

NO STUDENT LEFT BEHIND

2004-2005 CEDER YEARBOOK

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ISBN 0-9718442-2-4

Printed at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi

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Foreword

This yearbook is a compilation of select papers presented at the second annual Center for Educational Development, Evaluation and Research (CEDER) conference at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi. The conference featured the research and program development of the faculty and graduate students in the College of Education. Held at the University Center on the Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi campus on February 28, 2004, the conference was co-sponsored by the Coastal Bend Chapter of Phi Delta Kappa. Over 200 educators from South Texas attended this conference to hear the 37 poster sessions, roundtables, regular sessions and the keynote session. Dr. Dee Hopkins, Dean of the College of Education at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi was the keynote speaker.

The theme of the conference, *No Student Left Behind*, was obviously based on the *No Child Left Behind* federal legislation initiated by President George W. Bush in 2001. However, the Bush legislation dealt primarily with the literacy education of very young children; the thrust of this conference was much broader. This conference dealt with the research and program initiatives for students at all levels – pre-school through adult. Furthermore, the conference looked at all the factors that contributed to *No Student Being Left Behind* - the pedagogical factors, the emotional factors, and, of course, the literacy factors - all of which contribute to students' success in school and in life.

Accordingly, this volume of conference papers is divided into three sections: Teacher Education for Our Students; Counseling Our Students; and Literacy Affecting Our Students. The first section, teacher education for our students, contains chapters dealing with research and practice concerning the retention of teachers, the qualities of a good teacher, and good pedagogical practice. The second section of this volume deals with counseling our students and consists primarily of research done by the faculty and doctoral students in the Department of Counseling and Educational Psychology at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi. The last section of this paper deals with the literacy issues affecting our students and focuses particularly on the literacy of Hispanic students in South Texas.

Special thanks for this volume must be extended to Dr. Bryant Griffith, a professor in the department of Curriculum & Instruction and to Sydna Arnold, Catherine Swift, Norma Zunker and Roberto Garcia, in the doctoral program. Without their editorial work this volume would not have been possible. The Center for Educational Development, Evaluation, and Research at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi hopes that this yearbook will serve as a resource for all those educators and researchers dedicated to seeing that, indeed, *No Student Is Left Behind*.

Jack Cassidy, Ph.D. Director,

Center for Educational Development, Evaluation, and Research
(CEDER)

August 10, 2004

Keynote Address

No Student Left Behind: Let's Not Forget the Arts

Dee Hopkins

Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi

Dr. Dee Hopkins is the Dean of the College of Education at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi. Her keynote address was the closing event of the conference on Saturday, February 28, 2004.



When Dr. Cassidy asked if I would deliver the keynote address for today's conference, I asked what the theme of the conference would be. After he told me "No Student Left Behind," I gave him the title: "No student left behind: Let's not forget the arts." My remarks could just as easily be: "Let's not forget health, let's not forget geography, history, physical education, computer technology, or athletics. . ."

Those of you who are familiar with Robert Fulghum and enjoy his stories may remember a game called "Giants, Wizards, and Dwarfs." Fulghum equates it to a large-scale "Rock, Scissors, and Paper." The game involves a lot of rambunctious running around until someone yells "giants" and all the giants freeze in place. Then everyone begins running again until someone calls "wizards" or "dwarfs" causing them to stop and stand in place. Fulghum comments that he was enjoying the happy confusion of the game when he felt a tug on his pant leg. Looking down, he saw a small child looking up at him with a worried frown. "Mister," she said, "where do the mermaids stand?"

As we strive to leave no child behind, where do the mermaids stand? How can we assure that the unique talents and desires of every child will be recognized and nourished? Curriculum must include essentials like reading and mathematics. It must include content that enriches and challenges tomorrow's artists, musicians, athletes, and dancers. In our rush to leave no child behind, let's not forget the mermaids. Let's be certain they have a place in public education.

The federal emphasis on reading and mathematics has caused other subjects to be condensed or, in too many instances, omitted from the curriculum. In the December 29, 2003, *Capital Times*, Madison, Wisconsin's daily newspaper, there is mention of a southern Illinois principal who decided to sacrifice social studies instruction so that his school could prepare its eleventh graders for their spring exams by substituting an additional math class.

The Chicago Tribune last year bemoaned the influence of the *No Child Left Behind* legislation on some of the Chicago schools, particularly the premier ones, which have been offering their students a wide-ranging curriculum, but now find themselves faced with hard choices, hard choices with attached dollars.

Next week the De Soto, Kansas school board will debate axing the band program in their district's elementary schools in order to give fifth-graders more time to study for the competency tests demanded by the state and federal government. No question this proposal will rile parents and cause an uproar in the community. That a district would even consider this action is indicative of the pressure educators are under these days.

No Child Left Behind has caused more furor, more attention to education, more choosing of sides, more frustration for those at every level of the continuum—federal, state and local . . . in state departments of education, colleges of education, and local school boards . . . with classroom teachers and students—than all previous legislation. So, how did we get to this point?

This morning's headlines in the *Caller Times* are indicative of the rapid and radical changes occurring in education. The front page article, "New rule lets more teach; Profession opened to those without formal training in education," discusses pending legislation that would allow anyone with a four-year college degree to teach 8th through 12th grades without formal teacher training classes.

Let's take a few minutes to review the major legislative acts that have influenced education in the United States. As we look at

these historical markers, I am going to borrow freely from Christopher Cross's overview of educational legislation, *Political Education: National Policy Comes of Age*, a 2004 publication I recommend.

Most of us agree that education should be on the minds of our elected government. But historically, that has not been the case. Right after the Civil War, Congress created a non-cabinet-level federal department of education but within two years it was merged into the Department of the Interior. Two bills enacted during the Civil War and its aftermath, the first and second *Morrill Acts*, enabled the creation of land-grant colleges in every state by providing land and federal support. Attempts were also made in the 1870s to create national schools in states where there were none. This bill passed both the House of Representatives and Senate at different times, but was never passed by both houses in the same Congress.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, there were about 15 million students enrolled in the K-12 public schools; today that number is close to 47 million. In 1900, only 6.4% of the seventeen year-olds in the United States completed high school. A century later, more than 72% were graduating.

By 1917, the percentage of young people between the ages of fourteen and seventeen enrolled in schools had grown from 7% to 30% in less than 30 years. This was the major catalyst for the passage of the *Smith-Hughes Act*—which supported vocational education. In addition, during World War I, the military discovered that 25% of those entering the service were illiterate. Many were unable to speak English.

At that time our schools, especially our high schools, were designed for society's upper class. Suddenly the schools were searching for an educational program that would serve all of society—rich and poor. The *Smith-Hughes Act* was the first legislation to provide federal programs for schools. Unfortunately, that support was minimal in dollars. Three years after the landmark legislation was enacted, the federal government provided only 0.3% of the support needed for elementary and secondary education. More than 83% was provided by local funding, the rest by the states.

The illiteracy rates discovered in the military during World War I, led to a flurry of legislative proposals. Several supported the creation of the United States Department of Education. However, even with the support of Woodrow Wilson, a former Princeton University president, nothing was enacted.

In 1929 Herbert Hoover established a commission to study the federal government's role in education. This National Advisory Committee on Education presented several recommendations but nothing came of their report. It was overshadowed by the devastation of the 1930s Great Depression.

As the country struggled to get on its feet, 40,000 teachers were paid directly with federal funds given to the states and local governments as part of Franklin Roosevelt's depression era support. Congress voted \$48 million to hire unemployed teachers and allocated \$75 million through the Reconstruction Finance Corporation for loans to pay overdue teacher salaries.

At the close of World War II, the GI bill made it possible for veterans to attend college or receive vocational or technical training. "This program transformed the federal government's role in education and, in the process, transformed American society by expanding the opportunities for higher learning to hundreds of thousands of veterans and their families." (Cross, 2004, p. 3)

It took years after World War II, before any legislation concerning elementary or secondary education made it beyond the committee stage. The one exception occurred in 1950. Due to the Korean War, the country's military personnel increased and a new law passed—the *Impact Aid Act*. This act assisted school districts impacted by escalating student populations who resided on military bases located within their districts. These bases, on Bureau of Land Management (BLM) land, were exempt from local property taxes. This caused the school districts to be hit with a double whammy—mushrooming enrollments and no increase in tax revenues.

At the close of the war, school districts were pressured with the need for new buildings. The "Baby Boomers" reached elementary age in the 1950s and public school enrollment swelled to more than 11 million across the United States. Space was at a premium. School districts also suffered a shortage of teachers.

These factors prompted candidates to make education a key issue in the 1952 presidential campaign. Dwight Eisenhower spoke of the classroom shortage in a Los Angeles speech, where he noted, "This year 1,700,000 American boys and girls were without any school facilities." He added that the "American answer" should be federal aid. Eisenhower believed that federal control was not an issue since money supplied by the federal government would be limited to the construction of classrooms. He felt this would keep the federal

government from curricular control and teaching eligibility—those were the purview of local government.

Then, in 1954, the Supreme Court decided in *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* that the segregation of children in schools was unconstitutional and in direct violation of the 14th amendment to the Constitution. Eisenhower, whether he personally supported this law or not, felt that politically he could not risk public approval. He did what politicians have done and will continue to do. He called for a White House conference on education—and used the gathering of information as a delay tactic.

The emotional response to *Brown v. Board of Education* was overwhelming and crossed party lines. Racial politics got in the way of education legislation for about three years. Each session bills were tossed back and forth while school children throughout the United States—black and white—studied in buildings that were falling down. That changed on October 4, 1957 with the Soviet Union's launch of Sputnik. Eisenhower, on national television addressed the nation's shortage of qualified scientists and engineers. No one was interested then in building new classrooms—or in providing for general education. Instead, everyone's focus became the preparation of individuals who could place us first in the race for outer space. Crash programs, mostly at the university level, supporting math, science and foreign languages sprang up.

At the height of the Cold War, the space race led to the *National Defense Education Act (NDEA)*. This act changed the debate for public school aid. After its enactment, support for education programs became a matter of federal policy and the political momentum for classroom construction disappeared. In January of 1959, Robert Hutchins, president of the University of Chicago, was quoted in the *New York Times* as saying, "History will smile sardonically on the spectacle of this great country's getting interested, slightly and temporarily, in education only because of the technical achievements of Russia and then being able to act as a nation only by assimilating education to the cold war and calling education a defense bill." (Sundquist as cited in Cross, 2004).

Education returned to the national stage during the 1960 Presidential Election when John Kennedy made it a major factor in his campaign. Kennedy charged that Richard Nixon was willing to support federal aid for education but only for construction, whereas Kennedy wanted aid for teacher salaries as well. Earlier, Nixon had

voted against the Senate bill calling for increasing teachers' salaries while providing construction assistance. That action caused Nixon and the Republicans to be tagged as being opposed to support for education. Kennedy, and later Johnson, Carter, and Clinton, had the opportunity to have education as a signature issue for Democrats. With few exceptions, that ownership lasted forty years, until the campaign of 2000.

During Kennedy's tenure, the first major education bill was introduced since World War II that was not tied to national defense or the cold war. The *National Education Improvement Act* of 1962 provided construction loans for public and private colleges and aid to public schools. It gave aid for everything from salaries to construction to special projects. The omnibus bill included something for everyone—except the Catholic and private school lobby. Remembering other fights over racial and religious implications of education legislation, the bill was quickly divided into four pieces by a House committee. This was done in an effort to please everyone but pleased no one. The Senate, seeing what had happened in the House, gave up on one bill and focused instead on three separate ones: (1) a higher education bill, (2) extensions of impact aid and vocational education and (3) the first small program of assistance for education of disabled children. This legislation made its way to the White House. Three days before John Kennedy left for Dallas he called National Education Association (NEA) leaders to the rose garden and thanked them for not creating another battle over religion in the higher education bill.

Lyndon Johnson signed all three during his first weeks in office. Among his 1964 priorities was Congressional enactment of the *Civil Rights Act*, a measure that would shift the debate over education from aid to segregated schools to desegregation assistance. Moving away from the education arena would prove to be critical in gaining passage of Johnson's 1965 Great Society programs. Religion remained a divisive issue. It was to be a challenge if a successful school aid bill would ever reach the President's desk.

"Johnson, a former teacher, was a passionate believer in equity and in the power of education to help pull people out of poverty . . ." (Cross, 2004, p. 27) He saw education as key to winning the war on poverty. And, in 1965 Johnson saw the passage of the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA)*. It took him just eighty-seven days to accomplish passage of this act. Others had sought this

legislation for decades. The ESEA included many of the funds we have today. Even during Johnson's tenure, however, there was frustration with how the funds were utilized and whether they were making a difference. That led to the formal creation of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP)—which became known as the "Nation's Report Card" and in 2000 would be a core element in the proposals for Title I reform by presidential candidate George W. Bush.

Johnson's final year saw passage of the reauthorization of ESEA, including the emergence of the first small program for bilingual education introduced by Texas Democrat Ralph Yarborough, but much remained undone. Cross relates, "The Johnson administration which had started with a bang, ended with a whimper." (Cross, 2004, p. 39)

The 1950s federal theory of action concerning education was encased in national defense and the Cold War. If we could fix math and science, we would fix education—curing the ills of American life. The 1960s theory believed in fighting poverty in a new war. "Policymakers felt that if money got into the right hands, students would be better educated and everything would improve. The 1970s saw another theory of action, one based on distrust of almost everyone. The result was greater specificity in law and regulation, more reporting, and the creation of more federal programs in the belief that without these targeted efforts (like gifted) that states and local governments would not provide them. Although many of the programs, such as bilingual education were based on the equity argument that drove Johnson's Great Society, many others were not. Each seemed more prescriptive than the one before." (Cross, 2004, p. 41)

During the Nixon administration the race issue returned. There was controversy over busing and, even though Nixon proposed 1970 and 1971 legislation to aid school districts with the desegregation costs, Congress was unable to support passage. In 1972, the *Higher Education Act* enacted a significant set of higher education programs. These included the Basic Educational Opportunity Grant, our present day Pell Grants, the creation of the National Institute of Education, and Title IX which today affects education—particularly the rights of women in athletics. It is ironic that the 1972 White House statement covered none of these. It was about busing.

Throughout our history, education has taken the back seat on the bus. Education for most of our lifetime was not even important enough to merit a federal department. It wasn't until May 7, 1980, that the Department of Education was created. Then president, Jimmy Carter, worked to see its creation against major opposition and compromise. There was opposition from the Department of Defense (DOD) to place its schools under education. That opposition prevailed and the DOD schools were not placed in the Department of Education (ironic since twenty years later, they are seen as an excellent model for success for all students.) Yarbrough, the Texas congressman, was adamant that the new department contain an office of bilingual education.

The *Department of Education Bill* is extremely prescriptive. As expected during that era, everything had to satisfy both parties. The days of trust were gone. Even so, the Carter years were seen by many as the best of times. "Education got a seat at the cabinet table in the West Wing, federal dollars increased substantially, and a score of new programs were created." (Cross, 2004, p. 70). Less than six months later, Carter lost to Reagan, and the National Education Association was confronted with a department they had helped create falling into the hands of those who had opposed its creation.

Reagan presented *A Nation at Risk*, the bully pulpit for the federal role in education—now elevated to a new height—and there would be no turning back. Throughout his tenure in office, Congress and the administration battled over money for education while financing for national defense increased substantially.

George H. Bush began his term in 1989. This was a time of remarkable bipartisanship. A strong agreement on education principles existed that would define policy over the following thirteen years—through the 2001 enactment of the *No Child Left Behind Act*. Bush arranged for a summit of the nation's governors to be held in Charlottesville, Virginia in 1989. They had as their purpose the creation of national goals for education, specifically what might be done to improve (1) America's academic standing internationally, (2) public schools, and (3) conditions for the nation's children. William Clinton, governor of Arkansas, never missed a meeting. This summit focused national attention on education and culminated in the creation of the National Education Goals. Unfortunately, no action by Congress was taken regarding the goals. Bush had failed to include

any senators or representatives from the education committees on the invitation list.

As Bush left the White House and Clinton moved in, the same standards for education remained prominent. Clinton forwarded his Goals 2000 based on the National Education Goals established in Charlottesville. He saw those goals realized as the *Improving America's Schools Act (IASA)* of 1994 was signed into law, even though it took a different form from that adopted three and a half years earlier by the governors.

The *Improving America's Schools Act* turned a major corner for education. Through the Goals 2000 and the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act* requirements for new standards and assessments, the federal government was firmly involved in the educational process in almost every district in the nation.

In 1996, Clinton was seeking a second term. For education, it was a defining year on the national level. The Republican platform again called for elimination of the federal Department of Education. They were also promoting federal support of private school vouchers. The Democrats talked about the importance of education and slammed the Republicans for cutting funding.

Clinton won. His State of the Union address included commentary on national testing and he proposed the creation of voluntary national tests—reading in fourth grade, math in eighth grade. He laid out a ten-point education program including: tutoring assistance, after school programming, and the addition of 100,000 new teachers to bring about class size reduction.

By 2000, the Republicans saw the importance of education and made it a major factor in the presidential campaign. George W. Bush capitalized on his education record in Texas and aggressively promoted his ideas even during his first debate at the University of Massachusetts.

On Jan 20, 2000, George W. Bush was inaugurated as the 43rd president of the United States. Three days later, at a ceremony in the White House East Room, he announced that his first major initiative would be in education and labeled that initiative No Child Left Behind. This legislation became law with almost no opposition. This was largely due to the frustration of political leaders over the slow response of the education community to the changes put in place in the 1994 *Reauthorization Act*. Although the *No Child Left Behind Act* did contain several new twists on the federal role, much of the

groundwork had been laid in earlier legislation, even though seven years had passed since the 1994 law and only one-third of the states were in compliance with its requirements.

No Child Left Behind emphasizes four points: (1) accountability, (2) programs and practices supported by scientifically based research, (3) expanded schooling options for parents, and (4) broadened local control and flexibility. The first, accountability, seems the most daunting. At present, states are struggling to implement statewide accountability systems that cover all public school students. Texas is ahead of most. Our public schools have lived with statewide testing long enough to have achieved a level of acceptance. They have experienced the positive effects of statewide assessment as well as the negative. The rigidity of the testing worries many.

Mary Catherine Bateson tells a story that epitomizes the danger of relying too much on assessment. Her father visited a training program in which the intelligence of dolphins was being determined. When he asked one trainer how it was going, the woman replied that the dolphin was a failure and just not that smart. She went on to explain that the assessment required the dolphin to return a ball five times. She threw the ball and the dolphin batted it back to her. She threw it again and the dolphin returned it. She threw the ball a third time and the dolphin batted it back. When she threw the ball the fourth time the dolphin balanced the ball on his nose and batted it out of the pool. "Then," the woman said, "he made a snorting sound, kind of a snicker, like he was laughing." Saddened she said, "He is just not that bright." Bateson's father did not even try to explain to the trainer that the dolphin was smart enough to get bored with the game she wanted him to play. The dolphin was smart enough to create his own game. *No Child Left Behind* legislation seeks to help children similar to a bored dolphin. Standardized tests expect everyone to fit into the same mold. Remember the little girl who chose not to be a giant, wizard, or dwarf? The uniformity of assessment can—and too often does—overlook the mermaids. As we make our plans to go forward and meet the mandates of *No Child Left Behind*, let us be sure we accomplish what the law intends and leave no child behind. Let us make the effort to reach every child regardless of race, ethnicity, social status or wealth. Let's not forget the mermaids.

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Teacher Education for our Students

Do Relaxation Techniques Reduce Test Anxiety and Stress?

Sydna K. Arnold

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to learn whether relaxation techniques could alleviate test anxiety and stress in adult ESOL students enrolled in remedial English composition classes. The problem voiced by students was severe test anxiety concerning the departmental English essay exit exam, which counted as 25% of the final course grade. Attempts to objectively evaluate students' writing across the college campus (through completed English courses) resulted in the institution of this exam by the English 0307 committee. To ascertain the levels of test anxiety, students were interviewed and observed while writing in class and lab. Preliminary findings reveal that relaxation techniques may, in fact, reduce test anxiety. Findings imply that further research is needed to determine if this study is indicative of similar results in a larger population.

Literature Review

Second language acquisition is often challenging for adult ESOL students learning to write in English. Composing the final English essay exit exam is a complex process that can result in confusion and/or anxiety for these students. ESOL students are expected to demonstrate an understanding of the subject/prompt and to communicate ideas logically and effectively within a three-hour period. Expectations are the same for ESOL students as for American students (speaking English as their native language) enrolled in this course.

According to the authors of "Language Anxiety: Differentiating Writing and Speaking Components," most studies on anxiety and writing have been administered to native English

speakers. Studying second language anxiety among English majors in Taiwan, Cheng, Horwitz and Schallert found that writing anxiety was related specifically to language skill. "In the second language literature, there have been only a few studies focused on writing anxiety...There has been no research directed to examining how second language classroom anxiety and second language writing anxiety are related" (Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert, 19, p. 417-418). Using Gestalt methods, Serok "hypothesized that test anxiety could be reduced if students were taught relaxation." (Serok, 1991, p. 157). Studies indicate that application of appropriate breathing and techniques during exciting situations can reduce body stress. The volumes of articles dealing with this subject confirm "test anxiety is a serious problem for many students" (Enright, Baldo & Wykes, 2000, p. 36).

