leading to a more fully developed study based on the questions and insights gained from an examination as this one provides to researchers who are interested in the role of culture and its connection to one's response to literature.

Response to Literature

Reader-response criticism (or theory) is sometimes best viewed within the context of American Literary criticism of the late 1960s when literary texts were seen as works which possessed "an organic unity", a well-wrought icon, or verbal icon, and criticism was equated with a close reading or objective analysis of this artifact (Mailloux, 1990, 39) However, the basic tenets of reader-response criticism are to be found in writings of scholars such as Bleich (1975, 1988), Holland (1975), Iser (1978, 1980), Fish (1980), and Cullar (1975). In addition, there is the important work of Rosenblatt (1978, 1991) whose initial writings predate all of the foregoing authors.

Rosenblatt's use of the term transaction describes what she sees as the fundamental aspect of what happens when readers encounter texts. Simply put, "a text, once it leaves its author's hands, is simply paper and ink until a reader evokes from it a literary work-sometimes, even, a literary work of art" (1985, p. ix). This evocation is what Rosenblatt calls a poem. In her view, the poem is the result of the transaction between the reader and the text. What this does is to place the reader back into the reader-text relationship.

In reading, the transactional process has to do with the dynamic relationship which exists between reader and text. For example, Sally, a grade five student, in her written response to *Pigs Might Fly*, comments, "it's like when you start a new book; for a while nothing happens, and the BOOM. This book is taking too long for the boom" (Literature Log Entry, March, 27, 1992).

Iser (1987) takes a similar view, although the terminology he uses is different and, of course, his views of response to text are somewhat different despite the commonality of his views to Rosenblatt's notions of response.

For Iser, the reader operates under the guidance of the text. Bruner (1986), echoing Iser (1978), talks about the reader text interactions as "something in the actual text triggers an interpretation of genre in the reader, an interpretation that then dominates the reader's own creation of what Iser calls a 'virtual text'" (p.6). For both Iser and Rosenblatt, then, the reader assumes an important role in reader-text transactions. To paraphrase Boyd-Batstone (2002) here, given that the experience of understanding and interpreting a text

is primarily aesthetic and when children engage with stories, they respond to their reading with aesthetic images and sensations drawn from the experience of their background (p. 131).

Critical Literacy

There are several ways to reflect on the teacher's role in teaching children (and adults) to read. One important and relevant goal is to help the reader understand how texts work, including such elements as story structure and how sounds and symbols relate. Another goal is to help children understand that texts are open to a variety of readings given their different histories, backgrounds and experiences. Making meaning, therefore, is central to the reading process. A third goal is to ensure that children experience firsthand how useful texts are in helping us see the world in a new light and accomplish work in a more efficient and effective manner. Finally, a goal that generally receives much less attention focuses on encouraging children to think critically about what they read - to pay attention to what a particular text is doing to them, how it is positioning them, and whose interests are being served by how the text is written.

This brief summary leads us into a deeper discussion of the role of that recent understandings of "difference" pose to language and literacy from the perspective of gender and cross-cultural studies, history, adult and school education, and corporate and policy studies (Freebody, Muspratt and Dwyer, 2001, abstract). As we stated earlier, such a discussion of the role of Critical Literacy is beyond the scope of this paper. Our aim, therefore, is to highlight a few key points as they relate to our discussion of the role of these Hispanic women who talked to us about their experience of being 'on the outside' of mainstream literacy matters.

Carrington (in Freebody, et al., 2001) argues that literacy forms one of the constitutive myths of Western society. From her perspective literacy is neither one definitive concept nor one specifiable practice (p.265). Rather, what we see of literacy is that it is made up of families of literate practices. Literacy, then, is constituted by a series of "contextually located social connections [which] determine the payoffs of particular practices (ibid.).

In this respect, the work of Pierre Bourdieu (1991) provides valuable insights into how literacy and the literate individual may be viewed as sociohistoric constructions (Carrington, 2001, p. 266). In particular, Bourdieu's sociological template provides us with a rich terminology for examining how it is that individuals who are on the borders of literate practice establish "sites of resistance" through their ability to recall or release their memories of response to texts that resonate with them (McDonald in Freebody et al., 2001).

Fields

According to Bourdieu, the social world is a multidimensional space, composed of semiautonomous, structured social spaces called fields (Bourdieu, 1991; Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992). Fields define areas of social activity that are characterized by the generation and use of a shared discourse (symbolic system). In our case, it is the discourse shared by these Hispanic women which represents their social world. Fields are characterized by dominant and subordinate roles played by participants.

Habitus

For Bourdieu, situating the individual within the social dynamic called habitus, is tied to the “particular environmental conditions experienced by the individual within fields, whether material, emotional, or social” (257). In our interviews with our subjects, discussion of the differences in English and Spanish between ‘house’ and ‘home’ became important distinctions which could best be teased out by discussing what these words meant depending upon your grasp of their nuances, particularly in Spanish where the linguistic distinctions permitted a much richer understanding by our subjects.

Capital

Within this conceptualization, Bourdieu envisioned a theory of the economics of practice that would extend economic consideration to “all goods, material and symbolic, without distinction, that present themselves as rare and worthy of being sought after in a particular social formation” (Bourdieu, in Carrington, 2001, 269).

Economic capital, for Bourdieu, is constituted by material, quantifiable wealth. Social capital consists of the connections and social networks on which an individual may draw in order to establish credibility or social influence. Symbolic capital refers to the social potency and credibility that accrues to the other forms of capital when recognized and legitimated within fields and social groups; without this validation any capital has little worth. (Carrington, 2001, 269).

Cultural capital has three unique forms: institutional, objectified, and embodied. As Carrington explains, children come to school with varying degrees of cultural capital. They arrive with the “correct” attitude to school and institutional authority. In the case of these Hispanic women and their children, they come to schooling with a firm belief in the American dream but with a worldview that is infused with all of those traditions that are part and parcel of their linguistic and cultural heritage. In other words, they possess “dangerous memories” because their understandings are, in many cases, at variance with the cultural capital most schools expect.

Symbolic Violence

As Carrington (2001) argues, “The imposition of Eurocentric curricula, learning styles, and behavioral norms, and sanctions against the use of nonstandard English acts as a powerful form of symbolic violence against indigenous and migrant students through processes of exclusion and silencing” (270).