Methods

Research Questions

The study attempts to answer three central questions: How effective are relaxation techniques in reducing test anxiety and stress? What are the effects of relaxation techniques on adult ESOL students in remedial composition courses? What is the impact of relaxation therapy on student achievement on English departmental exit exams?

Participants

Twenty-five students in an adult ESOL remedial English program participated in this study during the spring semester of 2003. Students were selected because they voiced writing anxiety and therefore were suitable participants for a study in relaxation techniques. One student who was raised in the United States was eliminated from the original sample. The majority of these students were female with a male-female ratio of 8:17 (68%--female, 32%--male). Participants ranged in age from 19 to 68 years old with an average age of 30.52 years old. All of these students were placed in a developmental writing course because they lacked the writing skills necessary for Freshman English courses and/or had not passed the TASP exam. These students spoke English as a second language and came from ten different countries (Colombia [3], Ecuador [1], India

[1], Indonesia [1], Mexico [12], Pakistan [1], Peru [1], Poland [1], South Korea [1], Venezuela [3]). Spanish was the native language spoken by 80% of the participants, while the other five students spoke Gujarati (4%), Indonesian (4%), Korean (4%), Polish (4%) and Urdu (4%) as a first language. Table 1 provides detailed participant data. Students were required to complete an English essay exit exam at the end of the course, which they reported made them feel very nervous. This community based action research began with an interest in the concerns expressed orally by students enrolled in this developmental course for basic writing improvement.

Historically, ESOL students score lower than American students on the English essay exit exams. However, in the Spring 2003 semester, fifty percent of ESOL students enrolled in this basic developmental writing program who completed the exam passed the English essay exit exam. Thirty-nine percent failed the exam and eleven percent chose not to take the exam. These statistics mirror the reported percentages of American students taking the same exam; however, scores were reportedly higher for American students. ESOL students who passed the exam passed with scores of four or five on a six point scale; six is the highest possible score.

Participants drafted an essay during class as part of their mid-semester exam. Only twenty percent (5) of the students testing correctly interpreted and addressed the topic suggested in the writing prompt for the exam. The other eighty percent (20) reported problems understanding vocabulary and test anxiety. All students mentioned fear or stress when describing their feelings about writing. This was a significant number of students reporting stress as a problem when attempting to write a timed essay exam. Test anxiety, an extreme fear of performing poorly on essay examinations, appears to be a common form of anxiety among ESOL students in remedial composition classrooms.

Exam Scoring

The exit essay exam was blindly graded, scored holistically by English/ESOL faculty members who used a six point scoring matrix. Scores of four, five, or six indicated passing scores and scores of one, two, and three were failing scores. Prior to scoring, a writing sample

was selected to represent each of the six levels; then faculty members discussed and normed each sample. Exams were randomly distributed to faculty members who read and marked each exam. That score was covered and then the marked exams were again sorted and randomly distributed for a second reading by a different faculty member. Proctors collected exams that had been marked twice and compared scores. If both scores were passing or failing, exams were placed in the appropriate stacks. When a student received a passing and a failing mark, the exam was read by a third faculty member to determine the score. There were no time limits placed on scoring individual exams. Faculty members could read at a comfortable pace, but were not allowed to discuss individual exams.

Data Collection

At the beginning of the study (March 13, 2003), student participants were asked to describe (in writing) their feelings about taking the departmental English essay exit exam on April 26, 2003. These descriptions are reproduced verbatim in Appendix A. Student involvement in the study was voluntary and approval was given prior to the sampling and data collection process. Students were assured confidentiality. The Daly Miller Writing Apprehension Inventory, comprised of questions with Likert-type scales and open-ended questions, was administered to participants on April 22, 2003. After the five-week period of teaching/practicing relaxation techniques, students completed the English essay exit exam and a posttest survey/interview (April 26, 2003). Appendix B contains an example of the type of relaxation information that was provided to students. Appendix C is a schedule of implementation of relaxation techniques for this study.

The survey interview focused on the impact of the relaxation techniques and whether students felt these techniques relieved stress and test anxiety as they wrote the English essay exit exam. Students provided positive oral feedback about the stress reduction techniques during lab sessions and reported feeling less anxious about taking the exam. Some participants reported practicing relaxation techniques at home and in heavy traffic with positive results.

The survey interview was developed to measure student stress immediately following the English essay exit exam. Survey interviews were recorded, transcribed, and returned to students (April 29, 2003) to insure data accurately reported student feelings and comments. Results from the post treatment survey interview (collected immediately after participants finished writing the exit exam) were used to evaluate the effects of relaxation techniques on test anxiety and stress as reported by participants.

Intervention

Twenty-five students in the ESOL composition class were introduced to and instructed in relaxation techniques and strategies over a five-week period (in 5-15 minute sessions, beginning March 25, 2003), prior to the English essay exit exam. The instructor took relaxation techniques from Stress Management workshops she attended and research findings. Although research supports the reality of test anxiety, curriculums seldom include information on test preparation or relaxation techniques. Students could feel more prepared if they knew "how to take tests." Specific test-taking strategies were reviewed and the instructor took a "positive approach to test taking by emphasizing that tests are important learning tools, not torture, remind[ing] students that tests help them express what they've learned and provide a way to measure progress" (Romain & Verdick, 2000).

Results

In response to an open-ended question given at the beginning of the study (March 13, 2003), students described their current test anxiety level as troubling (80 %). A smaller number (20 %) reportedly felt confident about successful completion of the English essay exit exam.

Results of the Exit Survey Interview (April 26, 2003) revealed that 80% of the students (8%--strongly agree, 72%--agree, 8%--uncertain) felt relaxation techniques were effective in reducing stress and anxiety before the exam. A smaller number, 68% of the students (12%--strongly agree, 56%--agree, 12%--uncertain) reported relaxation techniques were effective in reducing stress and anxiety

during the exam. With only 20% of the students reporting stress and anxiety immediately before and during the exam, it appears that relaxation techniques are effective in reducing test anxiety and stress on adult ESOL students in remedial composition courses.

Thirteen students (52%) passed the exam, with those not passing producing higher scoring essays than they generated on the mid-semester writing exam. Although the impact of relaxation therapy on student achievement was not realized, the fact that ESOL students were able to complete an English essay exit exam within the three-hour period with a 52% pass rate encourages further implementation of these techniques. Results of this project indicate that all project participants felt positive about the quality and level of support provided.

Discussion

This action research project was exploratory in nature and limitations are inherent in the research design. In future research, it might be helpful to use a pre-treatment Writing Anxiety Survey to complement the post-treatment Exit Survey Interview. Also, a larger sample would allow further consideration of variables such as gender, language background, country of origin, and age. Nevertheless, this research has presented information supporting the use of relaxation techniques to alleviate writing anxiety in an ESOL composition classroom. It provides a springboard for further exploration and research in conjunction with the development and revision of the English essay exit exam.

This action research project can be identified as systemic by meeting the five essential elements of a system. First, the purpose of this project was to explore the effects of relaxation techniques on students expressing test anxiety. The project was implemented because a problem was identified and there was a need to solve the problem. Second, a series of steps were used to evaluate the problem, study current research on stress and anxiety, identify possible relaxation techniques, develop a schedule for implementation of techniques, provide instruction, develop a survey, and to collect, analyze and report data. An interdependency among these elements and participants resulted in interaction within the group. Support and

feedback was provided by this researcher's professors and classmates at Texas A & M University-Corpus Christi fulfilling the criteria that a system maintains interaction with an external environment. Finally, this project allowed for self-correction with formative ongoing oral evaluation during lab sessions and positive comments from students practicing relaxation techniques with beneficial results.

Currently, there are no plans for institutionalizing this innovation; however, other instructors have expressed interest in the success of the relaxation techniques implemented and have offered to participate by conducting follow up research with their students. Based on findings, if proven effective, relaxation techniques will be implemented in other classes to relieve test anxiety.

Table 1.
Participant Data.

PART.	SCORE	SEX	AGE	COUNTRY	LANGUAGE	ETHNICITY
A	80	M	19	COLOMBIA	SPANISH	HISPANIC
B	75	M	28	ECUADOR	SPANISH	SPANISH
C	92	F	24	INDIA	GUJARATI	INDIAN
D	76	F	28	VENEZUELA	SPANISH	HISPANIC
E	96	F	28	PERU	SPANISH	HISPANIC
F	79	F	34	MEXICO	SPANISH	HISPANIC
G	79	M	26	MEXICO	SPANISH	HISPANIC
H	80	M	19	MEXICO	SPANISH	HISPANIC
I	89	F	32	MEXICO	SPANISH	HISPANIC
J	102	F	19	VENEZUELA	SPANISH	HISPANIC
K	88	M	19	MEXICO	SPANISH	HISPANIC
L	65	M	29	S. KOREA	KOREAN	KOREAN
M	96	M	47	POLAND	POLISH	POLISH
N	100	M	23	PAKISTAN	URDU	PAKISTANI
O	99	F	23	MEXICO	SPANISH	HISPANIC
P	105	F	32	INDONESIA	INDONESIAN	INDONESIAN
Q	99	F	35	MEXICO	SPANISH	HISPANIC
R	78	F	24	MEXICO	SPANISH	HISPANIC
S	74	F	22	VENEZUELA	SPANISH	HISPANIC
T	86	F	23	MEXICO	SPANISH	HISPANIC
U	79	F	29	MEXICO	SPANISH	HISPANIC
V	98	F	68	MEXICO	SPANISH	HISPANIC
W	60	F	28	MEXICO	SPANISH	HISPANIC
X	99	F	42	COLOMBIA	SPANISH	HISPANIC
Y	87	F	33	COLOMBIA	SPANISH	HISPANIC

(One student was omitted from the original population; although he spoke Spanish, he was born and raised in the United States and English was his first language.)

Appendix A

Survey 1 (with results)

Students were given time at the end of class to respond to the following statement:

Describe how you feel about taking the English essay exit exam for ESOL 0307 and why you have these feelings.

A/1. "I think essay exit exam has a principal objective which will reflex all what students have learned during their studies at [this] college. English improvement class scans the students' knowledge what it is reflex at the final exam result. For foreign students is more difficult have a successful result, because they are taking the same final exam as like as an American student. While an American student can write 30 words by minute an ESOL student with great effort can write half by minute. In conclusion, I think that ESOL students need double time in order to accomplish with what the teacher expect from his or her students."

B/2. "I haven't been a good test taking, I need to pass it! I wasn't in good situation the last time I took the test, but am optimistit this time, I will past it, am not as nervous anymore."

C/3. "The way I feel about English essay exit exam is scared. The reason why I'm scared is because we have to be very careful what the essay is talking about and we have to make sure our grammar, spelling mistakes and our full stops. When we have the exam we have to be very careful what we are talking about."

D/4. "I fell relax and excite at the same time. I been learning a lot in this class writing essays and reading and answering the questions of the labs. I'm ready to do that test. Probably I feel a little bit impatient because in almost all our classes we talk about the test; by other hand I'm comfortable with the knowledges that I been acquire on this class."

E/5. "I am feeling kind of nervous, afraid, anxious, but I know that all of those feelings are normal because this is the first time taking English courses. I am sure that I will try to do it the best I can. So I know that I need to be calm; I think one of the most important things is practice."

F/6. "I feel nervous. Since I had taking this class, it is true I feel more confident, but I think isn't enough for me. Everytime I need to write, I spend a lot of time thinking how to write and when I write is like a 3rd grade children because I made a lot of mistakes."

G/7. "I feel nervous, little worry because I'm not ready enough or trained to write correctly a good enough essay, because I know I need more practice in punctuation, coma, etc. It is hard for me to put my ideas on a sheet specially in English, I feel in that way and I have to improve my vocabulary. I would like to pass this class with a good grade because I want to continue study."

H/8."The way I feel about taking the English essay exam is the same way I feel like when I take any other exam, nothing. It's just like another test. I mean I know it is supposed to be taken very seriously, but I think if you worry about it too much you won't get it done. I am not worried about it at all."

I/9. "I feel like nervous and I am afraid. I feel those feelings because I am not prepared for that test. I need to pass these test because I do not want to repeat the class. My grammar spelling is not good. I do not know what is going to be the topic. If is a hard topic, I do not if I can write the 400 or 500 words. I cannot think fast to describe o write something. I need to be very concentrate."

J/10. "When I think about the final exam it really makes me feel nervous. Sometimes I think that I feel calm and ready, but sometimes I feel that I am not; It really scared me the fact that I don't know the topic of the essay, but in some way I feel ready. Eventhough I know what is going to be hard work to do, I just need to relax and keep practicing."

K/11. "I feel that the exit exam in many ways is good so that I may move on from remedials to regular classes. I am confident enough

and believe that I am almost prepared to take the exam. Often when I write it seems that if I don't like the topic I write sloppy, but if it is something that I am interested in I write well. I am trying to overcome the many mistakes that I make. I am improving everyday, I think that I am ready to take on Del Mar College's challenging exam."

L/12. "It's very hard about me because I its exam must pass and don't has make up. I think my writing skill is not development yet and my menory skill is as before bad. I read other writing sample is very useful for me I can guess about form and grammar or power of expression by samples. I think the writing skill is as read and writing lot as better."

M/13. "The English essay that we'll take this Spring semester probably will be stressful for many of us. Speaking about myself I have to express different a share of feelings. My feelings could be in different, but I want to underline that the test of English essay is necessarily for my intellectual skill of English use. For this reason I have to put aside the feelings and only cocentrate my preparation on intellectual part. For me, the English essay will be a good experience to see how long I advance in English training."

N/14. "Taking exams was never easy for me, because you need to prepare yourself and so a whole lot of study for it. But this time I am very sure that with a little hard work and my full attention to my study, I will be able to pass my exam."

O/15. "Well, I feel kind of nervous because I still have problems how to do sentences in English. The anxiety that I have is if I'm going to pass, but I am working hard in my grammar and write sentences in correct way to succeed. I hope I do better on test. Moreover, I fell nervous because I am very confuse in adverb and adjective and the A. I don't really know when and where to use them specially the letter A, on, and to."

P/16. "I have difficulty with the vocabulary. If I understand the vocab words, it will help me. Sometimes I confused with unknown word, I depend with dictionary. If I could answer the question, I feel happy and couldn't wait for next question. If I didn't answer the

question, I become afraid and hopeless. I like to challenge myself in my capability, and I like to find out what is my weakness.”

Q/17. “I don't feel completely sure about finally exam because I expense too much time making a essay. Sometimes the topic is confuse or it is not interesting for me. I feel better writing on the computador. We are practicing and I am learning.”

R/18. “When my teacher told me about the exit exam I feel nervous. Because I know that I need to write very well this essay, and I know that I had problem about grammar. Also, sometimes it is difficult for me organize my thoughts. Therefore I know with help of my teacher, and my best effort I can do that. Because I want to past this class.”

S/19. “I really feel scared for this essay because I do not what the topic is. I feel afraid to reprobate this final exam. I think that it is more easy for us to know the topic before we present the final; but I know that is going to be impossible. I know that I going to do the best, and very sure that it is going to be a easy topic. I was listening that all the teachers that are going to grade the exit exam are not going to pay attention to the grammar spelling, but I sill feeling insecure.”

T/20. “I feel scar with the essay exam because I nbow that I need to past but I think that if practice this days. I can write my essay since I have problems and think very fast and bring my aydias and other thing have a view positi.”

U/21. When I think about the exit exam I feel nervous for the reason that my grammar is very poor. Also, I feel that to organize my introduction of my essay will be difficult. It is the most difficult part for me, but I think that with my best effort and the grace of God, I can do that.”

V/22. “I am feeling afraid bcause sometimes I know about the title be o.k. But if I ignore every thing about the title what go to do. I can start my writing if I haven't any idea what go to do. That's my afraid. Write during 3 hours is not easy if your brain is going slowly.”

W/23. I feel good about taking the writing test. I feel a little scared.

X/24. I do not feel nervous about writing in English but I hope I pass this test.

Y/25. Writing in English is not easy for me because I learned to write in Spanish and we do not write with the same structure in my first language.

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Mentoring the Emotionally Intelligent Teacher: A Prescription for Improving the Retention of New Teachers in Texas Public Schools

Dan Goad

Introduction

Every year, Texas loses more and more classroom teachers to other professions. In fact, the State Board for Educator Certification reported that 18.5% of new teachers (defined as those with less than five years experience) in 2002 did not return to the classroom the following school year. That percentage has increased steadily from 14.8% in 1996 and the trend is not projected to improve over the next decade (SBEC, 2003).

At present, Texas teacher preparation programs do not recruit, educate, and employ a sufficient number of qualified and certified teachers to accommodate this loss. Teacher preparation programs across the state provided 26,968 new teachers last year, while over 30,838 teachers left their classrooms and did not return (SBEC, 2003). In addition, the TEA (2002) reported a teacher turnover rate of 15.7% in 2002. These statistics take their toll in many ways, ranging from increased costs to the districts to losing continuity among teachers; however, the greatest impact is to the education of our youth.

As a result of the significant egress of qualified teachers, students more frequently encounter teachers with limited experience and many teachers are either not certified or not qualified to teach in their assigned classrooms. In addition to the impact associated with less than desirable content knowledge, many replacement teachers are also unskilled in pedagogy and/or classroom management, which results in a classroom environment that is less conducive to effective learning. This situation is becoming more and more common across

the state and will have ramifications in students' education for the remainder of their public schooling. This is, of course, in direct opposition to the intent and requirements levied by the federal legislation known as *No Child Left Behind*.

Discussion

Many teachers are leaving the classroom because they were not fully prepared for the many demands placed on them professionally and personally. These stressful situations often result in reactive behaviors that can serve to only exacerbate already difficult and problematic circumstances. (Nelson and Low, 2003) If teachers are not successful in the classroom and/or do not enjoy their work, they are much less likely to remain in the profession.

Emotional learning, on the other hand, can lead to increased self-awareness, improved behaviors, and the acquisition of new skills. This learning can help teachers improve their mental, physical, and emotional health, increase their achievement and productivity, and improve their personal and career performance and satisfaction. (Nelson & Low, 2003) The hope is that a continuing investment in developing teachers' emotional intelligence will improve their effectiveness and job satisfaction, thus prompting them to remain in the profession.

Nelson and Low (1999) define Emotional Intelligence as "...a confluence of developed skills and abilities to:

1. accurately know yourself, feel valuable, and behave responsibly as a person of worth and dignity
2. establish and maintain a variety of effective, strong and healthy relationships,
3. get along and work well with others, and
4. deal effectively with the demands and pressures of daily life and work."

According to these authors, Emotional Intelligence consists of specific skills, behaviors, and attitudes that can be learned, applied, and modeled to improve personal satisfaction, achievement, and career effectiveness. It is an ongoing and continuous process that is,

at its best, self-defined and self-directed. A general definition of the emotionally intelligent person is one who is able to identify, understand, experience, and express human emotions in healthy and productive ways (Nelson and Low, 2003).

From an initial review of literature related to emotional intelligence, 224 publications, only four studies involved the classroom teacher. Although the final two of the four studies summarized below relate to the teaching profession, none directly investigated the link between emotional intelligence and teacher retention.

Byron (2001) investigated the emotional intelligence as a factor in the training of novice teachers and their adjustment and transition from the role of student to that of teacher. She surveyed 46 (predominantly white female) teachers from a private college on Long Island to derive a normative sample. The results of the study demonstrated that the novice teachers scored no differently from the sample; however, it did indicate that workshops were successful in increasing the emotional knowledge of novice teachers.⁵

Walker (2001) conducted a study to explore the significance of using an established research tool to raise the emotional intelligence and self-esteem of classroom teachers over a 30-day research period. The study concluded that there was no significant change in the subjects' emotional intelligence as a result of the 30-day mentoring.

Mendes (2002) compared the emotional intelligence of 49 certified secondary teachers and also assessed their current "burnout" levels, using established instruments. The study found that teachers with more experience were better at identifying emotions and concluded that understanding the role of emotions in work environments can lead to proactive approaches that may ease stress, increase productivity, and improve morale.

Alexis-Boyd (1998) conducted a heuristic study of 18 public school teachers to demonstrate that teaching can have a deleterious effect on their lives. Alexis-Boyd stated that the harsh realities of today's classrooms compromise the teacher's ability to live up to everyone's expectations. Data from the study suggested a need for the

development of interventions that would help teachers deal more effectively with the negative effects of teaching on their emotional lives. Recommendations from recent research on emotional intelligence in the workplace were considered valuable in creating and evaluating holistic programs that will help teachers achieve and sustain a greater well being.

Based on these studies and the author's own experience in recruiting, educating, and supporting new teachers prompted new research to determine if there is, in fact, a significant correlation between the relative emotional intelligence of the classroom teacher and the teacher's propensity to remain in the profession. The author proposes that a teacher who demonstrates a high degree of emotional intelligence is more likely to be effective as a classroom teacher, to experience personal satisfaction and a sense of achievement, all of which would encourage the teacher to remain in the profession. Specifically, the author believes the emotionally intelligent teacher will:

- Be aware and understand the emotional profiles of self, students, faculty and staff, parents, and other community members
- Possess knowledge and skills (intrapersonal and interpersonal) derived from emotional intelligence that will facilitate the teacher's pedagogy and classroom management
- Experience a more satisfying and rewarding career
- Most likely choose to remain in the profession

It should be noted that the author does not conclude that a relatively strong emotional intelligence profile will ensure a successful teaching experience nor will it necessarily result in the teacher's decision to remain in the profession. However, given the teacher's basic content knowledge and pedagogical and classroom management skills, a higher degree of emotional intelligence should increase the likelihood of the teacher choosing to remain in the profession.

If the research hypothesis is supported, the author will propose specific programs designed to develop emotional intelligence. The emotional intelligence content can easily be incorporated in existing teacher education, training, and mentoring programs. This added program content applies equally to both traditional and alternative certification programs as well as in service training and continuing education for all teachers, regardless of their longevity in the profession.

Research

The author developed a web-based, interactive study to investigate the possible link between emotional intelligence and career retention. The first portion of the study prompts the respondent to provide basic demographic data and to assess the new teacher's assessment of the first year(s) of teaching and her or his present disposition towards returning to the classroom next year and continuing a career in education. Subsequent portions of the study employ an emotional intelligence self-assessment instrument developed by Nelson and Low (1999). The web site's program provides an immediate visual profile for the respondent with descriptive comments and also provides links to credible resources for additional information on defining and developing emotional intelligence.

The inventory assesses 13 emotional intelligence attributes, including 10 positive skills and 3 potential problem areas. These traits are grouped by relationship:

- Intrapersonal skills: Assertion
- Leadership skills: Comfort, Empathy, Decision Making, Leadership
- Self Management skills: Drive Strength, Time Management, Commitment Ethic
- Intrapersonal skills: Self Esteem and Stress Management
- Problem Areas: Aggression, Deference, Change Orientation

The author chose a university partner school district in a large city in south Texas to conduct the pilot study. Although the initial

study was conducted primarily to determine the effectiveness of the study process, the host district superintendent was also interested in the outcome of the study concerning the profiles of new teacher retention and emotional intelligence. An aggregated profile of the respondents was provided to the district. Follow-up interviews with respondents concerning the process disclosed that the web-based study was easy to use and clearly understood by all.

Following the pilot study, the formal study was distributed electronically to 100 school districts across the state. Five districts were randomly selected from each of the 20 (Education Service Center) regions defined by the Texas Education Agency. District superintendents were provided an introduction to the study and asked to encourage their new teachers to participate. In addition to obtaining aggregated district, regional, and state profiles on new teacher retention and emotional intelligence, teachers were afforded an individual assessment and an opportunity to further explore and develop their emotional intelligence.

The data collection period was in May and June of 2004. Preliminary data analysis was projected to support a presentation at the annual Texas A&M System University-School Partnership Conference in late June 2004. The initial analysis will provide insight into the possible correlation between teacher retention and emotional intelligence and also investigate questions such as:

- Did new teachers receive adequate support from colleagues, administrators, students, and the community?
- Did new teachers feel that their content knowledge and pedagogical and classroom management skills were sufficient?
- Did new teachers enjoy the overall classroom experience?
- Did new teachers feel that teaching was a stressful experience?
- Does the teacher intend to return to the classroom next year?
- Do federal and state legislators have a good understanding of key issues in education?

At the conclusion of the study instrument, new teachers were provided the opportunity to recommend changes to the present educational system to improve student learning and the teaching profession. A qualitative analysis of the narrative data will provide a summary of key issues and reveal any significant trends and/or findings.

The study will hopefully support the author's contention that a continuing investment in teachers' emotional intelligence will result in greater effectiveness, job satisfaction, and retention in the profession. The author intends to extend this study to support the case for similar investments in students of all ages, but particularly those in early childhood, to better ensure a positive school experience and to improve academic performance and behaviors.

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Effects of a Mentoring Program on Teacher Retention: A Survey of Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi Graduates

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Introduction

The purpose of this study was to compare retention rates between Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMU-CC) education department graduates from 1998-2002, and graduates within that population who participated in a formal mentoring (SOS) teacher preparation program. The study focused on survey information to determine if there were significant differences in retention rates, perceptions of satisfaction in teaching, and reasons for leaving the teaching profession for this population.

The initial purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of the formal mentoring teacher preparation program initially called Teacher Induction, renamed Strategies of Success (SOS), to determine retention rates on the three hundred graduates who participated in this program over the past five years. Our initial mailing targeted one thousand graduates who were certified to teach through TAMU-CC, to verify the retention rates reported by the State Board of Educator Certification (SBEC). This population received a survey mailed to their residence and perceptions of these graduates were analyzed to determine differences between those certified to teach and those who participated in the SOS program.

To discover whether participation in the mentoring program had an effect on teacher retention rates among graduates of the Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMU-CC) education department, information gathered from the SBEC, Teacher Education Survey data, and qualitative interviews were compared. Findings will be posted on

the College of Education web site where faculty and others interested in this research can access information.

Methods

Our population consists of approximately one thousand graduates who received teacher certification from the state of Texas through TAMU-CC, including three hundred who participated in the formal mentoring program between 1998 and 2002. A quantitative approach for this study was selected with emphasis on follow-up qualitative interviews and narrative analysis.

A paper survey instrument with closed and open-ended items was designed by investigators with input from faculty members and mailed to participants in August and September 2003. Returned surveys were read and scores for each item recorded in SPSS where results were further analyzed. The analysis of data generated by SPSS from the initial survey was reported through output tables and graphs. An ongoing data audit on the participant population was assembled from institution and state sources previously described. On the survey instrument, participants were asked to volunteer to participate in follow-up interviews. A stratified proportion of the population was randomly selected from participants who participated in the SOS program as undergraduates and graduates for these follow-up interviews. Graduates of TAMU-CC who were certified but did not participate in the SOS program were also randomly selected for follow-up interviews. A sample population consisting of graduates from each group with 5 years, 4 years, 3 years, 2 years, and 1 year of teaching experience were contacted. Investigators discovered that email responses were more successful than telephone interviews.

Semi-structured questions from the survey served as springboards for initiating a conversation. Participants' stories were essential to this study with emphasis on the way each participant communicated his/her story. Emphasis was placed on the voice of each participant as the researchers analyzed each story as text. Focus of this study centered on the significance of its exploratory purpose and commitment to determining the causes of teacher attrition and retention.

The survey research questions are closely related to one another and focus on exploration of the culture of graduates currently employed as teachers. Participation in this study allowed the researchers (as instructor and instrument) to learn from their experiences as unobtrusive observers within the cultural group.

Researchers wanted to examine the effects of the formalized Strategies of Success (SOS) mentoring program on TAMU-CC graduates between 1998 and 2002 and began collecting social security numbers from certification lists for those years. Then running those numbers through the TAMU-CC Student Information System (SIS) generated mailing addresses. Finally, information was filtered through the SBEC website which verified the number of teachers certified at TAMU-CC between 1998 and 2002 who were still teaching. Once surveys were returned we learned that some seeking certification were not from this targeted population, but since they are graduates and data have been collected all information is included in this report.

Participants were informed about the purpose of the study and had an opportunity to volunteer to participate in the survey and interview portions of the study. This study yielded useful analyses that can inform the college, thereby improving the instructional process.

Findings

Responses to research questions revealed that the percentage of graduates certified through TAMU-CC between 1998 and 2002 who are still teaching is higher than the state average.

Findings to the research questions follow:

Section A

Question 1: Are you currently employed in the field of education?

From the total population of 247 respondents, 204 (82.6%) was currently employed and teaching, while 43 (17.4%) are not teaching. The SOS sample consisted of 64 (25.9%) graduates and there were 183 (74.1%) non-SOS graduates.

Question 2: Are you teaching in your area(s) of certification?

When asked if those employed were teaching in their area of certification, 185 (74.9 %) reported they were teaching in their areas of certification, while 62 (25.1%) reportedly were not teaching in their areas of certification.

Question 3: How long have you been employed as a teacher?

Teaching experience ranged from 0 years experience to 34 years teaching experience. Of the targeted population, 195 (78.9%) of the 247 surveys returned were from graduates in the targeted population, while 52 of the respondents (with more than 5 years teaching experience) were originally identified because they had been re-certified through TAMU-CC. Although not originally targeted, these graduates with six to thirty-four years of teaching experience were included in the study to identify their perceptions of satisfaction (see Table 1).

Table 1.
Teaching Experience.

Group	Total Number	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
Beginning teachers	21	8.5	8.5
1 year experience	36	14.6	23.1
2 years experience	42	17.1	40.1
3 years experience	23	9.3	49.4
4 years experience	47	19.0	68.4
5 years experience	26	10.6	78.9
6 –34 years	52	21.1	100.0

Questions 4-7 addressed district, campus, grade level(s), and subject(s) taught. When asked if they anticipated leaving the field of education in the future, the following reasons were identified (27) Job dissatisfaction, (12) Personal/Family reasons, (6) School staffing actions, (9) To pursue a totally different career, (15) Retirement, (12) State budget cuts, and (24) To pursue an education-related career.

Of the respondents answering “job dissatisfaction” on question 8 listed, (25) Salary, (11) Student discipline, (8) Lack of student motivation, (10) Large class size, (11) Poor administrative support,

(6) No opportunity for advancement, (5) Inadequate professional development as reasons for their dissatisfaction.

Section B

Questions were designed for respondents not currently employed in the field of education. Forty-nine respondents (19.8% of the total population) reported they once taught school, but are currently not teaching. Seven respondents reported they are not currently teaching and have never taught school. Reasons identified for leaving the field of education were (15) Job dissatisfaction, (15) Personal/Family reasons, (7) School-staffing actions, (8) To pursue a totally different career, (2) Retirement, (2) State budget cuts, and (5) To pursue another education-related career.

Graduates who marked “job dissatisfaction” on question 15, indicated the following reasons (7) Salary, (10) Student discipline, (5) Lack of student motivation, (5) Large class size, (11) Poor administrative support, (4) No opportunity for advancement, (2) Inadequate professional development.

Section C

Graduates were asked to rate their degrees of satisfaction with the teacher education program at TAMU-CC regarding undergraduate and graduate courses and degrees of satisfaction with program preparation. Questions 19-33 asked the graduates to rate their degree of satisfaction, with their graduates and undergraduate experiences (see Figure 1). Questions 34-46 asked the graduates to rate their success as a teacher by indicating on the scale below, their degree of satisfaction, with the questions listed in Figure 2. Findings revealed much higher percentages of satisfaction than dissatisfaction in response to all questions with the exception of questions 36 and 37. Respondents indicated less satisfaction with salary and benefits than with any other item on the survey.

Figure 1.
Questions 19-33.

- Q 19 Constructing discipline plans
- Q 20 Classroom management
- Q 21 Assessment strategies
- Q 22 Lesson planning
- Q 23 Teaching technology
- Q 24 Technology skills
- Q 25 Instructional strategies
- Q 26 Curriculum development
- Q 27 Special populations issues
 - A. Special education
 - B. Diversity
- Q 28 Preparation for working with students
- Q 29 Preparation for working with parents
- Q 30 Preparation for working with faculty
- Q 31 Preparation for working with

Questions 32 and 33 focused on respondents' satisfaction with services provided on campus by faculty advisor/mentor and degree counselor [non-faculty/staff]. Respondents indicated satisfaction with services provided by faculty (78.9%) and staff (62.7%) at TAMU-CC.

Figure 2.
Questions 34-46.

Rate your success as a teacher by indicating on the scale below, your degree of satisfaction with:

- Q 34 Teaching assignments
- Q 35 Working conditions
- Q 36 Salary
- Q 37 Benefits
- Q 38 Teaching schedule
- Q 39 Teaching abilities
- Q 40 Organizational skills
- Q 41 Classroom management
- Q 42 Rapport with colleagues
- Q 43 Rapport with administrators
- Q 44 Rapport with parents
- Q 45 Student-teacher relationships
- Q 46 Career choice

Section D

Section D of this survey was designed to evaluate perceptions of graduates who participated in the formal mentoring teacher preparation programs at TAMU-CC. Those graduates who participated in the Strategies of Success or Teacher Induction Program indicated the extent that each of the following items helped during their first year of teaching [Tables 2 & 3].

The majority of TAMU-CC graduates who participated in the SOS/TIP programs indicated that the impact of the program had a positive impact on their classroom experiences. Support and feedback from the university mentor was identified as helpful by a majority of this population. Ninety percent of the respondents indicated that visits by the TAMU-CC mentor to their classrooms were helpful. Ninety-one percent felt that feedback and suggestions in private meetings with university mentors was helpful. Eighty-two percent of this group indicated that the availability of the university mentor through email/telephone was helpful.

Table 2
Items That Helped During the First Year of Student Teaching.

	Greatly	Some	Not much	Not at all
Visits by the university mentor to your classroom	42 (60.0%)	21 (30.0%)	5 (7.1%)	2 (2.9%)
Feedback & suggestions from mentor in private meetings	42 (60.0%)	22 (31.4%)	5 (7.1%)	1 (1.4%)
Feedback & suggestions from mentor through e-mail or by telephone	33 (47.8%)	20 (29.0%)	9 (13.0%)	7 (10.1%)
Engaging in peer share- and- support groups	41 (58.6%)	19 (27.1%)	9 (12.9%)	1 (1.4%)
Camaraderie of other beginning teachers	40 (57.1%)	19 (27.1%)	9 (12.9%)	2 (2.9%)
Availability of the university mentor through e-mail/telephone	33 (47.1%)	25 (35.7%)	6 (8.6%)	6 (8.6%)

Section D

The second part of section D, Questions 53-68, addressed the extent to which the specific skills acquired in the formal mentoring teacher preparation programs in sixteen areas were perceived as useful.

Fifty-eight percent of the respondents indicated that participation in the TIP or SOS program greatly increased their confidence as teachers and twenty-nine percent indicated that the program resulted in some increase in confidence. From this sample, seventy-five percent of the respondents reported that the SOS/TIP program influenced their decision to stay in the teaching profession. Sixty-seven percent of the respondents indicated that the SOS/TIP program influenced their decision to complete a master's degree.

The Teacher Education Survey revealed that the SOS/TIP Mentoring Programs had a positive effect on teacher retention rates for Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi graduates. Eighty-one percent of the total graduate population responding to the survey reported current employment in the teaching profession, while ninety-seven percent of the SOS/TIP program participants who responded to the survey were currently teaching. Statistics from the SBEC Database support survey information revealing 826 of the 1,002 graduates surveyed (75%) were still teaching in Texas in December of 2003.

Table 3
Specific Skills Perceived Useful.

	Greatly	Some	Not much	Not at all
Writing lesson plans	20 (29.0%)	36 (52.2%)	11 (15.9%)	2 (2.9%)
Organizing the classroom	30 (43.5%)	30 (43.5%)	8 (11.6%)	1 (1.4%)
Using a variety of teaching strategies	34 (49.3%)	33 (47.8%)	2 (2.9%)	0 (0%)
Using higher level questioning strategies	24 (34.8%)	30 (44.5%)	13 (18.8%)	2 (2.9%)
Constructing discipline plans	24 (34.8%)	36 (52.2%)	7 (10.1%)	2 (2.9%)
Applying classroom management techniques	30 (43.5%)	33 (47.8%)	5 (7.2%)	1 (1.4%)
Motivating students	24 (34.8%)	34 (49.3%)	10 (14.5%)	1 (1.4%)
Implementing programs related to special education	13 (18.8%)	26 (37.7%)	24 (34.8%)	6 (8.7%)
Working with special education students	14 (20.3%)	28 (40.6%)	20 (29.0%)	7 (10.1%)
Understanding the culture of the school	14 (20.6%)	35 (51.5%)	14 (20.6%)	5 (7.4%)
Working with parents	15 (22.1%)	39 (57.4%)	10 (14.7%)	3 (4.4%)
Communicating with administrators	20 (29.0%)	32 (46.4%)	13 (18.8%)	4 (5.8%)
Communicating with students	21 (30.4%)	43 (62.3%)	3 (4.3%)	2 (2.9%)
Communicating with colleagues	23 (33.3%)	35 (50.7%)	8 (11.6%)	3 (4.3%)
Managing time	24 (35.8%)	36 (52.2%)	8 (11.6%)	1 (1.4%)
Solving common problems which confront first year teachers	37 (54.4%)	24 (35.3%)	5 (7.4%)	2 (2.9%)

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Preservice Teacher Influence Upon High School Interest in Becoming Teachers

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Introduction

The shortage of qualified teachers and the increasingly diverse student population in our nation's schools are important issues in teacher education. The State of Texas is faced with an acute teacher shortage. The *Texas Teacher and Retention Study* of February, 1999, commissioned by the Texas Education Agency (TEA), describes a serious shortage of teachers in Texas. Teachers in Texas, as well as nationwide, are leaving the profession in alarming numbers, ranging from one-third to one-half within three years of their first teaching assignment (TEA, 1999; Ingersoll, 1997). Urban school districts have reported critical shortages in special education, as well as in the content areas of math and science (Council for Exceptional Children, 2000).

In addition to an overall shortage of teachers there exists an under representation of teachers from ethnic minorities in our nation's public schools. Our nation's current and future teachers represent the diversity found among today's students to a lesser and lesser extent. Ninety percent of the public school teachers are white and 75% are women. "The mismatch between the diverse population of students and the relatively homogeneous population of teachers makes it difficult for all students to have role models in school with whom they can identify" (Latham, Gitomer & Ziomek, 1999).

What measures can teacher preparation programs take to help create a more representative public school teaching force? Richard Ingersoll (1997) summarized his research of teacher shortages stating, "If teaching were treated as a highly valued profession, one requiring

a great deal of knowledge and skill to do well, there would be no problem attracting and retaining more than enough excellent teachers, and there would be little problem ensuring that all classrooms were staffed with qualified teachers.” The shortage of minority teachers requires intentional, aggressive recruitment of minority future teachers into our teacher education programs (U.S. Dept. of Ed., 1998).

Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMU-CC) with support through the Texas A&M Regents’ Initiative for Excellence in Education has worked to recruit highly qualified diverse candidates for our field-based teacher education program. TAMU-CC’s partnership with Miller High School (MHS) represents a unique opportunity in South Texas to promote the teaching profession among the predominantly minority student population of MHS. Opportunities exist to promote teaching as a career among the students of MHS in conjunction with the preparation of pre-service teachers in the TAMU-CC field-based teacher education program.

This study was conducted in cooperation with Miller High School (MHS) of Corpus Christi, Texas within the structure of the field-based teacher education program of Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMU-CC). The educational partnership between TAMU-CC and MHS involves university preservice teachers with the high school faculty and their students. TAMU-CC site professors and MHS “clinical” faculty serve as mentors for the preservice teachers helping them acquire teaching skills in preparation for their subsequent student teaching semester. Preservice teachers assume an “apprentice teaching role” in the classrooms of their assigned clinical teachers.

The study examined the influence of preservice teachers upon high school students’ interest in becoming teachers, in addition to compiling pertinent student demographic data.

Pre- and post-surveys entitled, *Survey of Miller High School Students’ Interest in Teaching as a Career*, were administered in the classrooms of five clinical English teachers at Miller High School. Follow-up interviews were conducted with MHS students who indicated that they planned to become teachers.

The MHS clinical English teachers were eligible to participate in the study if they taught two or more sections of a course, thereby allowing for comparisons of classes with and without a preservice teacher. Among the activities required of the preservice teachers in the classrooms of their clinical teachers was a formal presentation encouraging the MHS students to attend college and consider teaching as a career.

Preliminary review of the data gathered from the 360 MHS students who completed both the pre- and post-surveys suggested that further analysis of the data be focused on the juniors and seniors who participated in the study. Significant differences were found between the freshmen/sophomore and junior/senior groups' stated interest in teaching. Of the 104 freshmen and sophomores who completed both surveys, only two marked that they planned to become teachers. Meanwhile, over 10 percent of the juniors and seniors participating in the study indicated that they planned to become teachers (see Table 1). Therefore, the statistical analysis of the data gathered is focused on the MHS juniors and seniors who completed both surveys. The 256 juniors and seniors constituting the research sample were comprised of 137 girls and 119 boys.

Table 1
Interest in Teaching by Grade.

Grade	Freshman	Sophomore	Junior	Senior	Total
No	54	20	63	87	224
Maybe	17	11	29	51	108
Yes	1	1	7	19	28
Total	72	32	99	157	360

The ethnic makeup of the research sample was comprised of 80 percent Hispanic-American and 10 percent African-American students, as well as over six percent of the students who described themselves as "blended" (see Table 2). Approximately 20 percent of the sample indicated that Spanish, rather than English was their first language.