Mrs. Benita’s response resonates with Cisnaro’s account for she, too, recognizes “someone wanted this, I wanted that, but you can’t tell your parents because they don’t have the money therefore, you don’t say anything. If one has a party and wants a stylish dress or a pair of shoes, usually one makes do with what they have” (Interview, July, 2003). Here, this comment also reflects both social and economic capital in that it highlights the lack of important social resources.

This lack of social resources is highlighted in Mrs. Benita’s disclosure that she dropped out of school early in order to go to work and help support the family, “I began to work at a very young age. I didn’t finish my studies and I got up to the fifth grade. Fifth, yes? Yes, I got out before I finished the fifth grade, before I finished out the year I dropped out and went to work. My teacher came to my work and told me that I had passed grades

and I didn't go. I didn't go to the school and one regrets it, one regrets it, but you have to help out the family (Interview, August, 2003).

Mrs. Benita elaborates out how one continues to "have the dream of making my home, well not luxurious or nothing, but for everyone to have their own room" (Interview, August, 2003).

The "linguistic market value" (Carrington, 2001,270) of Mrs. Bonita's discourse speaks to Bourdieu's (2001) notion of symbolic violence. Mrs. Bonita's mode of discourse, her use of language, highlights the fact that this person's nonstandard dialect works against the norms established by a Eurocentric model of appropriate discourse.

Mrs. Benita from San Luis Potosí, México

In examining Mrs. Benita's response to *A House of My Own* (Cisneros), one is struck by the powerlessness of her position. In her reaction to the story, she responds by saying, "Well, I thought about when I was small, well one has dreams when she likes to have things, a house, different things, and well you know that can't be done." Here, there is no real site of resistance. In this case, Bourdieu's notion of Field is raised because it serves to highlight the relationship of dominance to subordination that exist when there is an unequal balance of power between the dreams of Mrs. Bonita and the larger cultural domain of society that is dominated by a white, middle class values.

Susie from Nuevo León, México

Susie's response to *A House of My Own* (Cisneros) is not unlike Mrs. Bonita's account. In Bourdieu's terms, both accounts lack the capital that is inherent in the lives of mainstream families so that the dreams they have are very much like the account that Cisneros writes about. Susie has dreams and these dreams include their children. As Susie states,

Like many, speaking from experience, like also my father, they put all their dreams into a lottery. It is when they play the lottery that all their dreams come out, 'I'm going to buy me this, I'm going to buy me that, for my children this, for my wife this and that' (Interview, August, 2003)

Susie's response is not unlike Erika's response to the same story. Susie plugs into the story when she states that the child in the story felt rejection from the people. They knew her economic position, where she lived, and this, says Susie, is very common amongst Hispanics. At the heart of this response is the underlying sliver of hope that underscores her response, "When parents can't give their children the best they can, there is usually hope. Like that of buying a little house, but at the least it is already theirs, understand? So the hope of continuing ahead is what is usually never lost (Interview, August, 2003).

Tere from San Luis Potosí, México

Tere's response to Cisneros's story is very much like Erika's idea of "Telling Her Own Story". Here she states,

I also thought about a house, a two-story house with bedrooms upstairs and ..., for all the children and to continue to live with my sister, two bedrooms upstairs with everything" kitchen, dining

room, everything in order to live together with my sister and with all the family, to be more comfortable and to live a little better also (Interview, August, 2003).

What seems evident here is that the language used by Tere aptly describes her condition. She readily identifies with Cisneros and with Erika. This is a discourse which does not talk about social advantage; it is a language which reflects a highly politicized social practice in which indigenous and migrant individuals can only dream about economic conditions which the mainstream culture takes as its natural birthright.

Letty from Corpus Christi, Texas

In her response to the story, Letty's comments are instructive when she states,

It so happened that I was living it. Why? I was living more with more ah, who? She doesn't say the name. Like the person who is retelling everything that she lived, well, what she remembered. When she was a child and then continued growing, correct? She kept growing because she went on remembering about everything her parents wanted for her, correct? For he siblings because afterwards the family continued growing and they wanted a bigger house where they could live better with more space . . . something beautiful (Interview, August,2003).

In this response, Letty reflects on the background that is evident in what Cisneros brings to the story. Here, she is able to adopt a deeper perspective than the others. Not only is she able to do this, she lives the story. In Rosenblatt's (1989) hers is a lived-through experience in which she is able not only to live through the experience of *A house of My Own*, she is able to connect with Cisneros's experiences when she wrote the story.

Magda from Guanajuato, México

Magda's response to *The House on Mango Street* reflects her inability to react in a meaningful way to this text. What seems evident is her lack of understanding of the story which was read to her in English. From a schema theoretic point of view Magda's grasp of the story is limited to a few details; she has only a simple story schema to work from and any depth of response is not there because she doesn't have the linguistic competence to delve deeply into the implications of the story. Thus, when she is asked to recount, in her own words, the implications for having a house of one's own, she can only say, "Well, I think to say it's like a family, the father, the mother, and the children. They rented, but they wanted their own house, they wanted their own bedroom, bathroom where everyone could bathe, they also wanted a house on Mango street. What is street?" (Interview, August, 2003).

When asked how the girl in the story felt about her situation, Magda replied, "I think she felt sad, didn't she? Because she wanted to be alone, have her privacy. That is, she had her here mother, her siblings and everything" (Interview, August, 2003).

In sum, Magda could not seemingly move beyond feeling sad and, in the end, she failed to connect this story to her own life and this, it would seem, is linked to her lack

of facility with the English language. In this respect, it is not unusual that Magda fails to respond at a deeper level. If the story had been read to her in Spanish, she may have been able to respond at a deeper level. This, therefore, points to one of the weaknesses in this set of interviews.

Alicia Mendoza from Argentina, South America

Alicia, who came to Corpus Christi, Texas from Argentina appears to have a more sophisticated grasp of this story than that which was offered by Magda. Her response clearly shows a deeper grasp of the story line and implications for Alicia's life,

Well the story in summary deals with a girl who recounts how her life had been in the past when her parents just started off and they were a big family, she had three brothers. They lived in a small, modest apartment, on a third floor in which the building was very run down. Her mother always dreamt along with them in having a better house and she would tell them how it could come to be. They dreamed together that the house they could have in the future would be similar to the house they saw in the movies or on the television. But the reality was that if they could move, they would move to a very small and modest house, whereby the reality of life was another life totally different (Interview, August, 2003).

This elaborate response, filled with detail and with what Langer (1988) would call "envisionment building" displays Alicia's ability to plug into another's story and to be able to tell one's own story. Throughout this and along with her other comments, we can see Alicia's ability to deal with the vision Erika had and to connect with her own understanding of how important it is to dream about a place of one's own.