Table 2
Ethnicity

	Frequency	Percent
Hispanic	205	80.1
White	5	2.0
Black	27	10.5
Blended	16	6.3
Asian-American	1	.4
Pacific Islander	2	.8
Total	256	100.0

Another important descriptor of the participants was the relatively low level of their parents’ education. Only 19 of the 221 MHS students reporting the level of their father’s education indicated that he had earned a college degree. Of the 241 students reporting their mother’s level of education, only 22 of the students’ mothers had graduated from college. Furthermore, 106 of the fathers and 104 of the mothers did not complete high school. MHS students that were not planning on attending college or undecided about college attendance were primarily students whose parents did not attend college (see Tables 3 and 4). Less than six percent of the MHS students whose mothers attended college were either undecided or not planning to go to college, while over 17 percent of those students who mothers did not attend college were undecided or not planning to attend college. In other words, if these MHS students’ mothers did not attend college they are three times more likely to also not go to college than are the students whose mothers did attend college.

Eighty-two of the 98 students who responded to the item asking, “Has an educator had a positive influence on your desire to become/consider becoming a teacher?” indicated that an educator had made a positive impact upon their interest in teaching (see Table 5).

*Table 3**Plans to Attend College by Level of Father's Education.*

College	Did not finish high school	High school graduate	Some college or trade school	College graduate	Total
Will attend	90	58	26	16	190
Will not attend	3	3	0	1	7
Undecided	13	8	1	2	24
Total	106	69	27	19	221

*Table 4**Plans to Attend College by Level of Mother's Education.*

College	Did not finish high school	High school graduate	Some college or trade school	College graduate	Total
Will attend	86	57	43	21	207
Will not attend	3	2	2	0	7
Undecided	15	10	1	1	27
Total	104	69	46	22	241

*Table 5**Positive Influence by Educator*

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	82	77.4
No	16	15.1
Total	98	92.5

The groups of educators who had had the greatest positive influence upon the students in the research sample were teachers. Of the three groups of teachers, elementary, middle school, and high school, it was the high school teachers that were chosen as having the greatest influence upon the juniors and seniors participating in this study (see Table 6). Approximately two-thirds of the students indicated that one or more high school teachers had positively influenced their interest in the teaching profession.

Table 6
Motivation to Teach Influenced by High School Teacher

Interest in Teaching	Yes	No	Total
Maybe	46	27	73
Yes	19	6	25
Total	65	33	98

The primary research focus of this study was to examine the influence that TAMU-CC preservice teachers have upon high school students' interest in becoming teachers. The study revealed that the preservice teachers had very minimal influence upon high school students' interest in the teaching profession. Only seven of the 98 MHS juniors and seniors who were interested in becoming teachers indicated that a preservice teacher had positively influenced their interest in teaching.

Preservice teachers' classroom exposure was limited to Tuesday and Thursday afternoon classes of 50 minutes in length over an eight-week period. Furthermore, the preservice teachers arrived in the classrooms of their clinical teachers two weeks after the start of the new school year at Miller High School due to the difference between the TAMU-CC and MHS school calendars. The researchers believe that both of these conditions, namely the relatively short period of time in the classroom, coupled with the late arrival of the preservice teachers, contributed to the preservice teachers' minimal influence upon the MHS students' interest in the teaching profession.

The research design of this study involved the administration of a pre- and post-survey to control and experimental classrooms of English students. The challenge of conducting educational research within the daily routine of the high school was apparent from the beginning of this study because not all of the participating English teachers were able to administer the pre-survey at the appointed time due to a combination of unavoidable and unforeseen circumstances, such as fire drills, pep rallies and field trips.

Similar difficulties occurred with the post-survey administration. Furthermore, at the mid-way point of the semester,

the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) anxiety had heightened causing some teachers to postpone the survey “until they had time for it.” Nevertheless, the pre-survey was administered prior to the preservice teachers’ presence in the “experimental” English class sections and the post-survey was given after the preservice teacher had served in the clinical teachers’ classrooms for eight weeks.

Important variables that this study does not account for are the “quality of the preservice teacher” and the “relationship/collaboration between the preservice teacher and the clinical teacher.” All four of the preservice teachers participating in this study were good students and did acceptable or better jobs as preservice teachers in the classrooms of their clinical teachers. However, in the opinions of the site professors, there was a difference in the level of performance among the preservice teachers in the classrooms of their respective MHS English teachers. Perhaps of greater significance, the mentoring or collaborative abilities of the clinical teachers varied. Therefore, the relationship between the preservice teacher and the high school students was greatly influenced by the assigned MHS English teacher.

The follow-up interviews conducted with MHS juniors and seniors who indicated that they planned to become teachers are worthy of mention. These interviews, conducted by the site professors, served to strengthen the connection between the TAMU-CC teacher education program and students of Miller High School. Activities involving the site professors and preservice teachers with newly formed MHS Texas Association of Future Educators chapter are being planned for the spring semester of 2004 as a result of this research endeavor.

Three major implications for the future examination of preservice teacher influence upon high school students’ interest in becoming teachers have resulted from this study. First of all, a quantitative measure of the preservice teachers’ role in the clinical teacher’s classroom is needed in order to more accurately measure the preservice teachers’ influence within the various sections of their assigned classes. Secondly, identification and assessment of specific preservice teacher activities impacting high school students’ interest in the teaching profession must occur. Finally, this study has

suggested that it is the current teachers of the high school students that have the greatest influence upon their interest in teaching. Measurement of the teacher qualities and activities that differentiate those teachers who positively influence high school students' interest in becoming teachers from those who do not would provide additional useful information.

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Counseling Education for Our Students

No Child Left Uncounseled: The Middle School Counselors' Challenge to Assist Students

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Introduction

The Texas State Comptroller's Report (2002) found that counselors within the state spent forty percent of their time performing tasks unrelated to counseling. School counselor tasks, expectations, and demands vary from state to state, district to district, and school to school. Typically, school counselors are simply told what to do by administrators who are more concerned with local expediency than professional priorities for counselors" (House & Hayes, 2002). This is quite disturbing when one surmises the goal of education as that of directly assisting students. Additionally, school counselors and other school staff often do not agree on what duties should and should not be performed by counselors (Burnham & Jackson, 2000). This qualitative study's intent was to determine if middle school counselors experienced personal and professional difficulties in assisting students.

Perspectives in the Literature

A literature review has identified a myriad of problems plaguing the school counseling profession. However, the most prominent one that all other problems stem from is that of role definition (Sears, 2002; Paisely & Borders, 1995). Paisley and McMahon (2001) state that role definition is the most important challenge that school counselors face today. Because the role of a school counselor is ambiguous, counselors find themselves pulled in different directions from the populations they serve: administrators, teachers, students, parents, etc. (Burnham & Jackson, 2000; Whiston, 2002; Green & Keys, 2001). Thus, counselors find themselves

struggling as they try to prioritize and answer the many expectations and demands placed on them. Divisions exist interpersonally among even counselors themselves. According to Hoyt and Schmidt, this role vagueness has been present since the early days of counseling (as cited in Burnham & Jackson, 2000).

Since then, many have attempted to define the role of the school counselor through the development of models such as the ASCA National Model, Gysbers and Henderson's Model, and Myrick's Model. Although these models bare similar views on the counselors' role, they differ in the time allotted to particular counselor task/role. While the majority of the state counseling programs are based on Gysbers' model (as cited in Burnham & Jackson, 2000), there seems to be a continued struggle to adhere to those guidelines and roles. Texas Senate Bill 251, a policy that requires all school districts to define and establish the percentage of time allotted on each activity or role for all schools counselors was recently passed and serves as evidence of the continued effort to have all school counselors supported in their roles and duties (Lucio, 2003). Another bill, Senate Bill 538, required the state comptroller to conduct a statewide study of the duties performed by public school counselors and the time allotted to these duties.

Despite state laws and the efforts of state and national affiliations, the literature suggests that school counselors continue to struggle with role conflict and role ambiguity. This confusion can often lead to feelings of ineffectiveness, a lack of prioritization and accommodation of new roles (Freeman & Coll, 1997). As studies have illustrated (Brott & Myers, 1999), the development of school counselor professional identity contributes to defining the role of school counselors, which in turn shapes the counseling programs and services provided to students. When school counselors encounter role ambiguity and lack of supervision, the duties of school counselors often are in conflict with one another. These inconsistencies in role assignments send inaccurate messages to the parents, students, teachers with whom they are working, and even to the counselors' themselves.

School counselors' encounter complicated issues on a daily basis and generally perform without aid of proper counseling

supervision (Barret & Schmidt, 1986). As the sole mental health providers available on the school campus, the school counselor may be handling cases beyond their scope of training (Sutton & Page, 1994). As early as 1986, Barret and Schmidt identified this as an overlooked professional issue and further suggested lack of supervision as a reason principals assigned non counselor duties to school counselors. Supervision is an important part of any counselor's professional development. Further, it provides support and encouragement. This type of support was the number one reason counselors sought supervision (Borders & Usher, 1992). Within the school-counseling field, however, supervision as well as the implementation of national guidelines may be the answer to some vital problems for counselors at all levels. School counseling issues discussed by Borders (2002) seem to revolve around issues of time devoted to counseling, coordinating, and consulting. Responses to these critical issues, it seems, are going to vary from school to school, year by year, grade level to grade level and most likely the needs of the school as set forth by the administration.

As researchers like Baker (2001) and Paisley and McMahon (2001) suggest, administrators do not have an accurate view of the school counselor's role and relevant skills. This lack of information along with the lack of an integration of school counseling supervision creates an administrative centered school-counseling curriculum. Allowing the voice of the school counselor to be heard as well as paying attention to documentation of counseling time and effort will be crucial elements in the realignment of goals involving program evaluation, accountability, and advocacy for students as well as for the school counseling profession.

Method

Phenomenology allows the researcher to explore another's perspective including experiences and interpretations (Osborne, 1994). Patton (2002) transcribes phenomenology as the investigation of the manner in which humans decipher experiences into consciousness and consequently, a shared connotation. Consequently, the method of phenomenology employed in this study allowed the researchers the ability to enter the participants' world and make sense

of their needs, desires, and ability to implement appropriate counseling programs.

Procedure

Purposeful sampling was used to identify current middle school counselors with at least two years middle school counseling experience. A focus group interview was carried out with five identified volunteers and the interview lasted approximately 1-hours. Preceding the interview, participants were given a short orientation, which included signing an informed consent document. Participants answered a series of seven questions, which included:

- If I followed you through a typical day, what would you be doing?
- What experiences would I observe you having?
- What is your opinion of your job?
- What has the experience of being a school counselor been like for you?
- In what way is being a counselor different from that of being a teacher or administrator?
- How have you changed as a result of your job experiences?
- What should I have asked you that I failed to ask?"

Answers to the aforementioned questions were gathered by tape recording the respondents replies. Researchers asked for elaborations and clarifications when needed. The verbatim transcripts of this interview served as the data for analysis.

Seven themes emerged from the data with each transcribed comment falling into the context of at least one theme. Inductive analysis synthesized into seven final themes (per participants' accounts) including: role confusion, lack of respect given to counselors, lack of counselor respect for administration, training issues, time constraints, the need to assist and advocate for students, and isolation.

Participants

Five current middle school counselors volunteered to participate in the focus group. Of the five counselors who participated in the group, three were Anglo females and two were Hispanic females. Participants' years of middle school counseling experience ranged from two years up to twenty-seven years. 100% of the counselors were certified in the state of Texas and had earned at least a master's degree in the field of counseling. Noted observations of the participants during the interview included well developed rapport that allowed for the disclosure of information. Participants appeared relaxed and much focused on the questions at hand. Participants continually gave each other support and/or validation for their responses by oral agreement or via body language.

Analysis

Data in qualitative research are analyzed as "a progression, not a stage; an on-going process, not a one-time event" (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper & Allen, 1993). The researcher used two qualitative strategies in data analysis: (a) data reduction, and (b) drawing conclusions concerning the phenomenon of gaining the perspective of middle school counselors regarding student guidance services through an exploration of counselor attitudes and opinions towards their career (Miles & Huberman, 1984). Data reduction is the division of data into the "smallest pieces of information" or breaking the data down into the "one idea found in a portion of content" (Erlandson, et al., 1993). Each interview was transcribed and identified with a code assigned to the participant. Transcriptions were printed in a 4-inch wide column on one side of a landscape formatted 8 by 11 inch sheet of paper.

The first step in data reduction required the researcher to carefully read and identify words or phrases from the transcripts. When a unit of meaning was identified, it was then written in the column adjacent to the transcription. After the transcription was deconstructed using this method, the researcher read each unit again to ensure data were reduced to the smallest unit of meaning. Units of data were then transferred to small index cards. This method of data reduction was used for all of the transcriptions. These cards were sorted and grouped according to the researcher's perceived meaning. At this point, the

researcher began to gain a cursory awareness of ideas, concepts, and themes surfacing from the data. A data display was created to organize themes and draw conclusions.

The process of drawing conclusions from the data incorporated questions such as, “Are there words or concepts that are recurring in the aggregate data? Are there themes and patterns that have surfaced from the written material as the researcher works with the data?” (Jackson & White, 2000). These questions were answered through the utilization of the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This method is a repetitious way of comparing unitized word statements to “generate theoretical properties of a category” (Glaser & Strause, 1967). Data cards were initially placed into categories with similar meanings. These categories were labeled and each data card was considered in comparison with other cards under the label. For example, a data card containing, “lack of counselor respect” was initially grouped with cards indicating “role confusion.” However, when compared to other word phrases under this label the unit appeared out of place. The card was then compared to statements in other groupings until a similar meaning category was found. If a datum card did not seem to fit in any category, a new category was formed. The comparison continued until the researcher determined all of the unitized data were place in the appropriate categories. Seven categories emerged as themes that helped the researcher draw conclusions concerning gaining the perspective of middle school counselors regarding student guidance services through an exploration of counselor attitudes and opinions towards their career. The themes were role confusion, lack of respect given to counselors, lack of counselor respect for administration, training issues, time constraints, need to support and advocate for students, and isolation.

Trustworthiness of the Study

How can counseling professionals know the themes emerging from this study are trustworthy? Qualitative research requires the researcher to establish trustworthiness or truthfulness of findings based on the specific conditions of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Erlandson et al., 1993). To enhance credibility, the researcher used the procedures suggested by Lincoln

and Guba (1985). First, prolonged engagement and persistent observation were utilized. One researcher was professionally acquainted with each of the participants in this study and, therefore, was able to validate experiential comments through observations of their professional growth over an extended period of time. Second, participant triangulation was established by the researchers through collecting and combining data for comparison of shared individual experiences from multiple middle school counselors. Third, member checks were conducted by presenting perceived themes and interview content to the study's participants to ensure they were in agreement with the written comments. Fourth, peer debriefing was held to increase researcher objectivity by discussing thoughts, perceptions, insights, and conclusions with a professional educator who had a working knowledge of the experiences of school counseling.

Transferability answers the question, "How applicable are the findings [to other middle school counselors]?" (Erlandson et al., 1993). Transferability in this study was ensured in two ways. First, the researcher purposefully selected participants who shared the experience of being middle school counselors in the same geographic region. Secondly, the researcher designed the study to allow participants the opportunity to discuss in-depth their experiences, perceived support, and views of supervision.

Dependability, in qualitative research related to consistency. The dependability for this study was based on keeping an audit or record of procedural steps (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Information recorded in the audit record included participant contacts, interview collection, timelines, and narrative analysis.

Confirmability relates to objectivity (Erlandson et al., 1993). How are objectives related to the outcomes of the study? The researchers kept a journal of reflective thoughts during the research process. The researchers also discussed the narrative analysis with a peer to decrease researcher bias during the process. Findings are presented in a manner to indicate support from relevant counseling literature. It is the researchers' opinion that trustworthiness was established in this study, leading to results that are transferable.

Results

A theme must have been acknowledged by the majority of the middle school counselors to be considered as indicative of the group. Therefore, when the word participants is used in the results section, the reader may assume the majority of the participants provided dialogue consistent with the concept being presented. The results of this study reveal seven unanimous themes in the experiences of middle school counselors. The recurrence of these themes among the study participants was unmistakable. The most frequently discussed theme was ambiguity of counselor role. Each theme is described in the following paragraphs quoting participant wording when appropriate.

Themes

One of the major emergent themes was role confusion. Sears (2002) defines role confusion as the most significant challenge facing school counselors today. Interviewed counselors stated, "We're doing everyone else's job". School counselors struggle with a number of responsibilities and the priority they assign to them that may not be directly related to the counseling program's mission (Green & Keys, 2001). Many demands are placed on counselors due to different expectations such as providing counseling programs in 3 domains: academic, career, and personal/social for all children. School counselors are often asked to take on administrative duties such as testing, supervising and class scheduling (Meyers, 2002). School administrators, teachers, parents, other interested groups, and even counselors themselves often have different perceptions of the school counselor's role. "School counselor's roles are often problematic in definition, interpretation, and implementation. This role ambiguity, present since the early days of the guidance movement, currently remains an issue today" (Burnham & Jackson, 2000). School counselors lack control over their day-to-day work activities and the development of their profession. Their role is usually dictated by someone who lacks the background and experience in school counseling (Paisley & Borders, 1995).

Lack of respect given to counselors was another emergent theme. This was especially salient when counselors mentioned being interrupted during guidance lessons or during counseling sessions.

Another theme that emerged was the lack of counselor respect for administration. Counselors didn't feel that the administrators were on the same page as far as goals go for the comprehensive school counseling initiative. One of the counselors commented, "Administrators complain about problem children, yet don't allow us to work on the issues". The counselors also felt that some of the tasks asked of them by administrators were so far fetched that it placed them in greater predicaments.

Training issues, which also emerged as a theme, have become a greater concern. The counselors feel that "there are not enough developmental models of training and there is not enough guidance from those that are actually school counselors".

The issue of time constraints was another theme. Counselors stated, "There are too many interruptions, too much documentation, and too many administrative deadlines. This leaves you feeling like you have deadline to commit to and then you do not actually get to see the children".

"Most counselors I know report that their day goes by in a whirlwind of activities, where they wonder at the end of the day what they have accomplished. One of the reasons for this is the multiple expectations that people have of school counselors and most counselor's basic desire to help" (Whiston, 2002). In this theme, the need to support and advocate for students, counselors felt that their primary role was to be there for the children and to support them in all of their struggles.

In the final theme, isolation, comments made by the respondents indicated that there is not a lot of support for the working relationship of counselors. Researchers Boyd and Walter (1975) support this theme of isolation and state that school counselors are "like a cactus". They are placed in an environment where they must grow and survive with few "nutrients". Some of the reasons stated by the counselors for feeling isolated were the lack of appropriate supervision; the lack of ongoing training; often being an isolated entity within the office setting; and feeling that others don't understand their role as a counselor.

Discussion and Conclusion

These findings indicate that while counselors desire to assist students, implementation of comprehensive guidance programs is complicated. The middle school counselor's role needs clarification and successful guidance programs require the support of the entire system.

Training appears to play a major role in serving the needs of students. School counselors desire quality training from professors with school counseling experience. Perhaps universities might satisfy this need by hiring staff with such experience. Additionally, school administrators and teachers would benefit from courses covering the counselor's role and comprehensive guidance programs.

Middle school counselors must become change agents rather than passively waiting for others to understand their profession and the counseling needs of students. Involving parents and the community in needs assessments and guidance planning committees, political lobbying, becoming active in professional organizations, and educating school administrators can lead to more counseling time with students and consequently, students better prepared to greet their future.

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No Student Left Behind: In Support of Qualitative Approaches to Assessment and Evaluation of Outcome Results in Counseling

Kaye W. Nelson

Introduction

Qualitative methodology is crucial to research on human beings in a social political environment in which major decisions are made using quantitative measures to assess academic progress and outcome effectiveness of counseling and counseling programs. A perusal of counseling journals reveals that counselor educators have conducted most outcome research. Academicians are usually trained in quantitative methods; consequently quantitative approaches have been primarily used in outcome research. Indeed, quantitative research methods have played a significant role in the profession by providing helpful information and important insights about counseling and counseling programs. Quantitative research methodology continues to be respected for its empiricism, persistence, and depth of inquiry (Kline, 2003).

In spite of respected contributions to the field of counseling, proponents of qualitative research maintain that quantitative methodology has limitations. Lincoln (2002) maintains that many aspects of human phenomena are unquantifiable and that quantitative methods cannot thoughtfully explain multicultural perspectives, satisfactorily describe emotions or adequately measure the meaning of human experience. Qualitative researchers challenge the belief that only an objective methodology can obtain meaningful results and propose that qualitative methods present a credible alternative that can provide important information about human beings to counselors and educators (Kline, 2003; Patton, 2002; Marshall & Rossman, 1999; Rossman & Rallis, 2003; Strauss & Corbin, 1997). Qualitative

research is necessary to more fully understand and improve educational processes designed to leave no student behind.