In looking at Alicia's comments from the perspective of Bourdieu's framework, one is struck by the fact that Alicia's world is, like Erika's, is one constructed by dreams. It is as though Alicia, like other borderland subjects, lives outside the field of discourse as it is envisioned by the mainstream culture. Alicia, like Erika, can only view the possibility of a house from a distant perspective and, even when that dream is fulfilled, it is a substandard one which entails a small house on Mango Street. If there is a dream, it does not contain a vision of a two-car garage with three or four bedrooms and multiple bathrooms. Such discourse is the province of the mainstream world of Americans who come with higher expectations.

Discussion

The purpose of this paper was to examine the responses of six Hispanic women to *The House on Mango Street* (Cisneros), in particular to a story in the book entitled *A House of My Own*. The story was read to each of the women who were then asked to respond to the story from their own background.. The women who came from México and South America (one subject) and had settled in the Corpus Christi area were asked to briefly respond to the story and to retell that story in light of their own experiences as Hispanic women who had recently moved to Corpus Christi. Their responses were then examined and analyzed from two perspectives, namely, response theory (Rosenblatt, 1978 and Iser, 1978) and from the perspective of Critical Literacy in which elements of Bourdieu's (1990) sociological model provided a framework for this dual analysis.

Roseblatt's (1978) model of response applies here where the emphasis is on encouraging these women to deal freely with their own feelings about the story. In the bulk of responses one finds these women, not only retelling the story as they heard it but also connecting with it from their own personal experiences. For them, *A House of My Own* is a familiar experience and one can feel the sense in which these women were able to identify with Cisneros when she writes about the need for one's own personal space, where, in the past, women who lived on the margins were forced to live in substandard housing where little or no privacy was the central concern of all the respondents.

Where the responses lacked a personal voice could be linked directly to the lack of proficiency with the English language and where respondents could not identify with the main character in the story simply because they lacked the language or linguistic proficiency necessary to engage with the text.

At the second level of analysis, we were struck by the evident imposition of what Bourdieu (1977) called cultural arbitrary because the structure and functions of culture cannot be deduced from any universal principle. In other words, these women were on "the outside looking in"; they had no power and could therefore only dream of a house of their own. Now while there is a shared discourse, it is a discourse which is limited because the women in this group are situated outside the mainstream culture of the home and the school. Symbolic violence is perpetuated by the dominant classes in that the women feel no sense of empowerment; they are pawns in the game of housing and we are sure that sense of powerlessness extends to the school as well.

Not only is there a sense of isolation evident in these responses, there is also the division evident in the gender bias that exists in the lives of these women. Men are not here because they are probably even more dispossessed than the women. They have no voice because they may be unemployed and uneducated. At the very least, the women have come to the fore with their desire to become educated.

In sum, what originally surfaced as an interesting exercise in responding has surfaced as a major issue in Critical Literacy. For it is not until we provide these women (and their children) with the literacy tools that will enable them to function as participating in mainstream culture, we will always have citizens who citizens on the borders; they are borderland subjects. Obviously, the road to emancipation lies directly in path of creating critically literate citizens whose voices can and need to be heard both at home and at school.

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Stress, Burnout and Self-Esteem Among Educators

Doris Rosenow

Texas A&M International University Canseco School of Nursing

Abstract

Over the past thirty years, researchers have gradually become more interested in examining stress, burnout, and self-esteem in the teaching profession. The relationship of these factors does not have a single cause; rather, the covarying stressors that educators experience in the performance of their daily roles contribute to the process of burning out and attrition. When the working conditions of teachers remain conducive to the interactive, dynamics of a non-stressful environment, highly motivated teachers teach students to become highly motivated, thus, repeating a positive, productive cycle.

Issues related to teachers' stress, burnout and self-esteem are increasingly gaining the attention of researchers, policy makers, and practitioners alike. During the last decades, teachers have had to adjust to new challenges when dealing with heterogeneous populations posing radically different educational, social, and psychological demands (Tatar & Horenczyk, 2003). This is primarily due to marked changes in the population make-up of Western countries. In the United States, for example, students who are culturally, linguistically and ethnically different from the majority culture comprise over 30% of the K-12 population (Taylor & Sobel, 2001). Within this demographic context, teachers cannot avoid dealing with issues of education and diversity at their various levels (Tatar & Horenczyk, 2003).

According to Wedekind (2001), many teachers do not have the knowledge, experience, or in some cases the disposition to address matters of race and culture in their classrooms. Although teachers generally prefer to teach in school settings similar to those in which they grew up (Byrnes, Kiger, & Manning, 1997), the reality of educational settings today is one of increasing "cultural mismatch and "cultural [dis]synchronization" (Marshall, 1996). Such a cultural clash is likely to lead to occupational stress, burnout, and low self-esteem.

Burnout

Tatar and Horenczyk (2003) suggested that the stress and difficulties involved in working with a culturally diverse student body could contribute to professional burnout among teachers. Maslach & Jackson (1981) identified the following dimensions of the burnout syndrome as: emotional exhaustion (a feeling of being emotionally overextended by contact with other people), depersonalization (an unfeeling and callous response toward these people, as recipients of a service, and low personal accomplishment (a decline in feelings of competence and achievement in one's work.

Other variables that have been suggested as having an impact on stress and burnout are personal characteristics, school characteristics and organizational conditions, including lack of administrative support, salary, student discipline and motivation, class size, inadequate planning time (Ingersoll, 2001), lack of opportunity for advancement (Hodge, Jupp, & Taylor, 1994), the students' grade-level (Tatar, 2001), and length of teaching experience (Byrne, 1991). Ample evidence has shown; however, that teachers lack the information, skills, and support from administrators necessary to cope successfully with these new challenges (Borg, Riding & Falzon, 1991; Browsers & Tomic, 2000).

Farber (2002) suggest the type of burnout today is characterized by complaints of multiple obligations, increasing external pressures, inadequate financial rewards, and insufficient opportunities for personal advancement. It has been shown that burnout teachers provide significantly less information, less praise, and less acceptance of their students' ideas, and the interact with them less frequently (Beer & Beer, 1992). Consequently, occupational stress and its relationship to burnout seem to have a negative impact on teachers, on the students they teach, and directly influencing their attrition.