Postmodernists are critical of traditional social science and maintain that (a) research involves issues of power; (b) research results are influenced by race, gender, class, and politics of the researcher; (c) sensitivity to race, class, gender, sociopolitical environment is essential to understanding human experience; and (d) research has usually silenced the voices of the oppressed and marginalized (Rossman & Rallis, 2003, p. 93). “Leaving no student behind” necessitates research and evaluation methodology that allows the voices of all to be heard. Qualitative methodology provides insights that counselors and educators need to increase their understanding of students and to better assist a diverse population in becoming capable and responsible citizens.

Characteristics of qualitative research may be helpful in gaining a broader or more holistic picture of students within the unique environments in which each are learning or growing. One important tenet is the refusal to accept any absolute certainty or truth. Qualitative researchers are humble and cautious about reporting research findings and are comfortable with the notion of multiple realities and ambiguity. Certainly the idea that there could be a single fixed reality, research method, or knowledge is rejected. The qualitative researcher recognizes his/her subjectivity and attempts to guard against preconceived ideas and bias. Methodology isn’t fixed or governed by prior accepted practice, nor do perimeters, hierarchies, or cognitive constructs restrict the research process. In fact, research processes often focus on deconstructing suppositions or beliefs. Creative and flexible thinking is valued, as is the refusal to classify people or ideas in absolute terms. A both/and stance to research is adopted as opposed to an either/or approach. Qualitative research is distinguished by appreciation and valuing of the meaning of human experience (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993; Patton, 2002; Rossman & Rallis, 2003).

An examination of qualitative research methods is warranted for those steeped in the principles of quantitative research. The researcher takes on the role of a student who enters the world to be informed by the data. The researcher is considered inseparable from

participants and interacts with the research participants. The researcher is seen as a human instrument operating in a natural setting. Sampling is purposive, and the research design is emergent. Hypotheses are not generalizable and are bound to the time and context of the study in question. Theory is often developed as the data is analyzed. The researcher is expected to use intuitive or “felt knowledge” (Erlandson et al, 1993; Patton, 2002; Rossman & Rallis, 2003).

In qualitative research, data consists of words not numbers with sources of data basically deriving from interviews, observations, documents, or other materials. Data analysis and interpretation is an inductive process as the researcher becomes immersed in transcripts, field notes, and artifacts. The researcher organizes the data into patterns or themes, continuously examines, and constantly compares the data until a meaning, story, or theory emerges. The results are then written to communicate what has been learned (Erlandson et al, 1993; Patton, 2002; Rossman & Rallis, 2003; Strauss & Corbin, 1997).

As opposed to the constructs of reliability and validity, the concept of trustworthiness is used in qualitative research to establish credibility and rigor. To obtain triangulation, the researcher utilizes several sources of data, methods, and investigators. Extended engagement, continual observation, and the collection of sufficient materials contribute to a rigorous study. Structuring regular debriefing by peers can be helpful as is member checking i.e. getting the findings validated by participants in the study (Patton, 2002). Authors of qualitative research texts also encourage researchers to keep a reflexive journal, engage in “thick description” of the entire process, and establish an audit trail to build credibility (Erlandson et al, 1993; Patton, 2002; Rossman & Rallis, 2003).

Examples of qualitative research conducted in educational settings are included in the reference list (Aviles, Guerrero, Howarth, 1999; Lindstrom & Benz, 2002; Nelson et al, 2001; Nelson & Jackson, 2001; Nelson & Jackson, 2003; Pearson & Biechke, 2001; and Rienhard, Goetz & Titz, 2002). Though qualitative research is increasing, additional qualitative research is needed to gain a more complete understanding of the experience of students, teachers, and counselors working in today’s educational systems and the meaning

the educational process has for them. The speaker at a recent twelve county regional workforce forum asserted that school systems haven't changed in one hundred years and that students' emotional learning has not been developed to include skills in teamwork and problem solving. In his address, Tony Wagner, co-director of the Change Leadership Group at the Harvard School of Education, claimed that an "Enron-style accounting for education" is being used and basic problems are not being addressed (Hunter, 2004).

Though the tenor of this piece may be perceived as critical of quantitative methodology, the intention is simply to build a case for the use of qualitative measures of human beings and advocate that qualitative research should also be employed in the "no child left behind" movement.

Both quantitative and qualitative research methods are crucial in conducting helpful, expert, and principled research in counseling and education, yet both may be imperfect when used in isolation from the other. The empirical research paradigm is both useful and limited in nature. A postmodern or qualitative paradigm can liberate researchers of closely proscribed, regulated methodology and allow flexibility for various points of view (Erlandson et al, 1993). Unless more effort is made to understand the social context of marginalized students and explore what meaning education has for them, educators' and counselors' efforts to leave no student behind may be thwarted. Qualitative research could facilitate positive educational changes that make a difference for all students.

The unique contributions of qualitative methodology may be summarized as (a) the acceptance of multiple realities, (b) valuing the meaning of human experience, (c) telling the story of research participants, (d) reporting aspects of human existence that can not be quantified, and (e) exploration and appreciation of cultural context. The use of narrative data in conjunction with numerical data could give a more balanced view of the entire educational process. An in depth qualitative understanding of students should be used in addition to quantitative methods to expand our knowledge and assist in exploring new educational and counseling practices that successfully contribute to "no child left behind" efforts.

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A Study in the Treatment of Trauma Resolution in Couples Counseling Utilizing Eye Movement Desensitization and Reprocessing

Frederick Capps

Introduction

Since its introduction in 1989, Eye Movement Desensitization and Reprocessing (EMDR) is gaining wide acceptance as an efficacious clinical treatment. It is particularly useful in the treatment of Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) (Alto, 2001). Despite its relative novelty, EMDR has been used to treat survivors, emergency workers, and disaster relief counselors worldwide. EMDR therapists have successfully employed EMDR in Oklahoma City, Belfast, Zagreb, Rwanda, Dunblane, Sarajevo, Columbine, and Londonderry. EMDR has also been used in the treatment of PTSD for combat veterans from World War II, the Korean War, Beirut, and the Vietnam War (Silver and Rogers, 2002, p.xix). EMDR effects exceed those of nonspecific effects shared by all treatments and are independent of client expectations. Moreover, EMDR effects are at least equal to effects of cognitive-behavioral therapy and EMDR requires less time than other models with less client attrition (p. 254). Importantly, the American Psychological Association has listed EMDR as an efficacious treatment for civilian PTSD (Alto, 2001).

Almost all research on EMDR has been conducted with individual subjects, with family and couples receiving short shrift. Thus, despite conjoint therapy being a time-honored clinical practice (Bowen, 1978; Satir, 1972), little is known about the effectiveness of EMDR in conjoint sessions. Shapiro mentions a mixed result of the use of EMDR in couples work, in both the first and second editions of her book on EMDR (1995; 2001). One recent study involving the use of EMDR in couples therapy found that EMDR fits within

experientially based treatment and argues that it can increase therapeutic effectiveness (Protinsky, Sparks, & Flemke, 2001). More recently, Flemke and Protinsky have reported successfully integrating EMDR with Imago Relationship Therapy (2003).

Experiential therapy has been shown to be effective in symptom reduction in depression (Greenberg & Watson, 1998). Experiential techniques have also been used effectively in dealing with trauma and with attachment injuries in couples counseling (Greenberg & Malcolm, 2002; Johnson, 2003; Johnson, Mäkinen, & Millikin, 2001). Combining EMDR with experiential therapy in couples counseling may provide the supportive partner the opportunity to experience the trauma and the trauma resolution of the traumatized partner at a deep level, thereby gaining awareness and empathy for the partner. The result of the relief of trauma/reframing by the traumatized partner together with the newfound awareness and empathy of the supporting partner is believed to encourage increased emotional intimacy that will lead to a stronger relationship (Hook, Gerstein, Detterich, & Gridley, 2003). In keeping with traditional experiential family therapy, the goal of integrating EMDR in couples counseling is growth and integrity, that is, congruence between inner experience and outward behavior (Nichols & Schwartz, 1991). A study using emotional focused couples therapy (EFT) found that emotional deepening is effective in increasing emotional intimacy in couples (Johnson, Hunsley, Greenberg, & Schindler, 1999).

There are at least two studies that use EMDR with couples that focus on strengthening emotional intimacy (Protinsky, Sparks & Flemke, 2001; Snyder, 1996). In another study, the use of gestalt therapy and EMDR in combination is discussed (Capps, submitted for publication). In Capps' study, the combination of gestalt and EMDR appears to be helpful in resolving trauma and in increasing emotional intimacy within the relationship. Capps reports similar results in three cases. Each case had a different source of intrarelational trauma: infidelity, domestic violence, or substance abuse related behaviors.

In a national survey of the use of couples therapy in substance abuse treatment, only 27% offered couples-based counseling. For programs not providing couples treatment, reasons cited include: lack of appropriate training for staff (70%); a belief that couples treatment

is inappropriate for patients in general (35%); difficulties obtaining third-party reimbursement (39%); and a policy of referral to relationship treatment as a part of an aftercare plan (39%) (Fals-Stewart & Birchler, 2001). Fals-Stewart and Birchler found that out of the 114 programs in their study ($n = 325$) that offered couples counseling, only 21 offered something other than behaviorally-oriented couples counseling; family disease counseling; strategic or structural systemic family therapy; general couples counseling; or psychoeducational counseling. This finding illustrates the dearth of programs that embrace intimacy building as a routine part of substance abuse treatment.

The absence of systemic focus in substance abuse treatment programs is may be the result of two factors. First, the denial process inherent in substance dependence promotes relational conflict and is a common coincidence with substance abuse. Second, 12-step literature and lore address recovery issues in an individualistic fashion. Alcoholics Anonymous and Al-Anon Family Groups teach their adherents to change their behavior through a process of introspection, forgiveness of others' wrongdoings, and making restitution for their own mistakes (Anonymous, 2001). In the vernacular of twelve-steppers, they are admonished to "work their own program." For Al-Anon adherents, the first task is to separate themselves from their reactive pattern to the alcoholic's behavior, or to detach with love (Anonymous, 1975). Whatever the cause, the result is the same. Very few programs embrace couples counseling. This phenomenon is even more remarkable considering that the field of substance abuse treatment has known for thirty years that couples and family therapy was a promising area needing further research (Keller, 1974, p. 161).

The current study proposes the combined application of EMDR and experiential therapy in couples counseling for the reduction/resolution of trauma experienced by one partner in the context of the relationship, with the trauma being caused by the aberrant behavior of a substance-abusing partner. Research of this nature is innovative, particularly in the treatment of substance abuse.

Method

The treatment model being studied consists of experiential conjoint therapy utilizing EMDR treatment in which one partner receives the EMDR while the supportive partner witnesses and engages as requested by the traumatized partner and by the counselor. This model could be labeled the EMDR/Experiential Approach in Couples Therapy (EXACT) model. In EXACT, the counselor uses gestalt techniques to deepen and enrich the experience for the supportive partner, while monitoring both partners to minimize psychological risk and enhance the effect of treatment. A similar protocol was suggested by Mark Moses (2003), who proposes a model of treatment focusing on attachment injuries, which are characterized by an abandonment or betrayal of trust (Johnson, et al., 2001). Three principles are emphasized in the Moses model: safety, balance, and containment. In working with substance abusing couples, safety is maintained by applying treatment to couples who already have demonstrated a commitment to recovery, that is, are engaged in a recovery program such as Alcoholics Anonymous and Al-Anon Family Groups or similar structured long-term programs. In addition, couples selected for treatment are those who firmly state a commitment to enhancing their relationship.

In dealing with the trauma issues, treatment is accomplished utilizing the standard EMDR protocol, which includes seven phases: (a) client history; (b) preparation, which includes creating a safe place; (c) assessment, which includes identifying negative and developing positive cognitions; (d) desensitization; (e) installation; (f) body scan; and (g) closure (Shapiro, 1995, p. *xiii-xiv*).

In the assessment phase, negative and positive cognitions are rated on a 7-point validity of cognition (VoC) scale where 1 is completely false and 7 is completely true. Desensitization baseline and treatment outcome in terms of feelings are measured with an 11-point Subjective Units of Disturbance (SUD) Scale (Wolpe, 1990). The VoC is measured during treatment for the positive cognition to measure change and again at post-treatment as an outcome measure. When the positive cognition is at the maximum level, ideally at 7, it is installed during the Installation phase (Shapiro, 2001).

Balance is achieved in the Preparation and Assessment phases of the EMDR protocol by addressing the willingness of the supportive partner to participate in the process. The counselor also addresses the issues of commitment to recovery, commitment to the relationship, and explores treatment expectations of the supportive partner. The counselor establishes a baseline SUD level for the supporting partner, if appropriate. Awareness and empathy are measured pre and post treatment, and value of experience is measured post-treatment. The counselor informs as to expectations of participation levels.

Containment is achieved by monitoring non-verbal cues and through the establishment of a safe place for both partners prior to the onset of eye movements. The experiential component of EXACT is implemented throughout the protocol by the counselor probing the supportive partner for feelings, and by the counselor facilitating the deepening of visceral awareness of the supportive partner.

For the purpose of the current study, pre and post treatment instrumentation will be used to determine treatment effects on a volunteer sample against a waitlist control group. The instrumentation is designed to assess psychopathology on several dimensions, with emphasis on posttraumatic stress symptoms. In addition, instrumentation evaluating emotional intimacy will be administered pre and post treatment.

Case Illustration

Fred and Ethel have been in a primary, committed relationship for two years. Fred is 28 years old, is employed as an executive recruiter, and has been diagnosed from the DSM-IV-TR with 304.20 Cocaine Dependence in Early Full Remission, with nine months of continuous abstinence from mood-altering substances (APA, 2000, p. 242). Ethel is a 24-year-old teacher, diagnosed with posttraumatic stress features at a sub-clinical level. Both are diagnosed with V61.10 Relational Problem (APA, p. 737). Fred states, “[Ethel] is not in recovery. She doesn’t know how it works. If only she would go to Al-Anon....” Ethel complains, “When he goes to meetings, sometimes he doesn’t come home until midnight. I’m terrified he’s out there using again.” Ethel wishes to marry Fred immediately, believing that she will feel more secure. Fred states that he is in favor of delaying plans to marry until their relationship is more stable. Both are hopeful that

counseling will help them. Both are committed to enhancing their relationship.

Fred is committed to maintaining abstinence. He sees Ethel's complaints as a lack of understanding and support. Ethel exhibits posttraumatic symptoms of anxiety, hypervigilance, and distressing recollections of events such as Fred's use of crack cocaine, stealing her money, and ignoring important social obligations. Fred is insensitive to Ethel's trauma. He has difficulty in general understanding a feminine perspective of relationship. Specifically, Fred is unable to empathize with Ethel's painful feelings about his past behavior, and believes that his commitment to recovery is sufficient amends. He believes that Ethel should be accepting of his efforts and that she should forgive him. His idea of her forgiveness is for her to manifest a reduction of symptoms.

After thoroughly explaining the EMDR procedure and providing a "safe place" for both Ethel and Fred, a target image for Ethel was established, which was, "Seeing him high from cocaine." Her negative cognition was, "I'm not worth it." Her positive cognition was, "I am worth it." The initial VoC was 3. Her feelings were identified as anger, and the SUD level was initialized at 9. A baseline feelings level was established for Fred. His feelings were identified as anxiety, guilt, and frustration, with a SUD level of 9.

The protocol was completed with an installation of Ethel's positive cognition at a VoC of 7, the highest level, and a SUD level of zero. Fred's SUD level was also reduced to zero, although, as a supportive partner, Fred did not participate in the eye movement saccades.

Prior to executing the EMDR protocol, when the topic of Fred using cocaine was mentioned, Ethel had a marked reaction consistent with anxiety. Her eyes darted about the room, she clenched her fists, her breathing became rapid and shallow, and she indicated that his relapse would mean that he did not love her and indicated that the relationship would be in jeopardy. Following the EMDR protocol, Ethel was able to talk about the possibility of Fred relapsing calmly, stating, "Oh well, [stuff] happens."

During the EMDR protocol, Fred's non-verbal cues were observed. When Fred indicated that a visceral reaction, the counselor finished the saccade with Ethel, inquired about her immediate process, then turned to Fred, asking Fred about his feelings and facilitating him deepening his process. On a value of experience scale, a 7 point scale with 1 representing no value at all and 7 representing the most valuable experience possible, Fred rated the counseling experience as a 6. Both partners indicated that they felt much closer than they did when they started the process.

A thirty-day follow-up was completed. At that time, both partners reported feeling much closer, and had planned marriage. At a one-year follow-up, Fred and Ethel had been married for one month, and both stated that they were very happy. Ethel reported that she had been free from trauma-related symptoms for the entire year. Fred had maintained sobriety, and his DSM-IV-TR diagnosis is upgraded to Cocaine Dependence in Sustained Full Remission (APA, p. 196).

Discussion

The case of Fred and Ethel lend support to the overarching hypothesis of this dissertation study: The combination of EMDR and experiential therapy in the context of couples counseling will resolve trauma that occurred within the relationship while deepening awareness and empathy in the supportive partner, and enhancing emotional intimacy within the couple. An additional gain in couples in which one partner is a recovering substance dependent is believed to be increased commitment to sobriety.

If the hypothesis is confirmed, the implications of this research could be far-reaching. As a treatment protocol, the EMDR/experiential model offers a possible solution to a wide variety of attachment and trauma based relational conflicts. Further, the EMDR protocol is relatively simple, easily replicated, and has been shown to be effective in a wide variety of clinical contexts. Experiential therapy in a conjoint session is a widely accepted and much practiced treatment modality. Implementing the overall procedure in couples counseling could be rapid and widespread in the counseling community.

The disadvantage of this model is that its implementation requires skill that may be beyond the reach of relatively inexperienced counselors. Besides attending to subtle non-verbal cues of both partners, the clinician must be able to accurately assess the trauma or attachment injury. In addition, the counselor must be able to respond appropriately to expected abreactions by the traumatized partner during the EMDR protocol, and must be prepared to deal with possible abreactions by the supportive partner who witnesses the abreactive process of a loved one in vivo. Carefully controlled studies, preferably done under supervision as is the case in counseling training clinics in counseling programs are indicated

Couples counseling could be a boon to substance abuse treatment. Conjoint therapy, particularly Behavioral Couples Therapy (BCT), has been shown to be effective in the treatment of substance abuse, leading to reduced recidivism and increased relational satisfaction (Moyers & Hester, 1999; Smith & Capps, 2005). The EXACT approach has several potential advantages over other treatment modalities. EMDR has been shown to be efficacious with less treatment than other efficacious treatments, while experiential models, such as the work of Virginia Satir and Carl Whitaker have been widely accepted and practiced, especially in the substance abuse treatment field. The EXACT model could be viewed as an update to an already proven treatment regimen, thus minimizing the time required for acceptance by clinicians, as well as facilitating the training of clinicians.

If acceptance by the clinical community is rapid, the demand for training will increase accordingly. The EXACT model could be a focus of counselor education programs that emphasize clinical skills, or programs that have specialty tracks in either substance abuse counseling, EMDR, or both. Francine Shapiro reported that over 10,000 clinicians had been trained in EMDR by the time her book was published in 1995. Considering that at that time, the only training available was through regional two and three day seminars sponsored by the EMDR Institute, and that EMDR had only been in existence for six years, that number is impressive.

Conclusion

If the research hypothesis of this study is supported, the ensuing dissertation may lead to curricular changes in counselor education programs. EMDR continues to gain support as an efficacious treatment for numerous psychological disorders (Friday, 2003; Hogan, 2001; Mihelich, 1999, Shapiro & Forrest, 1997). Studies that hold promise of introducing efficacious treatment strategies will help bolster the expertise of graduates from counselor education programs as curricula are expanded or modified to include empirically supported techniques. In this case, at least three areas of counseling could be impacted. Couples and family counseling could benefit in general, and substance abuse counseling and EMDR specialties could be enhanced specifically. This expansion in the body of knowledge could lead to further enhancement of best practice models. A responsive curriculum must support research that looks to the future. In fact, curricula in Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) accredited programs are continually being modified to accommodate advances in counseling research (Clawson, Henderson, Schweiger, and Collins, 2004).

To be sure, any claim to efficacy must be viewed with caution. The relative simplicity of the EMDR protocol has, in itself, created skepticism. Scientists are quite aware of the truism that states when something appears to be too good to be true, it usually is. However, EMDR studies continue to demonstrate that EMDR is efficacious (Alto, 2001). It is against this backdrop of dichotomy that this study is launched. On one hand, the study is approached with the necessary skepticism of the scientist, who compares every result with the null hypothesis. On the other, the treatment protocol will be implemented by an enthusiastic practitioner who has dedicated his career to helping people along the journey.

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Literacy Affecting our Students

Dual Language Education: Leaving No Child Behind

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Dual-language programs, or as they are often called, two-way bilingual programs, continue to show promise for English language learners as a model of instruction that provides language development in two languages. In this model, students from two language groups are involved in a high quality enrichment model of dual language education. Another variation is one-way programs which involve mostly one language group of students who are learning a second language in a high quality enrichment model of bilingual education. The Center for Applied Linguistics (2002) has researched the growth of dual language programs in the United States. As of 2001, there were 260 programs in 23 states, and the majority of these programs, more than two-thirds, use English and Spanish (CAL, 2002).