Attrition

Because occupational stress, burnout, and teacher attrition have become concerns in the human service and helping professions (Wisniewski & Gargiulo, 1997), much has been written about retaining quality teachers. Only recently have researchers discovered retention is more of a problem than recruitment. The National Center for Education Statistics (1997) reported that across the nation 9.3% of public school teachers leave before they complete their first year in the classroom and over 1/5 of public school teachers leave their positions within their first three years of teaching. Additionally, nearly 30% of teachers leave the profession within five years of entry and even higher attrition rates exist in more disadvantaged schools (Delgado, 1999; Darling-Hammond, 2001).

It is difficult to determine the actual percentage of teachers who leave the profession as a direct result of stress; however, in a literature review by Borg and Riding (1991) they noted that one-fifth to one-third of teachers reported teaching as either very to extremely stressful. Teachers who experienced disproportionately high levels of stress leading to higher attrition rates were general educators (Farber, 1991), special educators (Brownell & Smith, 1992) and those who provide related services for students with special needs (Fimian, Lieberman, & Fastenau, 1991).

Bertock, Nielsen, Curley and Bor (1989) cited three reasons which determine teacher stress, all interrelated and addictive: (1) stress events taking place in the environment, (2) the nature and intensity of the stress of resulting emotional responses; and (3) personality characteristics of the person. Teacher emotional stress components were listed as "anger, self-doubt, lack of confidence, exhaustion, hypertension, absenteeism, and early retirement" while teacher personality stress components were "negative self-perception, negative life experiences, low morale, struggle to maintain personal values and standards in the classroom (p. 118). The authors claimed a need for a complex, multi-faceted stress management and coping skills program for teachers with additional individualized treatment (p. 127).

Sederberg, and Clark (1990) studied vitality as an essential intangible, positive quality of individuals that is synonymous with purposeful production and sustained commitment.

They identified motivations as a dynamic force that sustains vitality and identified seven integrated “needs” that are essential for motivation. Without these needs, teachers are left with feelings of insignificance and deprivation. Mills (1991) reported researchers from the University of Oregon discovered a “higher self or metacognitive self-as-agent,” with intrinsic motivation being the by-product of a healthy, self-actualized individual” (p. 67). According to the researchers, individuals vacillate between the “higher” self and the “lower” self daily. When teachers operate at the lower self level they become “burned out and try to use external forces to attempt motivation in their students...consequently, teachers not only experience low self-esteem but also students were found to be high risk with low self-esteem” (p. 76).

Self-Esteem

Self-esteem, the positive feelings self-worth, is an inherent need for every human being and is a key component in restoring and maintaining mental and physical health (Meisenhelder, 1985). For more than a quarter of a century self-esteem has been viewed as the magic key to success and happiness. Consequently, the self-esteem movement continues to represent the cutting edge in cultivating healthy people and healthy communities. Moreover, it represents our most promising and effective means of developing sustainable solutions to our most persistent educational problems of stress, burnout, and depression.

Over the last 30 years, authorities in the field of psychology, education, and healthcare have attempted to clarify what is meant by high self-esteem. According to Rosenberg (1965), a person with high self-esteem is able to express feelings that one is good enough; the individual feels that he is a person of worth; he respects himself for what he is. Coopersmith (1967) describes self-esteem as the extent to which a person believes himself to be capable, significant, successful and worthy. Consequently, people with high self-esteem are seen as more acceptable socially and hence more active, more successful and less prone to deviance (Coopersmith, 1967; Rosenberg, 1979). Rosen (1991) stated that everyone attempts to maintain a level of self-esteem within a given range.

Research carried out on teachers found that those who have high self-esteem—in addition to the qualities of empathy, acceptance, and genuineness—are able to relate personally to students’ conversations and are generally relaxed in their teachings. Thus, students are able to follow and identify with this high self-esteem model (Murray, 1972).

According to the National Association for Self-Esteem [NASE] (2004), 50% of our nation’s adolescents are at risk in school due to low self-esteem.

Parents, educators, and counseling professionals are continually being encouraged to establish conditions that foster healthy self-esteem among adolescents for several compelling reasons. To begin, low self-esteem has been closely associated with many problem behaviors. To counteract feelings of devaluation, some individuals try to balance these feelings by any means, such as recourse to physical violence or aggression, by alcohol, drugs or risk-taking methods. Because adolescents are easily influenced or manipulated by others, teachers with high self-esteem can help them overcome feelings of inadequacy (NASE, 2004). As noted by Jenny (1990), self-esteem is important for teachers to have because it is inextricably linked to the teacher’s ability to communicate to students, which then allows students to empower themselves to be successful.

Conclusion

The relationship of stress, burnout and low self-esteem do not have a single cause; rather, the covarying stressors that educators experience in the performance of their daily roles contribute to the process of burning out and attrition (Wisniewski & Gargiulo, 1997). Respect for and understanding of administrators and teachers roles and a willingness to listen to and learn from one another can make the working environment more positive and productive for both administrators and teachers. Thus, when the working conditions of teachers remain conducive to the interactive, dynamics of a non-stressful environment, highly motivated teachers teach students to become highly motivated, thus, repeating a positive, productive cycle (Certo & Fox, 2002). Often by “changing a person’s situation, that person can be encouraged to change, to grow, to progress-the working assumption being that people can and do change” (Burgess, 1976, p. 7).

Boosting self-esteem among educators can be achieved by the following three steps as listed by The National Association for Self-Esteem (2002):

1. Use affirmations to boost your self-esteem. Write out positive statements about yourself and repeat each statement several times during the day.
2. Associate with positive, supportive people. When you are surrounded by negative people who constantly put you and your ideas down, your self-esteem is lowered.
3. Make a list of your past successes. This can even include your minor victories and read the list often because you will experience the feelings of satisfaction and joy.

Nagel & Brown (2001) describes the ABCs of managing teacher stress.

1. A is for “acknowledge”. The first way teachers can manage their stress is to acknowledge what exacerbates their stress levels.
2. B is for “Behavior Modification”. Behavior modification can help teachers reach a state of homeostasis, such as exercise, meditation and diaphragmatic breathing.
3. C is for “Communication”. Communication provides an avenue for teachers to prevent stress or, when that is impossible, minimize the impact of stress. (pp 3-4).

The authors concluded that the key for teachers is to remember that much stress is within their control to manage using skills such as they have outlined.