A two-way bilingual program integrates Spanish learners and English learners for instruction in and through two languages with the integration of affective goals. A dual language program can serve as a bridge for students and provides much needed instruction for some students while maintaining a quality education. Thus, the title of this article is *Dual Language Education: Leaving No Child Behind*. Dual language programs emphasize challenging standards in the core curriculum of two languages and aim to develop full proficiency in both languages, understanding and appreciation of the cultures associated with those languages, and high levels of achievement in academic subjects (Calderon & Minaya-Rowe, 2003; Cloud, et. al, 2000; and Montague, 1997). The Early Childhood Development Center, a lab school located on the Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi campus, was established as dual language school with these goals in mind.

The Early Childhood Development Center (ECDC) or Centro de Desarrollo Infantil was the first public school in the City of Corpus Christi, Texas to implement a dual language program. The ECDC is a collaborative venture between the CCISD and TAMU-CC. The main purpose of the school is to provide an early childhood education to children, age three to eight, through a dual language curriculum (College of Education, Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi, 1996).

The ECDC consists of six grade levels ranging from pre-kindergarten age three to third grade. Each classroom has ratio of 1:22 allowing for a total population of 132 students. These students are chosen to attend the school via a lottery system. Because of the dual language emphasis, eleven dominant Spanish and English speakers are chosen each year to form a new three-year-old class. Table 1 below denotes how the student population is determined (Montague, Marroquin & Lucido, 2001).

Table 1.
How Student Population is Determined

English Quadrant	Spanish Quadrant
7 students on Free or Reduced Lunch	7 students on Free or Reduced Lunch
4 students not on Free or Reduced Lunch	4 students not on Free or Reduced Lunch

This configuration results in two-thirds or 65% of the students considered to be at-risk per the most recent state standards (Texas Education Agency, 2001). The last state school report card distributed by the Texas Education Agency also reported the following demographics at the ECDC (Texas Education Agency, 2003), as displayed in Table 2.

Table 2.
Demographics of the ECDC

Student Population	Percentage
Hispanic	84.4
White	10.2
African American	4.7
Asian Pacific	.08

In addition to the 65% economically disadvantaged student population, fifty-three per cent of the population is categorized as

Limited English Proficient (Corpus Christi Independent School District, 2003).

There are two major models for the delivery of dual language education. A 50-50 model operates with simultaneous literacy instruction in two languages. The 90-10 model begins with ninety percent of initial literacy instruction in the target language and slowly it is decreased with the English language increasing to 50% of the day by the third grade. As the ECDC program was shaped, it was determined that a 50-50 Two-way dual language model would be the best fit for the population being served as well as for the location of the school. Little research has been conducted to determine the best composition for bilingual education programs. To maintain an environment of educational and linguistic equity in the classroom and to promote interactions among native and non-native English speakers, the most desirable ratio is 50% English to 50% target language speakers. To ensure that there are enough language models of each language to promote interactions among the two groups of students, the school must attempt to ensure equal participation of the two language groups (Lindholm-Leary, 2001). Christian et.al. (1997:116) states that variations in program models reflect both differences in community needs as well as distinctive populations served by the schools. Understanding the populations to be served is certainly an important prerequisite for a site when determining which model may be most effective at a particular school.

In establishing a dual language program there are several specific characteristics that contribute to the success and effectiveness of the program. With this in mind, faculty from the College of Education at Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMU-CC) and the principal from the ECDC visited several dual language schools throughout the country that are recognized as effective dual language schools based on state and national assessments. As these nationally recognized dual language schools were visited a list of effective practices was developed through triangulation of data from on-site observations in classrooms, interviews with school administrators and classroom teachers, and surveys from classroom teachers. Trends in effective practices that emerged from these data sources and that are consistent with national research were further validated. The dual language program being implemented at the ECDC is grounded on the

practices that have been deemed effective in the many of these successful schools that were visited.

In addition the school implements the practices noted in research conducted by Montague, Marroquin & Lucido, 2001. These practices include: (a) defining the model to be used, (b) a gradual phase-in of the program, (c) development of instruction that reflects the population in the classroom, (d) quality materials in each language of instruction, (e) teachers committed to attaining bilingual education training, (f) dedicated administrators with a clear understanding of research as well as community needs, and (g) defining the role of elicited response. The administrator, faculty, staff, and university faculty have encouraged the full implementation of these characteristics of effective programs.

The instructional model associated with a 50-50 dual language program can vary from school to school (Thomas & Collier, 1997a). At the ECDC, implementation of the program varies by grade level. The instructional program at the lower levels, pre-kindergarten age 3 through kindergarten, is implemented as follows: Monday and Wednesday instruction is delivered in English and on Tuesday and Thursday instruction is delivered in Spanish. On a daily basis each language group (11 dominant English and Spanish students) receive basic foundation instruction in their primary language for an hour. Then the teacher uses a center-based instructional model for the remainder of the day. This allows for students to interact with each other in their native languages while the teacher works directly with one group in the language of the day.

The upper grades, first grade through third grade, instruct in English and Spanish on a daily basis. Formal Spanish language instruction begins at the first grade level which is contradictory to research conducted by Thomas & Collier (1997a), however, necessary for the model being implemented at the school. Educators at these levels utilize integrated lessons to deliver effective and meaningful instruction in both languages. Mathematics is taught in English because research by Thomas & Collier (1997b) states that numerical concepts are the same in English or Spanish. However, the vocabulary is taught in both languages.

The program at the ECDC was gradually phased in with the three year old program, the pre-kindergarten, kindergarten, and first grade starting in the 96-97 school year, and with second grade and third grade being added in subsequent years. As the grades were gradually phased in adjustments to curriculum, instruction, and personnel could be made.

Educators at the ECDC follow the state curriculum known as the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) through a center-based instructional model based on six specific Thematic Units—Communications, Communities, Traditions, Changes, Systems, and Interdependence. Reading instruction is further implemented through a Balanced Literacy Approach (equalizing reading, speaking, listening, and writing) developed by the CCISD (2002). The TEKS are further delineated through the CCISD's Scope and Sequence Guide which allows for educators to determine instructional pacing and ensure that no child is left behind.

Through literacy rich environments in both languages the curriculum is culturally infused through the fine arts (music, art and drama) and is grounded on the premise of a balanced literacy program. This type of instructional setting/environment allows for students, staff, and parents to bestow equal prestige to both languages, another effective practice found in schools visited. In addition this type of program or curriculum implementation ensures that "*No Child is Left Behind.*" Promoting instructional practices such as developmentally appropriate methodologies and pedagogy, differentiated instruction (from the gifted and talented to those at-risk), hands-on—minds-on (inquiry-based instruction in conjunction with ideologies of the Constructivist Theory) and technology through a variety of flexible teaching groups is essential to any dual language program. Individualized instruction is key if we are to truly embrace the idea of leaving no child behind (Davis & Rimm, 1998; Calderón & Minaya-Rowe, 2003).

Manipulatives and/or visuals are essential to second language learners (Gonzalez, 2003; Au, 2003) and are instrumental to their success. Developmentally appropriate curriculum in concert with differentiated instruction permits students to grow academically while simultaneously allowing for instruction that either provides

enrichment and or challenge for some while others receive reinforcement and/or acceleration for others (Davis & Rimm, 1998). As essential as nutrients are to growing plant life, so is flexible grouping to classroom instruction. Varying the methods of instruction is a critical component in the learning process of a child and fits the ideals of the No Child Left Behind Act (Canter & Associates, 1999).

In keeping with the 21st century charge of moving everyone into the technological world, the instructors at the ECDC are fortunate to have 11 desktop computers in each classroom at grade levels pre-kindergarten to kindergarten. Children in first through third grade have wireless laptop computers to assist with their construction of knowledge. This is yet another method of assisting educators with the implementation of the curriculum. Students have the opportunity to reinforce or enrich their lessons through the use of technology in both languages.

However, none of these practices are effective or meaningful unless the educator delivering the instruction is well versed in the method or pedagogical philosophy of a dual language program. For this reason staff development, yet another of the key components to effective dual language schools plays an vital role at the ECDC. Staff development at the school is job-embedded and focuses on the needs of the overall campus, as indicated by data from assessment instruments and individual teacher needs (National Staff Development Council, 2001). In the last several years, staff development has centered on teaching teachers to develop cognitively demanding lessons in both languages (Gough, Heinz, & Marroquin, 2003). This has proven to be successful for both the students and staff. The NSDC, 2001 states that job-embedded staff development that promotes vertical and horizontal dialogue leads to learning communities within schools.

Staff development and instructional methods result from the data collected from assessments, the student population, etc. Therefore, to assure that these two areas are effectively carried out, the leadership of the school is instrumental to the success of a dual language program. The leadership component must be firmly in place or the program will fail (S. Krashen, 2004; J. Cummins, 2004). The instructional leadership team is comprised of all key stakeholders (i.e.,

principal, teachers, support staff and parents), thus it is important that each member keep apprised of the latest research and serve as a role model for each other.

The ECDC has been successful and continues its success because of the instructional leadership that abounds within its walls. Beginning with the Central Administration personnel of each entity to the custodial staff the belief in the program is strong. Furthermore, the school administrator and the staff share a common philosophy about the dual language program; which in accordance to research (Thomas & Collier, 1997a; and Montague, Marroquin & Lucido, 2001) is essential. The instructional team promotes a democratic leadership philosophy that is conducted through a site based decision-making process where everyone works as a team to strengthen the tenets of the program.

One of the most noted of the components of an effective dual language school is parental involvement. Parental involvement in unification with the administration and the instructional leadership of a school creates a solid link to student achievement. Calderon and Minaya-Rowe, 2003, in their book entitled *Designing and Implementing Two-Way Bilingual Programs*, state that parents must also embrace the philosophy of a dual language program and provide support to their children and the school in order for students to achieve in this type of school environment.

The ECDC in the last two years has been very successful in increasing the parental involvement within the school. This was accomplished by hiring a parent liaison. This individual works in collaboration with university professors in the College of Education to provide assistance to parents in various areas. The two most noted areas are literacy and parenting. Since the ECDC serves 65% economically disadvantaged students, many of the parents are illiterate or have to come to the United States from other countries where educational opportunities are reserved for the more privileged classes, thus it is necessary to provide them with the skills to assist their children. When the school reaches out to help them, they feel welcomed and less intimidated and they find it much easier to participate in all school functions. They come to understand that the

partnership forged between the school home is essential to the child's success (Calderón & Minaya-Rowe, 2003).

The ECDC and other organizations within the College of Education join forces to offer parents programs such as those described below.

- a) Waves of Learning Family Nights in Reading, Mathematics, and Science in English and Spanish: These are usually planned and implemented by college professors and their students with assistance from the administrator and instructional leaders of the school.
- b) Monthly Parent Meetings: These are planned and implemented collaboratively by the parent liaison, counselors and parents. These meetings are instructional in nature. Following each session the parents participate in a fun learning activity in both languages that focuses on the curriculum being studied by the students.
- c) Home-School Connection: Each child is given a purple backpack that houses materials from a program entitled *Learning Everyday Together (LET)*. This program provides students and parents the opportunities to study both languages through literacy. The program's major purpose is to reinforce the second language and espouse the idea that both languages are equally valued at the school (Lake Educational Technologies, Inc., 1999).

Other effective practices in place at the ECDC that are instrumental to the success of the program are:

- a) Students are continuously monitored and assessed for language and academic growth in both languages.
- b) Children qualifying as Limited English Proficient are not exited early from the state of Texas bilingual program; instead they receive a rigorous instructional program in which they retain their native language while learning a second language.
- c) Staff ensures that the school environment is one of mutual respect for both languages and a diverse culture as noted by James Coleman's "Social Capital" philosophy-all student feel valued and respected (1990).

All of these have added to the success of this dual language program as evident by the results of the 2004 Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) standardized state assessment and other assessments. Among these other assessments is Ballard & Tighe's Idea Proficiency Test, which is utilized at the school to measure student progress and is administered in both English and Spanish to all students. The test measures a student's growth in receptive and expressive language (Ballard & Tighe, 2001).

The ECDC serves as a laboratory school with four interrelated missions: to do research, to train teachers, to provide model programs and to educate the children attending the school (Cassidy & Sanders, 2001). The ECDC enables faculty, graduate, and undergraduate students to interact with the children and teachers as they undertake actual practicum experiences in various educational areas. One such educational practicum experience vital for future bilingual teachers to understand and learn is the purpose of administration of oral language proficiency assessments. The IDEA Oral Language Proficiency Tests (Pre-IPT and IPT) assessments determine a student's overall progress toward English proficiency in a schools bilingual program and are some of the approved tests by the Texas Education Agency which can be used for Identification/Entry/Exit or Annual Assessments under 19 TAC§89.1225(a), (f), (g) and (h).

At present the Early Childhood Development Center serves as a laboratory for prospective bilingual teachers enrolled in the university's educational program. A collaborative oral language testing effort to study the effectiveness of the dual language program at the ECDC began on April 2, 2002 and continues today. The IDEA Oral Language Proficiency tests (English & Spanish) are given to students beginning the ECDC Program, upon enrollment (Initial Assessment). Yearly, thereafter – in the spring all students at the Early Childhood Development Center from PREK3 to Grade 3 are given the English and Spanish IDEA Oral Language Proficiency tests to determine the growth in a student's language proficiency. Test results from the IDEA Oral Language Tests provides for oversight of the initial instructional placement for LEP students and monitoring of their academic progress in the Bilingual Program.

The IDEA Oral Language Proficiency Tests – Pre-IPT and IPT I in English and Spanish are used to evaluate a student’s oral language progress at the Early Childhood Development Center. ECDC students in the PREK 3 are tested utilizing the English & Spanish Pre-IPT Oral Proficiency tests. Students in PK4, Kinder, First, Second and Third grades are tested with the Spanish & English IPT I Oral Language Proficiency test.

The IDEA Oral Language Proficiency Test is published by Ballard & Tighe in La Brea, California and usually takes 5 to 15 minutes to administer. It assesses four basic areas of oral language proficiency: vocabulary, comprehension, syntax and verbal expression, which include articulation. Standard IPT (IDEA) test scoring is on an A to F scale which describes a student/speaker’s progression from not proficient at all (A) to totally proficient (F). Depending on their score on the test, students are designated as one of three categories: Non-English speaking, Limited English Speaking, or Fluent English Speaking.

The 2001-2002 school year included the first students (3) to complete all grade levels (PK3 - 3rd Grade) at the ECDC. The following year, 2002-2003, eight more students completed the program. In 2003-2004, ten more students completed the program, bringing the current number of students that have attended the program for the entire six-year period to 21. Their results for the initial assessments and their third grade assessments are provided in Table 3 and Table 4. As the Tables 5 and 6 show, almost every student reached a score of totally proficient (F) in English while improving or maintaining the Spanish language. The two students who failed to reach total proficiency scored at the D level. Additionally, Table 5 and Table 6 show the percentage increase in each language from the initial assessments to their third grade assessments.

Table 3.
Summary of IDEA Oral Language Proficiency Assessments

Year	Student	Initial Assessment PK3		Final Score 3 rd Grade		Passed TAAS or TAKS
		English	Spanish	English	Spanish	
2001-2002		English	Spanish	English	Spanish	
	1	A (17%)	C (50%)	D (67%)	C (50%)	NA
	2	C (50%)	A (17%)	F (100%)	C (50%)	YES
	3	D (67%)	A (17%)	F (100%)	D (67%)	YES
2002-2003	4	A (17%)	C (50%)	F (100%)	F (100%)	YES
	5	B (33%)	A (17%)	F (100%)	D (67%)	NO
	6	C (50%)	A (17%)	F (100%)	A (17%)	YES
	7	C (50%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	C (50%)	YES
	8	C (50%)	C (50%)	F (100%)	F (100%)	YES
	9	B (33%)	A (17%)	F (100%)	B (33%)	YES
	10	D (67%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	C (50%)	YES
	11	C (50%)	A (17%)	F (100%)	B (33%)	YES

Early Childhood Development Center, School Year Ending 2002 & 2003.
Note: Students referenced under Table A–3 completed a full six-year period/attendance (PK3 - 3rd Grade) at the ECDC. These students completed their 6-year period at ECDC on May 2002 & May 2003. Referenced are also TAAS and TAKS performance.

Table 4.
Summary of IDEA Oral Language Proficiency Assessments

Year	Student	Initial Assessment PK3		Final Score 3 rd Grade		Passed TAAS or TAKS
		English	Spanish	English	Spanish	
2003-2004		English	Spanish	English	Spanish	
	1	A (17%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	F (100%)	YES
	2	B (33%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	F (100%)	YES
	3	B (33%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	C (50%)	YES
	4	E (83%)	C (50%)	F (100%)	C (50%)	YES
	5	A (17%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	F (100%)	YES
	6	A (17%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	F (100%)	YES
	7	A (17%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	F (100%)	NA
	8	B (33%)	A (17%)	F (100%)	B (33%)	NA
	9	C (50%)	A (17%)	F (100%)	B (33%)	YES
	10	C (50%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	E (83%)	YES

Early Childhood Development Center, School Year Ending 2004.
Note: Students referenced under Table A–3 completed a full six-year period/attendance (PK3 - 3rd Grade) at the ECDC. These students completed their 6-year period at ECDC on May 2002 & May 2003. Referenced are also TAAS and TAKS performance.

Table 5.

Six-Year Period - Summary of Language Development, Early Childhood Development Center, School Year Ending 2002 & 2003

Year	Student	Initial Assessment		3 rd Grade		Percentage Increase	
2001-2002		English	Spanish	English	Spanish	English	Spanish
	1	A (17%)	C (50%)	D (67%)	C (50%)	50%	0%
	2	C (50%)	A (17%)	F (100%)	C (50%)	50%	33%
	3	D (67%)	A (17%)	F (100%)	D (67%)	33%	50%
2002-2003	4	A (17%)	C (50%)	F (100%)	F (100%)	83%	50%
	5	B (33%)	A (17%)	F (100%)	D (67%)	67%	50%
	6	C (50%)	A (17%)	F (100%)	A (17%)	50%	0%
	7	C (50%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	C (50%)	50%	17%
	8	C (50%)	C (50%)	F (100%)	F (100%)	50%	50%
	9	B (33%)	A (17%)	F (100%)	B (33%)	67%	17%
	10	D (67%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	C (50%)	33%	17%
	11	C (50%)	A (17%)	F (100%)	B (33%)	50%	17%
AVERAGES		44%	29%	97%	56%	53%	27%

Note: The IDEA Oral Language Proficiency Assessments (Pre-IPT & IPT 1) were utilized to assess a student's language development in English & Spanish.

Table 6.

Six-Year Period - Summary of Language Development, Early Childhood Development Center, School Year Ending 2002 & 2003

Year	Student	Initial Assessment		3 rd Grade		Percentage Increase	
2003-2004		English	Spanish	English	Spanish	English	Spanish
	1	A (17%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	F (100%)	83%	67%
	2	B (33%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	F (100%)	67%	33%
	3	B (33%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	C (50%)	67%	17%
	4	E (83%)	C (50%)	F (100%)	C (50%)	17%	0%
	5	A (17%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	F (100%)	83%	67%
	6	A (17%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	F (100%)	83%	67%
	7	A (17%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	F (100%)	83%	67%
	8	B (33%)	A (17%)	F (100%)	B (33%)	67%	17%
	9	C (50%)	A (17%)	F (100%)	B (33%)	50%	17%
	10	C (50%)	B (33%)	F (100%)	E (83%)	50%	50%
AVERAGES		35%	32%	100%	75%	65%	33%

Note: The IDEA Oral Language Proficiency Assessments (Pre-IPT & IPT 1) were utilized to assess a student's language development in English & Spanish.

Even though the data shows the school meeting with success, educators will continue to use these data to improve the program and ensure that the words “No Child Left Behind” are a reality for all. Dual language education, when properly implemented and included research-based best practices, continues to show that English language learners can attain success in school. In addition, bilingualism and biculturalism can become a reality in our global society.

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Closing the Gap in Vocabulary Inequities

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Introduction

One of the goals of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 is to close the achievement gap between high- and low-performing children and between disadvantaged children and their more advantaged peers. In order to close this gap we must look closer at what makes and perpetuates the gap and what we can do about it. This paper addresses the gap in mathematics with two goals: one, to review the research on the effects of inadequate vocabulary skills on mathematics achievement; and two, to describe strategies teachers are using that enhance vocabulary acquisition in mathematics.