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Analysis of the Teacher's Professional Ethical Responsibilities in Educational Institutions

Kamal Dean Parhizgar
Texas A&M International University

Fuzhan F. Parhizgar
Texas Tech University

Abstract

Bullying in the American schools has caused threats for the safety and security of students, teachers, and staff. It may not be exaggerated that the influences of "streets," Internet, and "TV programs" on immoral and unethical behavior on students is more than the schooling effectiveness. The primary objective of this article is to study the urgency of philosophical and ideological doctrines on moral education, teachers' professional codes of ethics, and students' codes of behavior in educational institutions. This article illuminates the introductory perspectives of the "thinking about moral thinking" and "analyzing the ethical judgments" among teachers and students. It bears in mind that teaching practices reflect the moral virtues, sociocultural ethical values, and legal beliefs within which a school exists. Should teachers and students beside their educational objectives strive for the establishment and maintenance of "an ethical culture in society?" The rational answer is yes.

The Troubling Schooling Systems

Bullying in the American schools has caused serious threats for the safety and security of students, teachers, and staff. A leading educational psychologists' association calculated that more than 150,000 U.S. high school children a day stay away from classes for fear of being bullied. The Henry Kaiser Family Foundation showed that 56 per cent of 8 to 10 year olds and 60 per cent of 12 to 15 year-olds believed that bullying at school was a problem more severe than racism, drugs or alcohol (Parkes, 2001: 7). Table # 1, illustrates how the U.S. high school students kill each other for no reason. Through looking at that table, we may realize how the school systems have been converted into battlefields. Who is responsible for such catastrophes?

EXHIBIT # 1: RECENT SHOOTINGS AT THE U. S. SCHOOLS AND ABROAD

Source: Partially used from: Parkes, C. (2001). "Cult of the Football Bully Lurks Behind School Shootings: Life is Made Miserable for the Misfits, the Overweight, the Underweight, the Newcomers, by the Swaggering Jocks." Financial Times. Tuesday March 20, 2001, P. 7. Wysiwyg://2/http://dailynews.netscape.co..ry=20020426114750011722691&shortdate=0426
<http://www.cnn.com/2004/US/South/o2/02/school.shooting.ap/index.html>

1997

February 19: Alaska

16-year-old shot and killed the principal and a student and injured two others.

October 1: Mississippi

16-year-old shot and killed two students and injured seven others after stabbing his mother to death.

December 1: Kentucky

14-year-old shot and killed three students and injured five others.

December 3: Indiana

14-year old boy shot and killed three girls and wounded five other students.

1998

March 24: Arkansas

An 11-year old and a 13-year-old shot and killed four students and a teacher and wounded 10 others.

April 24: Pennsylvania

15-year-old shot and killed a teacher.

May 19: Tennessee

18-year-old shot and killed a classmate.

May 21: Oregon

A 17-year-old shot and killed two students and injured more than 20 after killing parents.

1999

April 20: Colorado

Two students at Columbine High School shot and killed 13 and wounded 23 before killing themselves.

November 19: New Mexico

15-year-old boy shot and wounded six students.

May 20: Georgia

12-year-old shot and killed a 13-year-old girl.

December 6: Oklahoma

13-year-old student fired at least 15 rounds wounding four classmates.

2000

February 29: Michigan

Six-year-old boy shot and killed a classmate.

February 26: Florida

13-year-old student shot and killed teacher.

2001

January 10: California

17-year-old fired shots before taking student hostage. Gunman later shot and killed by police.

March 5: California

15-year-old fired shot killed 2 students and injured 13 students and 2 teachers.

March 22: California

18-year-old fired shots and injured 6 students.

March 30: Gary, Indiana

1 dead in Indiana school shooting.

2002

April 26: Germany

An expelled student shot and killed seventeen people at Gultenberg Gymnasium School in eastern Germany city of Erfurt: two young girls, fourteen teachers, and a police before killing himself.

2004

February 2: Washington D. C.

One teenager was killed and another wounded Monday in a shooting at the Ballou High School in the nation's capital.

We assume, at first, the answer to troubled schooling systems is the negligence of parents. We found that such a perception is an egalitarian one. There are other utilitarian realities that indicate that students, teachers, and educational institutions are component parts of such catastrophes. In addition to families and schools, students and teachers are more likely to be schooled by “streets,” and “TV programs.” It may not be exaggerated that the effectiveness of “streets,” “Internet,” and “TV programs” on immoral and unethical behavior on students is more than the schooling systems. Students only attend limited time in educational institutions. Again, the questions is raised: “Who are the leaders of “streets,”

“Internet,” and “TV programs?” Are these leaders lay-people or component parts of popular sub-cultural systems such as “the beat culture,” “the hip hop culture,” “the Jazz culture,” “the Pop culture,” “the rap culture,” “the popular culture,” or “the national culture?” The answer is clear. The community leaders have come from all of the above cultures. If we review the school shootings in the U.S., we may find several incidents that should not be happened in the educational institutions. Nevertheless, alleged criminal actions of students can be assessed as the strong result of the “streets,” “Internet,” and “TV programs.”

What are Ethical and Moral Responsibilities of Schools

Note that the above ideas generate two kinds of questions that must be answered if they are to be rationally applied. First, we need to know what is the objective of separation of education from the debate of the separation of the state and the church – secular humanity. Intuitively, education is a holistic intellectual enhancement in individual student’s abilities, needs, and interests within his/her intrinsic personal characteristics. On the other hand, pragmatically, education is a fostering phenomenon to provide successful opportunities towards community progress. Therefore, if we assume that education is an effective tool for the individuals’ personality development, it is effective for all too. There is a missing point in such a process. That point indicates that we are functioning in a society through compartmentalization of our life objectives. What do we need to interrelate the state and the church, the student and teachers, the schools and families, and the nations and the world of humanity? That trajectory point is ethics. Unfortunately, in most instances of modern life, specifically in the curriculum, inspirational values of moral and ethical intentions and behaviors are forgotten.

Second, we need to know what is the objective of exclusion of ethics and morality from the curricula of schooling systems. How do we decide what kind of scientific education should be provided for people who are ethically and morally different? A prudent decision should be made to educate students to do the best behavior along with the right scientific action. Are we moving in that direction? Are teachers educating students ethically as “conscientiously rational smart people or as “smart criminals?” The answer through ethical principles is not clear.

Educational institutions maintain their professional credibility through training good labor forces to serve their communities. It is hard to deny that all teachers are directly involved in shaping moral characters of students and ethical value systems in a community. In addition, parents are looking for their children to be educated with certain standards of honesty, fairness, and probity (Carr and Landon 1998: 165). This issue raises a question whether education and teaching can be perceived as a moral enterprise or merely as an amoral. Amorality means to tell a portion of truth not the whole truth. According to amoral myth of education, people are not explicitly concerned with moral and ethical ideals. They are concerned about how to educate people in order to acquire sufficient knowledge and skills to be an effective part of the economic systems. Such a type of perception concerning education is amoral. Within the contextual boundary of such an educational philosophy, educationalists and technologists are not unethical or immoral, rather, they are legal. Some people believe that ethics and morality are matters for one’s private soul. Following this path of reasoning, they state that a teacher’s task is to make a student’s

intellectual strength productive. Some of the amoral oriented people believe that ethical values and moral behaviors are not relevant to the school world. They believe that moral and ethical responsibilities lie either on parents, the church, or both. They believe that the main objective of education is to make a student's mind innovative and productive. Since the nature of education is concerned with exploitation of suitable and profitable resources, there is no room for ethical and moral standards in their judgments. Within this path of educational perception, teachers are not responsible for ethical and moral responsibilities. The best sign of such a shortfall is manifested through the lack of sensitivity to ethical and moral commitments. They decide which scientific curricula should be expanded and accelerated through the demand of the marketplace (Peikoff, 1999: 15). They crystallize their educational operational objectives through integration of student head counts, material resources, human discoveries, labor efforts, and marketing information systems. These activities depend on risky decisions and actions on which abundance and prosperity need to be focused on humanity.

Philosophically, educational suitability is viewed as the result of conscious deliberation either in the courses of gaining or losing. This is an assessment of financial cost-benefit analysis. Thus, educational efficacy is a kind of legitimate payment earned by moral virtues through an honest deal between educational providers and users. These are viewed as a pay off for the scientific thoughts, technological breakthroughs, and the community satisfaction. It is true that educational efficacy is the prime mover of the efficient and productive economy. In sum, educational effectiveness is viewed solely as the final result of intellect and knowledge wealth. Nevertheless, primarily education is the product of intellectual values and moral virtues. Therefore, not only teachers must be oriented towards suitability of the schools' educational performances, but also towards ethical worldliness of humanity. Teachers, also, must have intellectual civility in their minds and have good moral character in their decisions and action.

Reliable Knowledge and Behavioral Ordinations

The growing interdependence of socially, politically, economically and legally diverse countries have caused educational systems to reexamine a variety of their existing policies. Among these revisions are strategic management philosophies, strategic academic alliances, cooperative partnership, and or services positions, total quality education (TQE), and ethical-legal conducts. These revisions mandate educational agencies to create a new mission based on both domestic and global perspectives, with ever-increasing awareness of ulticulturalization and multiethicalizaion visions.

It seems clear that the dynamic environment of education of today is the subject of much criticism in light of varying unethical decisions and immoral conducts. The result is negative and can have wide-ranging repercussions, including bad publicity, bad reputation, government intervention, and lawsuits. Although many educational institutions recognize the need to establish a sound educational philosophy, they nevertheless tend to view the real world from ethical and moral perspectives. There are several questions that address the mission of contemporary educational agencies. These questions are:

What are global educations for? Are they binding countries, institutions, and people in an interdependent global economy? Are they established solely to train their future workforce?

Are they established to assess educational cost-benefit analysis? How should people from different countries have access to education through distance learning? Who should manage and control educational institutions domestically and internationally? Who should take ethical and moral decisions and actions on curriculum design and implementing them? How do we know what decision or an action is right? What we must do to make educational services right?

To inquire the right decisions and actions, we need to probe the real nature of costs and benefit analysis within the contextual boundaries of ethical, moral, and legal reasoning of ethicism, liberalism, and pragmatism. Our initial concern is to state precisely what kind of decision, action, and behavior or knowledge is ethical, moral, and legal. Do we believe that global moral education is a compromised transaction between students and teachers? Does moral education comprise ethical principles and standards that guide behavior? These and similar questions raise some doubts that educational institutions are not moving alongside of ethical and moral convictions. They are concerned about "educational amorality."

Professionalism and Professional Ethical Duties

Scientific advances and technological breakthroughs, like advances in the industrial revolution era, have caused changes in values that governed utilization of professional duties among researchers, scholars, and practitioners. Moreover, as knowledge continues to become more integrated and complex, moral virtues and ethical values become more controversial.

Moral education is facing important social and ethical convictions in developed nations. These issues are related to people's right including autonomy, nonmaleficence, beneficence, justice, fairness, rightness, and goodness. The nature of these educational issues and their similarities and dissimilarities among developed and developing nations reflects the holistic cultural setting within which these research activities conducted.

Teaching in educational institutions has been regarded as more just an occupation through which livelihood is obtained. As modern society becomes more complex, it requires greater specialized knowledge. Most highly specialized groups in the fields of education, medical and health, and law aspire to being considered professions. When teaching is called a "profession," it is meant that it differs from other occupations. Teaching profession considers with special qualities that confer special privileges and obligations on those who practice it. The teaching profession remains what it was thought to be for some centuries, namely an occupation of the practice of which requires a more than ordinary amount of complex knowledge, acquired by persistent and systematic study and authoritatively certified processes. This is true primarily of law, medicine, engineering, and the academic profession. The medicine, law, and engineering are engaged in the practical application of knowledge about particular kinds of situations and objects. The teaching profession covers the entire range of scientific studies, methodological gained knowledge, theoretical mechanical structuring analysis, and enhancement of human's mind and spirit. The most important task of teaching as a profession is the acquisition, transmission, and contribution of knowledge to learners and not its application. We may recognize differences among educational, medical, legal, and mechanical engineering occupations concerning variety

of ideas and innovations. Within the contextual boundary of a broad distinction between vocation and profession, we may find a certain vacillation between these conceptions.

Genealogically, there are significant and illuminating tensions as well as interesting differences of emphases between vocational and professional conceptions. It is common for the incumbents of so-called vocational researchers in the field of biosciences, rightly or wrongly, their lives are totally given to the services of others in a way that leaves relatively little room for their personal gain. Identically, this idea of significant teaching profession continuity between personal and occupational concerns and interests has probably been one reason why traditional vocations have been less financially rewarded than the professions such as physicians and lawyers. May be one of the moral reasons for such a discrepancy is the fear that raising the salaries of teachers would attract the wrong kind of people, those of mercenary into the vocations. There can be little doubt that teaching and researching have often been regarded as a vocation, that it has also been regarded as the kind of professional occupation which people enter for love rather than money, and that it has also frequently been woefully underpaid.