Vocabulary knowledge is crucial to reading comprehension (Chall, Jacobs, & Baldwin, 1990; National Reading Panel, 2000; RAND Reading Study Group, 2002; Scarborough, 1998; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). Vocabulary knowledge, or lack of it, is also a major contributing factor in the lower reading levels of students coming from lower socioeconomic homes and has detrimental long-term effects. By first grade there is already a wide gap in the number of words known orally between students from homes of higher SES and those from homes of lower SES (Graves, Brunetti, & Slater, 1982). Chall, Jacobs, & Baldwin (1990) found that children with a restricted vocabulary by third grade have declining comprehension scores in later elementary years. And these gaps appear to get greater each year. Stanovich (1986) describes this vocabulary gap as having a Matthew Effect. This term refers to the biblical verse from the book of Matthew where it is said that the rich get richer and the poor get poorer. Stanovich suggests that the better readers read more challenging material and, thus, have a greater opportunity to enrich their vocabulary. While children who have difficulty in reading, read less. Thus the gap continues to expand each year.

Closing this gap has been the focus of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) federal initiative as well as several state initiatives. Closing the gap is important and increasing the vocabulary knowledge of students is a major component of this effort. Few in education question the importance of raising the level of vocabulary knowledge and the positive effect it would have on student achievement. However, there is a debate on the most efficacious way to do this, context or direct instruction. Swanborn and de Glopper (1999) found that learning from written contexts does happen but in small increments. Out of 100 unfamiliar words, it is estimated that a student may only learn 3-15 of them (McKeown & Beck, 2004) and, to compound the problem, just seeing these words once or twice in a passage is not enough to learn it. Jenkins, Stein, and Wysocki (1984) found that a child must be exposed to a word 6 times in context before they have enough experience with the word to understand its meaning. Nagy and Anderson (1984) suggest that there are not enough repeated exposures of the same word for children to build their vocabularies solely from the context, and that additional instruction is necessary.

Marzano (2004) suggests that direct and indirect instruction of vocabulary does not have to be in opposition to each other; there is no reason they cannot work simultaneously. The literature strongly suggests that explicit vocabulary instruction enhances students' learning of vocabulary (Baker, Simmons, & Kame'enui, 1998; National Reading Panel, 2000). This explicit instruction consists of carefully designed lessons, including direct presentation of word meaning, and providing copious opportunities to practice the words in various ways (Baker et al., 1998).

This is especially true of mathematics. Mathematics is among the most difficult textual material to read, mainly because the vocabulary in mathematics can be ambiguous and sometimes alien to the child (Schell, 1982). Panchyshyn & Monroe (1992) found that more than 50% of the words used in an elementary mathematics textbook are not those most commonly used in the student's reading material. The words used in mathematics are usually abstract and are rarely used outside the classroom. Thus, it is important that the new vocabulary be dealt with specifically and not incidentally (Landsdell, 1999).

Mathematics vocabulary involves more than knowing the definition (Nagy & Herman, 1987; Stahl, 1999). The word “definition” takes on a new meaning when applied to the vocabulary used in mathematics. It is much more than being able to recite the words copied from the glossary. Students must integrate the vocabulary into their thought process so that they can communicate effectively about the mathematical problem or topic they are learning. Once a term is identified and associated with a concept, the “definition” must then be internalized. Miller (1993) suggests that students are handicapped in their efforts to learn mathematics if they lack an understanding of the vocabulary that is used in mathematics instruction, textbooks, and word problems.

Exactness and definitions are important in mathematics. In many cases, teachers use the student’s oral communication and mathematical writings to diagnose and assess student understanding. Students need to master the language of mathematics if they are to read, understand, and discuss mathematical ideas (Thompson & Rubenstein, 2000). At the same time, the practice of introducing mathematics words, giving a definition, having the students write them down, and expecting students to be able to apply that word without additional concept building is not productive. While teachers need to continue to help students grasp the meaning of mathematical terms and expressions, they need to be aware that by itself the practice of presenting word lists and having students write definitions may be meaningless for some students (Thom, 1973). While McKeown and Beck (2004) suggest that relying on learning new words solely from context may not be enough, neither is the practice of writing and memorizing definitions. If instruction is to influence vocabulary, it must: 1) be presented so that there are multiple exposures to the word(s) being taught; 2) involve a comprehensive amount of information—not just repeating memorized definitions; and 3) actively engage the students in interacting with the word (Mezynski, 1983; Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986).

As part of an ongoing study, we have visited and observed classrooms to document what strategies are being implemented to promote the students’ learning of mathematics vocabulary. While some teachers still use the “drill and kill” method for teaching vocabulary, other teachers are including more novel strategies to help

students acquire mathematics vocabulary. Presented are some of the strategies observed in elementary and middle school classrooms that successfully enhance vocabulary acquisition and growth in mathematics.

The Classics

These are the games that have been played for generations at home. Charades, Pictionary, and Password lend themselves very easily to be used in the mathematics classroom. Students may act out, draw, or develop word clues for the vocabulary term. This is usually done in groups and can be very entertaining while being educational. For students who have difficulty with written or verbal strategies, the visual and artistic opportunities offer another means for students to be successful (Thompson & Rubenstein, 2000). These activities reach out to the various learning styles and multiple intelligences.

Graphic Organizers

Graphic organizers have long been recommended for mathematics vocabulary instruction (Earle, 1970; Monroe, 1998). While graphic organizers can be done in a variety of ways, the simplest is to identify a term and use an overhead transparency of a word map (Schwartz & Raphael, 1985). After writing the word in the middle of the circle, the teacher guides the students in filling out the different parts. Successful use of the graphic organizers involves the students in determining what goes into the different sections or slots as opposed to the teacher presenting what goes where. Among the successful efforts observed have been whole class discussions using Venn diagrams in comparing the characteristics of different geometric shapes. Another successful lesson involved small groups of students filing in a graphic organizer on fractions.

Word Wall

Word walls are traditionally seen in elementary reading classrooms (Cooper, 1997). However, more and more middle school and high school teachers are using this strategy. Many times when students are explaining themselves they may not readily recall and correctly use terminology previously learned or that they are in the

process of learning. Having the words displayed allows the student to use the new vocabulary correctly and appropriately, thus giving them additional exposure to the use of the word. One classroom had the words written on white butcher paper, thereby saving the blackboard for other uses. The words were grouped into “fraction words,” “multiplication words,” etc. The students suggested mathematics terms to be written on the word wall. Periodically the teacher would review the words with the class. Word walls are also an excellent method to tie reading and writing together with the new vocabulary (Cooper, 1997).

Etymology

Etymology is the study of word origins or roots. Having students study word origins can also be a great opportunity for teachers to collaborate across the curriculum. This allows the students an opportunity to see that math terms are often linked with common English words (Rubenstein, 2000). We have observed highly motivated students engaged in developing bulletin boards on word origins, keeping etymological notebooks, adding words to the “Word Origin Word Wall”, and verbally making connections between new vocabulary words and ones learned in the past. The study of word origins does not always have to be tested. One group of middle school teachers made a general requirement that each pair of students in a language arts class had to present the beginnings of a word in a skit. The skits were engaging and the students used words from mathematics, science, and social studies. Another class was using the internet to investigate word origins. One site, <http://www.pballeg.net/etyindex.html>, had extensive information on word origins and was written in an easy to understand style.

Examples and Non-examples

This can be used to introduce a concept or to practice vocabulary already learned. When introducing the concept, the teacher may have two groups of numbers with the labels “rational” and “irrational”. The students then, through great discussions as they are comparing and analyzing, determine what a “rational number” is. As they look for similarities and differences, the students form the definition or concept (Taba, 1966). When practicing the use of

geometry terms, the students can be given cards or concrete objects to sort into the specific category. This activity encourages higher order thinking and concept formation.

Robot Language

First graders had a fun time talking in the monotone, mechanical language of a robot. When given a word by the teacher, the students would walk like a robot in a circle and would spell the word written on the board in “robot talk”. They would then stop and write the word in the air. The robot in the middle of the circle had a flashlight and would shine the “laser beam” on a fellow student. That student had to use the word in a sentence. This, in turn, demonstrates to the teacher the student’s understanding of the words used in the math contexts (Krussel & Dick, 1998). It should be noted that the words used at the younger grades were not necessarily “math” terms, but instead, were words used in word problems for that day. Being able to read and understand words like “garden”, “party”, or “cupcakes” were necessary for the student to complete the word problems for that day. This also provided the students with a multi-sensory experience for learning vocabulary.

Stories

Many children’s literature selections have mathematical connections. Reading these to a class allows the students to hear math terms used in a different context (Bruun, 2004). After reading the delightful “Sir Cumference” books (Neuschwander, 1997) to her students, one teacher encouraged her students to write their own stories. The students were very creative in using their vocabulary terms with a slight pun. On the wall was a poem about the “Symmy Tree” that one student had written. The poem explained that both sides of the tree were exactly alike, same birds’ nests, limbs, etc. There was also a story about Fraction Jackson.

I Have; You Have

Every student in the class was handed a card with either a definition or a term written on it. Without talking the students had to find their corresponding partner. The cards were shuffled and redealt,

providing additional practice in learning definitions. This provides additional practice in assigning meaning to the ambiguous words encountered in mathematics. One teacher we observed had the students write the definitions or descriptions in their own words. One student's definition of multiplication was "when you do this you wind up with a whole lot more than when you started". By putting the definitions or descriptors in their own words the students become more mathematical literate (Krussel & Dick, 1998).

Circle Concepts

Circle concepts is a techniques that can be used either with the whole class or in small groups (Vacca & Vacca, 1999). The teacher draws a large circle on the board or has a transparency ready to be shown. The circle is then quartered. A word is written into each quarter. The students determine which word (or words) does not belong. Once this is modeled and the students understand the process, the students can come up with their own words and present them to the class for the other students to determine which words belong or what is the specific concept all the words in the circle are about. One major advantage to this activity is that it takes little preparation and engages the students.

Summary

This article has attempted to challenge the two traditional modes of vocabulary learning: context and writing definitions. By enriching the classroom environment to include numerous interesting activities, the students are provided a variety of opportunities to enhance their vocabulary (Hildebrandt, 1998; Schoenberger & Liming, 2001) By enhancing vocabulary, math skills are also improved. Research has shown that students who were exposed to more vocabulary words achieved higher scores than the students who were not exposed to vocabulary instruction (Maikos-Diegnan, 2003). The activities discussed in this paper are but one leg in the journey to close the gap so that all children, regardless of their socioeconomic status, may become mathematically literate.

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Language Awareness in Hispanic Families

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Introduction

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, p. 259).

McDonald (2001) states that, "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. In keeping with the theme of his article, when children read stories, they respond to the reading with aesthetic images and sensations drawn from the experiences of their cultural background (p.131).

Our paper 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 Boyd-Batstone (2002) we asked a small group of Hispanic women to respond to one of Sandra Cisneros's stories "A House of My Own" taken from her book *The House on Mango Street*. The story was presented to each subject and the researcher simply asked that 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 provide. 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.

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, p.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.

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 their views on response. For Iser, the reader operates under the guidance of the text. Bruner (1986) 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).

There are several ways to reflect on the teacher's role in teaching people 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 people 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 people 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 people to think critically about what they read - to pay attention to how a particular text is affecting 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 that determine the payoffs of particular practices.

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). Bourdieu's (2001) sociological framework will be briefly presented in order to examine its theoretical potential for literacy education. 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

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 that 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).

Benita from San Luis Potosi, Mexico

Benita's response resonates with Cisneros'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). The 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 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).

Benita continues, one wishes "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 Benita's discourse speaks to Bourdieu's (2001) notion of symbolic violence. Benita'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.

In examining Benita's response to "A House of My Own", 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. Bourdieu's notion of "Field" is raised though 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 Benita and the larger cultural domain of society that is dominated by a white, middle class culture.

Susie from Nuevo Leon, Mexico

Susie's response to "A House of My Own" is not unlike Benita's account. In Bourdieu's terms, they 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 among 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 Potosi, Mexico

Tere's response to Cisneros's story is very much like other stories. 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. 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.

Leti from Corpus Christi, Texas

In her response to the story, Leti'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 her 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, Leti reflects on the background that 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. 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, Mexico

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 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, I 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 "event forecasting" displays Alicia's ability to plug into another's story and to be able to tell one's own story. Throughout this collaboration and along with her other comments, we can see Alicia's ability to deal with the vision in the story 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, one constructed by dreams. It is as though Alicia, like other borderland subjects, outside the field of discourse as it is envisioned by the mainstream culture. Alicia, like the girl in the story, 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.

Conclusion

The purpose of this paper was to examine the responses of six Hispanic women to *The House on Mango Street*, 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 Mexico and South America 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 from the perspective of "Critical Literacy" where 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 talks addresses 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. 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 may be even more dispossessed than the women. 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." Until we provide these women (and their children) with the literacy tools that will enable them to function as participating in mainstream culture they will remain borderland citizens, citizens on the borders. 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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Strategies that Work: Increasing Literacy in Adults with Learning Disabilities and Traumatic Brain Injury

Debra McQueen

Introduction

Teaching an adult to do anything, under any circumstances, poses many challenges to the educator. Most people accept as fact that children naturally learn more readily than adults, in part because children spend eight hours a day at school directly engaged in learning. Adults, on the other hand, have the kinds of responsibilities that detract from the amount of time they can spend so engaged. No matter how motivated an adult learner is, career duties, child-rearing, bill-paying and the maintenance of any kind of social life intrude on opportunities to learn. Further complicating the process for some adults, particularly those with low literacy, is the presence of learning disabilities (LDs) and/or traumatic brain injury (TBI).

LDs and TBI Defined in the Literature

“IDEA ’97” is the common name for amendments to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act that took place in 1997. Besides ensuring that all children with disabilities “receive a free and appropriate education ... designed to meet their unique needs and prepare them for employment and independent living,” IDEA ’97 provides authoritative definitions of learning disabilities and traumatic brain injury.

A *learning disability* is defined as a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, that may manifest itself in an

imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or to do mathematical calculations, including conditions such as perceptual disabilities, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia. (Individuals With Disabilities Education Act Amendments of 1997.)

In contrast to LDs, TBI is an acquired condition and not a developmental disorder (Plotts, 2001). According to IDEA '97, *Traumatic brain injury* means an acquired injury to the brain caused by an external physical force, resulting in total or partial functional disability or psychosocial impairment, or both, that adversely affects a child's educational performance. The term applies to open or closed head injuries resulting in impairments in one or more areas, such as cognition; language; memory; attention; reasoning; abstract thinking; judgment; problem-solving; sensory, perceptual, and motor abilities; psychosocial behavior; physical functions; information processing; and speech. The term does not apply to brain injuries that are congenital or degenerative, or to brain injuries induced by birth trauma. (Individuals With Disabilities Education Act Amendments of 1997.)

It is interesting to note that the LD definition "includes conditions such as ... brain injury," (IDEA '97) and still traumatic brain injury has its own category. While LDs and TBI have separate definitions, individuals who are diagnosed with them often share certain identifying characteristics. Both the student with LDs and the student with TBI exhibit difficulty using spoken or written language, and in reading, cognition and memory. Other traits they exhibit which affect their ability to learn and to read well include low self-esteem, poor organizational skills, the inability to self-regulate, and inattention (Harrison, 2003; Plotts, 2001).

LDs, which are considered "lifelong and persistent," (Harrison, 2003) affect people who are intellectually capable but have varying degrees of difficulty in academic areas. A study by Kerka (as cited in Harrison, 2003) showed that estimates of the population affected with LDs range widely: between 5% and 20% (p. 133). The dilemma presented by such imprecision is compounded by the fact that many adults with disabilities refuse to self-identify, in part because of the stigma associated with the LD label. In many cases, it

is the adult educator who develops suspicions that a learner may have undiagnosed learning disabilities or TBI. It then falls on that educator to make the decision whether or not to raise the subject with the learner (Ross-Gordon, 2001), or whether or not to make accommodations.

Unfortunately, TBI, which is quite common, is often confused with other disabilities, emotional disturbance, or mental retardation (NICHY Fact Sheet, 2002). What results is misdiagnosed children with TBI receiving inappropriate educational modifications which in turn fail to serve their actual learning needs. These deficits will continue to plague the undereducated students with TBI into adulthood, compounding other problems they may have with learning.

Although no concrete numbers are given in the existing research (in part due to factors previously discussed), some adult literacy professionals believe that adults who have low reading ability are more than likely to have some kind of LD. Further, some learners may present more than one disability; it is not uncommon for TBI and LDs to appear in concert (Ross-Gordon, 2001).

Whether or not they have identified themselves as having disabilities to their instructors, or are even aware themselves that they have them, adults with LDs and TBI are in our midst. Those who are acquiring new reading skills or are learning English as a second language will likely have challenges over and above those faced by ordinary adult learners. Their presence offers a great opportunity and challenge to the adult educator who desires to facilitate their learning.

Financial and Social Implications

The outcomes for young adults with LDs and TBI are unequivocally dismal. Longitudinal studies have shown that many students with these disabilities drop out of high school, remain unemployed or underemployed, and are overly dependent on their parents or extended families. As adults they report having unsatisfying social relationships, being unable to live independently, and remaining discontented in what work they do find. They tend to seek jobs that do not require reading or writing, which are often minimum wage, fast-food or service-related employment. They long for greater satisfaction

in areas both social and economical, and overall they desire deeper involvement in their communities and an enhanced quality of life (Smith, 2001).

Not all adults with LDs and TBI are doomed to failure. Many graduate from high school, go on to college, and experience success in white-collar professions. They are happy in their lives and active in their communities. However, this group is decidedly not the majority. A key ingredient to their success is that they understand their disability and their associated strengths and weaknesses. They also possess the ability to self-advocate and seek and receive special services throughout their education (Smith, 2001).

Many adults fear a loss of respect from their peers and their supervisors if they admit to having any kind of disability. As such, adult learners who may need special services, interventions or modifications fail to request them and consequently may never receive them (Harrison, 2003). Unless they obtain appropriate education, particularly in reading and language skills development, low-literate adults with LDs and TBI have little chance of achieving their goals of independence and contentment in life. However, traditional educational models have likely failed for these individuals in the past. The educator who does not make accommodations or attempt diverse strategies with these individuals will only add to their frustration and increase their sense of failure.

Many adult educators fear the notion of “accommodation.” They have the same reasons for their reticence as public school teachers do: accountability for all learners, not just those with special needs, falls on their shoulders and rigorous standards must be upheld. The traditional belief of many educators is that making accommodations equates to a lowering of standards, or a “watering down.” However, studies repeatedly demonstrate that active and cooperative learning models are vastly superior to traditional lecture (Gadbow, 2001). In some circles, a paradigm shift is taking place toward a more learner-centered approach to education. This approach ensures that rather than lowering standards, instructors make certain that academic standards are equitably applied to all learners (Harrison, 2003).

Much of the research on teaching reading focuses on strategies that work with children. There are a few studies (like those by Gadbow, Harrison, and Polson & White) that concentrate on adults. Research-proven strategies that work with children with LDs and TBI can be modified (and often modeled verbatim) for use with adults. The learner-centered strategies discussed below are supported by the research to have proven effectiveness with a broad spectrum of learners, including specifically those students with TBI and LDs.

Strategies That Work

As a general rule, teachers who employ learner-centered strategies treat learning as a lively process. The learner-centered approach activates prior knowledge and plays to individual interests. Utilizing such methods encourages creative, critical, social learning and honors the idea that individuals acquire knowledge at different rates and have different learning styles. Accommodations – which are “individually determined” – have been shown to help adults reach their educational goals more quickly than remediation. The most successful strategies are usually the simplest and also the most cost-effective (Polson & White, 2001). Additionally, effective techniques have embedded within them opportunities for adult learners to have an active role, to make choices, and to have plenty of time to practice and get comfortable with the strategies.

Group and Classroom Strategies

Some modifications reading and writing teachers can make in the classroom will directly impact their learners with disabilities while positively affecting everyone in the room. One such strategy is to supply a detailed course outline. Advance organizers that are very visual, with graphic components and mnemonic devices embedded in them, help students to plan better and meet crucial deadlines. They offer a structure and organization that many students with disabilities need to succeed. When teaching to the whole group, an instructor should emphasize main points both visually and orally. Breaking down large concepts into mini-components further benefits learners with deficits (Keyser-Marcus, et al., 2002).

Highly informative to learners with disabilities is direct instruction in cognitive and metacognitive skills (Harrison, 2003). For example, an instructor can explicitly teach the whole group how to effectively take notes, use a highlighter, and pick out key words from reading assignments that will assist in reading comprehension. Proofreading with a purpose can also be taught directly, since it is often too much to proofread an entire document for all possible problems. On the first pass through, students should look for correct punctuation and capitalization. Next time they proofread, look specifically for word omissions. Finally, they learn to proof for just the misspelled words (Burton, 1998).

It is helpful for teachers of adults to remember that many basic strategies taught to young children may have been missed entirely by their adult learners with disabilities. Direct teaching of those basics, like chunking, “the cover-up” (using a finger to cover parts of words to figure out pronunciation) and using context clues can be extremely helpful. If the lessons are kept brief, they can serve as practical review for the general population while providing essential knowledge to those with disabilities.