Greenwood (1962: 206) stated: "There are a number of component parts to the definition of a profession: (1) Formal education and examination are required for membership in the profession. (2) Certification or licensure is required for membership, reflecting community sanction or approval. (3) The existence of regional or national scientific associations. (4) There is code of ethics. (5) There is a body of systematic scientific knowledge and technical skill required. (6) The members function with a degree of autonomy and authority, under the assumption that they alone have the expertise to make decisions in their specialized area of competence."

Also, Carr (2000: 23) indicated that the idea of a profession should serve five commonly criteria of professionalism: (1) Professions should provide important public services. (2) They should involve a theoretically as well as practically grounded expertise. (3) They should have a distinct ethical dimension that calls for expression in code of practice. (4) They should require organization and regulation for purposes of recruitment and discipline. (5) Professional practitioners require a high degree of autonomy C independence of judgment C for effective practices. The argument in favor of allowing a profession to govern itself is based on two claims. The first is that the knowledge that members of the profession have mastered is specialized, useful to society. The second is that members of the profession set higher standards for themselves than society required of its citizens (De George, 1995: 457). Ethical codes do not exhaust the issues of ethics in the profession. Codes are general behavioral and procedural guidelines for professional decisions and actions. They specify particular prohibitions and ideals, each of which can be evaluated from a moral and ethical point of view.

From another view, a vocation refers to those who work alongside a professional. Vocational groups could be recognized through (1) Registration, (2) Certification, and (3) Licensure. Registration is the process by which qualified individuals are listed on an official roster maintained by a government or non-governmental agency. For example, a cytotechnologist registered by the Board of Registry of the American Society of Clinical Pathologists may use the designation CT (ASCP). Certification is the process by which a

non-governmental agency or association grants recognition to an individual who has not certain predetermined qualifications specified by that agency or association. Licensure is the process by which an agency of government grants permission to persons meeting predetermined qualifications to engage in a given occupation and/or use a particular title (Wilson and Neuhauser, 1976: 52).

Moral Education

Moral education needs to meet students and teachers alongside of their scientific and technological subject matters and practices. This has more to do with local, state, and national moral educational policies. We need to not only begin with some trust in moral education, but also to ponder on trust in moral common sense of our culture. A student's well-behavior is the reflection of parents, teachers, and community ethical characters. As we analyze these component parts of our community, the result turns out to be a problem finding and not a problem solution. Lifetime learning and experiencing of the reality of life among student-teacher relationship is a tiny controlled part of school environments. Nevertheless, things happen that we do not expect to be happened. Educational experiences for students are only known limitations to learn structured instructional objectives. These structured educational objectives provide only known abstract knowledge how to think critically about discovered realities.

In a multicultural society like America separation of the "State and Church" provides us with a breathing environment for free flow of expression of enlightened thoughts and practicing democracy. What do we need to interconnect the diverse religious faiths and ideological beliefs in our mind and behavior is the establishment of a soundness moral character and ethical behavior in our community. This leads us to an intended question to ask: "Can moral virtues be taught in our school systems?" The answer is yes. Since the nature of teaching is a transitional dynamic phenomenon, it can be viewed through two distinctive perspectives. (1) To teach students in schools how to be worth, good, and constructive, (2) To teach students how to be filthy, nasty, and destructive. We confess that teachers teach what they legally are told to teach not what they morally and ethically ought to teach. We confess to frustration that no final wisdom on the subject matter can be taught neutrally, because always there is a direction in application of learning processes toward goodness and badness. What do we need? We need an invitation to get along with the moral and ethical adventures.

Moral education is a component part of a qualitative educational system. If we, as teachers, believe that to teach to student the truth, the best place that can be taught the truth is the classroom. Teachers in their classrooms can teach students how to think critically and behave orderly. Teachers need to realize that moral education is associated with utility of pragmatic intellectual reasoning. It is in doing, and in doing is upon intrusion of self-discipline. In a pragmatic assessment, moral education is an added value system into human intellect. Professional ethics is about human moral conviction, and professional commitments to the ultimate level of excellence. Teachers need not only to learn how to seek imitation but rather creation and recreation of moral values and ethical principles.

Is Moral Education Just a Fad?

Why some people label fad to moral education? Perhaps some prefer to label it because they believe that the ethical issue will go away through time. We truly wish,

ethical problems would simply disappear like hula-hoop, a bona fide fad that came and went with the 1960s (Trevino and Nelson, 1995: 7). Is there any single common standard for teachers' ethics in an increasingly interdependent traditional school system or in the contemporary global E-education?

In responding to the above question, global moral education needs to be concerned with the right answers. The right way to serve students through E-education is not necessarily a matter of aligning our actions with either the home or the host socio-cultural and economic-political value systems. Yet teachers struggle to carve out some form of consensus on moral virtues and ethical principles.

Morality is a dynamic behavioral deliberation of intellect and wisdom. Distinct from both the real (natural) order of existing things and the logical (artificial) order, formed by people, is the moral order. Both natural and artificial orders are caused by reason. Ethics is a speculative and/or practical collective cultural value system. Ethics is concerned with psychosocial actions and deals with good deeds in a society. Philosophers have formulated ethics to be speculative and demonstrative of good thoughts and behavior (deontologicalism) and some have tended to identify ethics with completely the practical good end-results (utilitarianism).

Legality is not a static phenomenon. It is dynamic. The law sets rules for behavior, rules that change on the basis of time and circumstances. When rules are broken, the consequence is punishable. The law sets behavioral standards and initiates an expected system for compliance. The question of what legally should be done in profit-making processes, we might want to say that certain shoulds are universally compelling. However, ethics provides options, often disconnected from official sanctions. In a general term, law concerns "what we must do," ethics concerns "what we should do" (Halbert and Ingulli, 2000: 1) and morality concerns "what we actually need to do." The problem in the educational systems around the world is sometimes related to some issues in which there are similarities between home and host countries' laws and ethics, and in other cases there are differences.

Ethics in education becomes somewhat like political politics. Do you think there is any moral obligation and ethical commitment either in humanity? Much has not been written and said about the ethical and moral problems and issues for human rights commitments and responsibilities. Every nation seems to be concerned with these issues. This may be in part because educational authorities in different countries are proportionately powerful and influential in mapping their educational systems on the basis of their political ideology. In a general term, they are admired, envied, hated, feared, and frequently despaired of by both admirers and critics (Farmer and Hogue, 1973: vii). Therefore, moral education cannot be a fad. It is a fact.

Cultivation of a Sense of Moral Commitment

Getting us out of the state of nature, it is simply a matter of good sense and reason. For Hobbes (1588-1679) to say that the state of nature is the beginning point of our development. There are three major behavioral "ordinations" of reason for people who strive to achieve a common good: 1) Constructive ideas, 2) Valuable contents, 3) Decisive commitments. Ordination of reason signifies the establishment of cognitive and behavioral orders to search for proper ends through good means. Not all ordinations

establish practical patterns of expected excellent behavior. One kind of ordination gives you “constructive ideas,” another kind offers you “valuable contents,” and the other one binds you with “decisive commitments.” These are rooted in variation of the generalization, understanding, and defining fundamental principles and distinctive outcomes of our natural life.

The ability to define and to set priorities concerning the ethical and moral commitments in the field of education requires cultivation of a sense of commitment. Teachers and educational administrators need to establish commitments in their behavior during the decision-making processes and actions and quickly to analyze the outcomes rationally rather than just sensorially and emotionally. Commitment to ethical, moral, and legal behavior in the scientific communities is old as human civilization (e.g. Socratic Oath in Medicine). However, including ethics in the classroom curricula is new. Nash (1996: 11) indicated: “In the early 1980, I found two articles that shed light on what I should call the analytic/normative dichotomy in my teaching.” Peter Drucker (1981: 30) and Mark T. Lilla (1981) raised the controversial issue whether the study of ethics should ever be included in the business curriculum. Drucker, a moral prescriptivist, argued for an “axiomatic ethics of interdependence,” based on a Confucian moral model. He advocated measuring each ethical transgression against a universal ethics of “sincerity:” Actions which are appropriate to the spirit of interdependence and, hence, promote harmony in specific relationships are “right behavior” and, therefore, ethical. Drucker (1980: 191), also, indicated: “Around 1920, social power in economy began to drift away from the traditional capitalists, the ‘owners’ of the nineteenth century, into the hands of professional managers, who owed their position and power to function and performance.” This indicates that human civilization is evolving from traditional moral model to the cosmocratic ethical one. In the modern cosmocratic societies, power would follow function rather than property or the consent of the governed. In supporting this proposition, Lilla (1980: 5) urged that pragmatic ethics should be taught to professional students in order to do the right thing through duties and virtues of “democratic moral behavior.” For Lilla, the correct behavioral virtues are “rather obvious”: courage, tenacity, and prudence. Lilla would have ethics instructors be, first of all, good human beings who preach, witness, and exemplify what is moral. It should be noteworthy to indicate that some writers believe that ethics and morality are the same.

By reviewing the philosophies of education, we may find crossroads through the realm of educational highways of choices and forces. Educational highways point in two directions: namely scientific deliberated instruction and virtuous alternative solutions to be free from forced decisions or manipulative actions. In ethical and moral crossroads students and teachers are capable of free choice and action whether or not they accorded the right to such action. Nevertheless, when educational administrators, teachers, and students are caught in between the choice and the force in crossroads, they are more exposed to possibilities of getting lost.

In order to discover our identity in schooling systems, we need to ask ourselves: What is the educational philosophy of our schools? Consequential ethicists believe that students should be treated equally. That is what justice demands. This philosophy is based on standardization of education regardless of differences among students -- mass

education. Teachers and administrators must make equity as one of their fair alternative objectives. They believe that equal treatment simply means to provide the same facilities for all children regardless of relevant differences. Consequentialists view educational achievement is based on competition. Students receive A's because they have proven that they have reached a higher level of achievement than D students. Equity, justness, and fairness in competitive achievement demands rewarding those differences that make a difference (Strike and Soltis, 1992: 57).

On the other hand, deontological ethicists believe that students should be treated differently according to their differences. At this level "individuality" is the matter of meritocracy. Individuality is viewed as the notion of purposive being. No matter how much students are alike, they are "individuals" because they are different by physical and mental traits, and social positions. They deserve to be treated differently. This does not mean that students are essentially different and naturally they should be treated unequally. We must presume that students should be treated equally unless some relevant differences exist. This does not mean to take away educational resources from those capable students to give to those groups that have more deficiencies. We need to identify the needs of students and provide appropriate resources for their improvements. It is observed that in our schooling systems there is an inequity that has caused serious problems.

Is Teachers' Ethics Just a Myth or a Real Logic?

In the pre-modern world culture, people had two separated ways of perceiving, speaking, and acquiring knowledge. Greek scholars have called these views *mythos* and *logos*. *Mythos* or myths are specific types of descriptive stories that are involved in the realm of supernatural beings and are designed to explain some of the big issues of human existence, such as where we came from, why we are here, and how we account for the things in our world. They are, in other words, stories of our search for significance, meaning, and truth (Ferraro, 1995: 321). Myths deal with timeless truths and meanings of an ancient form of psychology, (Gates, 2000).

The educational philosophy of America primarily, is concerned with suitability of the curriculum designs and structures. Suitability is fitness to the social contract between schools and industries. On the one hand, it is a contract between schools and parents.

Conclusion

It seems clear that educational operations of today are no longer limited by their national socio-cultural and econo-political ideological boundaries. Every year many traditional teachers walk into their classrooms, face with newly diverse culturally oriented students, revise their curriculum designs and syllabi, and start to teach their courses. Teachers with their instructional manuals and lesson plans teach their subject matter. Should we assume that a classroom is a holistic cooperative joint venturing partnership program between teachers and students or it is a place to exchange ideas and motivate students to learn how to critically think about their own cultural lives and future?

In modern days, one area in which many educators and teachers feel particularly awkward is unethical and immoral aspect of the free world of super-highway distance teaching-learning systems through the Internet. Within just a few years, the Internet has been transformed from a "toy" used by a few computer nerds to broad communication

and distance teaching-learning centers where more than 90 million people exchange information or close deals around the world (Hof, McWilliams, and Saveri, 1998:122). The Internet is representing the multicultural composition of human reality where everybody can access to knowledge, science, and information and apply them for constructive and destructive purposes. Most teachers and educators know that the Internet could, over the next few years, change almost every aspect of educational systems in all communities. However, teachers and educators may not realize that how to transform their professional ethics and moral reasoning in every aspect of student lives in order to fit themselves within this new cyberspace educational systems.

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The Journal of Border Educational Research

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Journal of Border Educational Research
Texas A&M International University
5201 University Blvd.
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ISBN 1548-3185