Two of the most popular strategies with adult learners in a classroom setting are the highly social literature circle and peer writing groups (Harrison, 2003). Literature circles are small, temporary discussion groups where each member takes responsibility for reading a portion of an assignment. That individual then teaches the section to his peers, thus allowing the learner to become the teacher and increasing the learner’s retention of material (Gadbow, 2001). Significant discussions of meaning and inference ensue, providing learners the opportunity to develop important cognitive and interpretive skills that are essential to basic literacy. Students with disabilities are often very capable at discussing concepts aloud that they may struggle to write or read about. By establishing heterogeneous literature groups, learners with disabilities can make a meaningful contribution that builds self-esteem while becoming actively involved in a process that they can then bring to their individual reading and writing.

Since writing is a vital component of literacy, peer-writing workshops can facilitate learners who struggle. Prior to implementing

the workshops, the instructor must guide the class as a whole in how to deliver effective critique. Direct modeling and role-playing can be useful here. The most constructive feedback usually offers both positive and negative elements, with emphasis on the positive always-delivered first. Once students have grasped these basics, small groups of peer writing workshops can meet and discuss each other's written work, offering each other valuable insights that will aid all writers in the editing process. Miller (as cited in Harrison, 2003) reported "99% of students identify writing workshops as the single classroom activity most useful to them in their progress as writers."

Individual Strategies

Other specific strategies can be utilized with individuals, both within the classroom and in a one-on-one setting. Mnemonic instruction can be very effective when working with struggling readers. To improve vocabulary and word recognition, vocabulary can be presented with key word mnemonics that are "acoustically similar" to the vocabulary words. Definitions are also taught, but with emphasis on the similar-sounding key words for reinforcement. In one study of 32 students identified as having LDs, the students who used the mnemonic device for learning vocabulary consistently outperformed students who received only the vocabulary and definitions without the key words (Bryant, et al., 2003).

Another mnemonic device in vocabulary development includes the use of pictures. In a chapter on developing sight vocabulary, Johns and Lenski (2001) outline a step-by-step method of introducing vocabulary to learners where they recommend, "whenever possible, use the actual object or a picture of the word being taught" (Johns and Lenski, 2001). Other ways to use picture cues for teaching word recognition involve presenting words on index cards with matching picture images. Students are taught to associate the image with the word. The teacher directly instructs learners to look at the word; look at the picture; then close their eyes and imagine the word as it looks next to the picture. In another study, students who received this mode of instruction outperformed students who were taught vocabulary in the traditional fashion (Bryant, et al., 2003).

The Language Experience Approach (LEA) is a method gaining popularity among teachers of students with learning deficits. LEA directly connects writing to reading because learners get to create their own written material that they then read aloud. One method of applying LEA is to offer a creative writing prompt. Some examples include:

- If you could visit anyplace in the world, where would you go? Why would you go there?
- What if there was no television for a week? What would you do for fun?
- Do you believe in UFOs? Why or why not?

Responding to the prompt, the learner dictates a paragraph to the instructor, who transcribes it on the board. The instructor then reads the paragraph aloud and has the student also read it aloud. A spin-off lesson of vocabulary instruction can follow if there are visually difficult words or words with more than one possible meaning. This strategy can be very empowering for learners, who have the opportunity to see their own words “in print.”

Multi-sensory approaches have been widely recommended in the literature to be useful for learners with disabilities. Manipulatives offer the learner a chance to engage the other senses while learning to read. For example, learners make great strides in retaining vocabulary when they have the chance to repeatedly put words together using moveable letters. Teachers can make word cards with raised letters by allowing glue to dry in the shape of the desired letters and words. Students can then feel the letters by tracing over the dried glue. Other tactile reinforcements can be created making letters from sandpaper, velvet, fleece or other relatively inexpensive materials (Burton, 1998).

Conclusion

Adult learners who demonstrate language difficulties, memory problems, attention deficits and difficulties in reading, writing or spelling have likely struggled with these problems their entire lives. Traditional, lecture-dense methods of instruction will probably lead to both teacher and student eventually pounding their heads against the proverbial wall. Strategies like the ones described above can promote

variety and diversity in any classroom or one-on-one setting. Use of unique methods communicates to learners that an instructor has an open mind, and is thinking “outside the box.” Adult learners want to succeed, and for myriad reasons often lack the tools to do so. By adopting a flexible attitude and creating a strategy-rich environment, adult educators can become the very difference between newfound success and continued failure for those learners.

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Limitations of Literacy Assessment for Students and Educators: The Implications of Finance, Intervention and Improvement

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Introduction

When educators debate the value and place of assessment, it is important to first establish what assessment means. A word originating in Latin, meaning ‘to sit beside,’ to assess, is what many educators do in order to evaluate their students’ progress, while sitting and observing beside them. (Weddel, & Van Duzer, para. 2). As is discussed here, it is when college and adult learners receive mass produced assessments from their teachers.

In education today, the limitations in adult and college literacy assessment for learners and educators have been argued and published far more than the advantages. For that reason, this research will indicate adult and college literacy limitations, how these limitations affect the teachers, and financial issues involved with college and adult literacy assessment. Furthermore, community and educational implications are suggested and how limitations on assessment can be improved for learners and educators.

As it will be demonstrated, there are no unbiased exams, and no objective assessments that are free from discrimination for minorities, adult, college learners who have little experience in the classroom. In addition, as college and adult literacy is an area that necessitates literacy assessment, the limitations that surround the topic are as numerous as their needs for it. However, due to lack of empirical research and the range of limitations, they have been narrowed and summarized for learners and educators.

Limitations of College and Adult Literacy Assessment for Students

In college and adult literacy, the need for assessment is obvious, as one cannot teach a learner without first knowing their literacy level. However, with the array of assessments used to measure literacy for college and adults, these assessments often discriminate against students from low socio-economic backgrounds, minorities, and have a strong correlation between scores and family income. (Chaddock, 1998). Regardless of what a learner might actually know, a score is created that is supposed to be an objective, fair and unbiased view of the student's intelligence.

Furthermore, while students must be examined in order to determine where they are regarding their literacy, another strong limitation of college and adult literacy assessments is that these exams are supposed to evaluate one's skill level in literacy. However, a test taker's score is proportional to the test taker's ability, their familiarity in the classroom setting, and evaluation procedures. (Burt & Keenan, 1999). So if an adult learner has never set foot in a classroom, nor held a pencil, sat at a desk, the evaluation of literacy is not only intimidating for the learner, and unreasonable in its expectations.

For each population, an assessment is deemed appropriate, yet more often than not, an exam is used as a means to gauge literacy, and often they are misused. Often assessments are used on large populations of college students or adults, with little regard to their needs, and often to cost. So as a result, the wrong population of learners receives the exams and it proves to be too difficult or far too simplistic. In the worst-case scenario, it appears so, due to careless scoring on behalf of assessors who don't take the time to carefully observe their students. (Winograd, Paris, & Bridge, 1991). Due to this, students are misrepresented academically, racially, and socially. No singular limitation is pervasive in the college and adult literacy classroom. When using assessment, it is important to be aware of how they discriminate and why.

While assessment can be extremely limiting for college and adult learners, for students who are minorities, and have no familiarity in the classroom, and when they are misused, the limitations of assessment extend to the educators as well. For this reason,

assessment and its prominence in college and adult classrooms must be examined, understood and implications made.

Limitations of College and Adult Literacy Assessment for Educators

Many teachers, of college students and of adults, have felt that assessment is over used and interferes with their methods of teaching. (Bussert-Webb, 1999). A major limitation for many educators using assessment to guide their teaching is that they feel they cannot teach holistically, and that they only focus on test material. In addition, teachers of every grade level feel burnt out; frustrated and above all pressured by external forces to produce positive outcomes on the assessments their students take.

However, college and adult educators have the anxiety of having to gain statistical data to demonstrate proof of student learning. Teachers need to have the positive curve in scores for administration to allocate funding, and dream of enough freedom to teach content, such as real literature and not test questions. Due to this strain on their abilities and resources, a great number of instructors leave the teaching profession out of frustration, and the feeling that they are test administrators instead of educators (Neill, 2003). For example, first year teachers who go into the elementary grades that assess frequently have an enormous dropout rate, and are encouraged to teach grades that do not assess using statewide or federal exams.

All of these limitations are pervasive when utilizing standardized tests, and for college and adult literacy educators, the largest limitation is the burden of proof. The need to gain statistical data, demonstrate scores and face administrators regarding funding creates limitations for educators in college and adult literacy as it is now federally necessary to show statistical data if you are an adult literacy educator that you are making learning progress with your students. This is often done with assessments, pre and post tests, at the beginning and end of each year, term, or period of time that an adult learner is evaluated. While in college assessment the need for funding is not as essential, the testing, communication with administration remains the same, as is the need for positive results. While the assessment of college and adult learners has many

limitations for the students and teachers, the financial implications of assessment are staggering.

Financial Limitations of College and Adult Literacy Assessment

One major financial issue is that, as stated above, adult literacy teachers have increasing demands from policy makers, funding agencies, and the federal government to provide evidence that their education program is effective and making progress. (Hayes, 1997). For those who educate college and adult learners, teachers know that a mass-produced, standardized test will show details compared to true observation, conversation, and written skills over time. However, as it is required for federal funding by IDEA, an act that takes place in 2004, statistical data of student learning is one of requirements for funding from the government.

However, it seems as our schools advance, our testing procedures regress, taking a step in the wrong direction, by mass marketing to examine every aspect and ruling out the teacher's judgment of his/her students in the process. This mass market of assessment is one that is very expensive, and one that requires that all teachers demonstrate that they are doing their job by demonstrating positive results on assessments. In college and adult literacy that does not only mean to the federal government, but sponsors, or other corporations who fund literacy programs often require hard data, which is arduous to provide. (Burt & Keenan, 1999). This is not only due to the statistical information, which is extremely costly, and without using commercially available assessments, one cannot expect to gauge where a learner was at the beginning of a literacy program, and where they are after they are measured again. To gain sponsorship, provide data, and do so using a commercial assessment is difficult for those with federal funding. Yet, for private organizations, such as a church, or community group, or local association, obtaining a commercial assessment would be expensive, challenging and above all beyond reach for simply attempting to help their community.

Furthermore, to provide a corporation with statistical data would create more difficulty than the expense of the assessment in most cases, as the software needed to do so is very high-priced, complicated and often misinterpreted. So why would a community

group or church that teaches literacy attempt to gain sponsorship when dealing with the limitations of commercial assessment? Quite simply, because corporate, local sponsors or organizations often fund literacy centers that are not funded by the federal government, as federal funds are often unavailable for lack of evidence, and assessments are often frequent, structured and misused. (Burt & Saccomano para. 16). While we assume that our government is passing acts such as IDEA for the greater good, there are many subcategories as to how, what, and who gets funded. In the bureaucracy that has become the United States education system, there are many reasons given by state and local governments that rationalize why perfectly viable education centers and educators do not get funded, simply for their lack of proof. Therefore, it is up to the community, to the educators that distribute the assessments to make changes in the current system, and it is entirely possible.

Educational and Community Implications

First of all, like everything in education, one of the greatest problems is funding. So it is necessary for educators, administrators and sponsors to invest in education, specifically in improving literacy achievement for college and adult students. (Miles, 2003). Without funding in education, the future will be bleak with an uneducated population that lacks insight, motivation and cannot read, but does really well on standardized tests and other mass produced assessments. To change that, to be active in literacy advancement, help those that need it most, children's education receives a great deal of attention publicly and financially. The second an adolescent turns eighteen; their education is no longer a concern. To improve college and adult literacy, we must invest as much in our adult and college learners as we do in our children, and focus on their achievement, not on their statistics.

Improvements for College and Adult Literacy Assessment for Students

Furthermore, it is necessary to create awareness. It is necessary for educators and parents to make the limitations of assessments known to those who determine then nature of standardized tests, and to whom they are given. Students of all ages

have anxiety, fear and lack of enthusiasm regarding assessments. Few if any teachers regard standardized assessment as the only method of learning a student's skill levels, and often, parents feel that assessments are biased, unfair or misrepresentative of their child. For that reason, as an educator, as a member of the community, it is tantamount to be vocal regarding the limitations of assessment, as they do not provide a fair picture of any student, and lack the perspective that a simple observation from a teacher would have.

The final thing educators can do to implicate the limitations of assessment would be to realize that they are always assessing their student's knowledge, and there is no unbiased, equal standardized test that measures intelligence on any subject. By simply always being aware of that, they make themselves more open to their students, and allow themselves to improve upon the limitations that are inherent in mass produced tests. Whether teaching a college classroom, a small group, or one on one with an ESL adult learner, it is necessary to be vigilant in one's observation, and aware that our students are able to develop with each lesson. Realizing that assessments can be improved upon for college and adult learners is necessary for implementing improvements in the classroom.

For students, there are a variety of methods that can be utilized in order to make assessment more functional, comfortable and relaxing. First of all, remember to use a variety of methods to determine a skill, ability or degree of literacy, as one cannot describe a student's abilities accurately through only one assessment, and often it is through observation and interview that these are demonstrated. (Winograd, Paris, and Bridge, 1991). As stated previously, assessment is a procedure, but it is also a process, and one that is ongoing. So use a variety of methods, such as interview, student portfolio, and other methods, such as the Language Experience Approach to determine student learning.

To aid in the enhancement of assessment for college and specifically adult learners, it is necessary to spend time in the classroom/student prior to an evaluation or assessment, use the first class to familiarize the student with you, the classroom procedures, and the coming evaluation. (Hayes, 1997). When this is done, the assessment procedure is more comfortable for the student, less

invasive, and the environment more personable. Often, those experienced with giving adult assessments spend a good amount of time meeting and interviewing students, becoming familiar with their personalities prior to any kind of assessment procedure.

When it comes to overall improvement for college and adult learners, think of the larger issues, and prior to any interview, any kind of meeting, take the time to clarify the goals of your instruction and of the assessment itself. Ask what this assessment is really being used for? Is it to diagnose, to show a student's progression, or simply to comply with federal or state laws? (Winograd, Paris, & Bridge, 1991). Concentrate on those goals that focus on your instruction and follow through with those. Still, as there are limitations that are applicable for educators, there are changes that can be made while interacting with their students and working with these tools.

Improvements for College and Adult Literacy Assessment for Educators

As a teacher, use interactive assessments and interpret results that enhance instruction, not frame it, by using students' interests. (Winograd, Paris, and Bridge, 1991). Often called theme-based learning, or needs assessment, this can improve not only upon the relationship with students, create awareness where there was none before, and make instructors aware of changes in the classroom.

Secondly, as an instructor, work on building relationships with your students, increase class discussions and encourage metacognition by having student discussion, and having them voice their opinion. (Bussert-Webb, 1999). Whether you teach one student or thirty-five, it is necessary to allow students to feel comfortable and a sense of trust so that they can speak out regarding questions, speaking their mind and when they have doubts or concerns. Often when using assessments, adult students will hesitate or halt on questions that are unfamiliar or that are confusing. Rather than ask questions, these students will simply remain on the question until time is up. Therefore, the sense of trust and a positive relationship is necessary throughout the learning process.

Lastly, as a teacher, realize students are as frustrated with assessments as their teachers are. Regardless of grade level, there is no child, adolescent or adult that is motivated when it comes to standardized test, and does not appreciate drills, forms and repetitious learning. Therefore, as an instructor, you can teach holistically, teach content, and they will appreciate reading, learning and retain information all the more. By teaching a well rounded lesson plan, using variations, changing methods, and not teaching to the tests, teachers allow students to have a love for what they are learning and to grow at the same time.

Conclusion

In conclusion, there are many obstacles when using assessment in college and adult literacy. For students, assessment is discriminatory based on minority status, social economic status, test taking ability and the educator's choice of test. However, teachers also have difficulties with assessment. Often they are forced to teach test questions, face the demands of administration and sponsors, and burn out due to stress. Financially, assessment is costly, due to the need for proof of learning, statistical data and lack of investment in adult and college literacy. However communities and educators can invest, create awareness to the limitations of assessment, and how there is no unbiased measure. We can always improve on assessment, by creating relationships with our learners, using multiple methods, measures, and clarifying our goals. As students, teachers, parents and members of a community that needs to invest in our present, our college and adult literacy, we must improve upon the limitations of assessment, and not take the state of testing for granted.

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Coming to Know the Self Through School Stories

*Bryant Griffith
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Introduction

Traditionally the writing of history has been by the dominant culture - skewed and one-sided towards the tellers, often leaving out important voices. Robin George Collingwood claimed that the writing of History had become unconscious, a process where the preconceptions of a society did not connect. In Collingwoodian language, the explicit meaning of actions has not been made implicit and this can only happen when we realize that History is about self-knowledge. The process of making the explicit, implicit, making the outside the inside is philosophical. It is philosophical because it has to do with the nature of knowledge and it is also historical because it has to do with the way in which the past and present interact to provide meaning, a meaning that Collingwood says can only be about who we are. Any knowledge we can have of the past has to be based on present knowledge of ourselves, the nature of thought and the fact that we can construct analogies about the past to make meaning.

This compilation of narratives is Collingwoodian in nature. It comes straight from the source, people reflecting and narrating stories of their early schooling experiences. Through the telling and reading of the stories, early schooling experiences are shared and made meaningful both for the writer and the reader. This can also be seen as form of Habermas' idea of emancipatory knowledge where the insight gained by self-awareness and reflection are used to gain understanding and control over the effects of early educational experiences.

The School Stories Project began in 1999 with the meeting of Dr. Tom Rose and Dr. Bryant Griffith in New York City at an art opening. In coming together and discussing their chosen careers,

Professor of Art at the University of Minnesota and Professor of Philosophy and Education at Acadia University respectively, they began to realize that they had certain early schooling commonalities. They found this uncanny that they were from two different countries and had two dissimilar career paths albeit; they were both working in the sphere of education. A litany of questions began flooding their minds. How did two men who were relatively unsuccessful in their K - 12 schooling experiences overcome insurmountable obstacles to become professionals in the field of education? Why did they interpret their K-12 experience as being unsuccessful? How many other men had had similar experiences? They began to wonder about the early schooling experiences of their male acquaintances, and if they shared any of the same similarities. As they delved further into these ideas the thought of collaborating on a project began.

Phase one began with the collection of the stories. The original *School Stories Project* was composed of twenty-two short essays describing the early schooling experiences of a group of men aged forty and above that the two project coordinators, Dr. Bryant Griffith and Dr. Tomas Rose, have associated with, known professionally, or known on a personal level. There were no parameters put on the stories other than they discuss their own K – 12 early schooling experiences. All submitted stories were used in their original form. The stories were assembled and visual representations were constructed to make the stories multi textual and more representative of thought, as they understood it. Later, video and audio were assembled to represent the analogies in another medium. Further expanding the scope of accessibility to a wider audience, the stories were posted on the web. What seemingly was perceived as a random collection of autobiographical text has come to transcend the ordinary into the extraordinary. Strands or links connect countless readers of the stories to construct meaning of their own lived experiences.

Putting this phase of the project into a philosophical context it seems that the stories have made explicit what many people have known implicitly about their early schooling. Habermas like the Idealist Collingwood share the belief that ‘mind’ has a tendency towards freedom. If that is the case, then it can be argued that narratives about the struggle of young mavericks inside an educational

system which attempts to standardize thinking and behavior is an example of how we uncover the dialectic of self knowledge.

In other words, the critical self-reflection on past human actions creates an explicit understanding of what had been implicit unreflected actions. The historical disconnect in the lives of these men between these two aspects of thinking about thinking has often caused confusion about the nature of self and the nature of thinking. We argue that these stories have explicitly bridged the philosophical gap between the implicit past and the present. This has been accomplished in two ways: first, the stories were created as reflections in which thinking is characterized as a process with no beginning or end. Second, the stories have been made meaningful by the narrators and also through the further reflections of those who have read them and commentated on them. This is truly reflection.

Furthermore, what began as a free-associative project between the written word and the medium of art has expanded into the academic realm with the inclusion of phase two, *Hispanic School Stories* and its implications for curriculum studies.

The extension into Hispanic School Stories came about in 2003 when Dr. Griffith accepted a position in South Texas at Texas A & M University—Corpus Christi. Immersed in an area steeped in Hispanic culture he saw an opportunity for understanding cultural characteristics as an important aspect of educating students from different cultural groups. The impetus for this addition to the *School Stories Project* was to further understand the perception of education and how we as diverse groups interact with the concept of education. Questions began to run through his head about the early schooling of the Hispanic people of the South Texas Region. How did they perceive education? What were the influences that determined their success or lack of success in their k – 12 schooling experiences? Were there any similarities between the original stories and this cultural group? After contacting Dr. Rose, the two agreed to further the reach of the *School Stories Project* to include phase two, the *Hispanic School Stories*. The stories would be compiled, interpreted through art and then shared through the printed medium and on the internet.

A general invitation was extended to several doctoral level classes at TAMU-CC to submit autobiographical accounts of early schooling experiences for Hispanics. To collect stories from a broader spectrum of the Hispanic population, students were encouraged to seek out stories from family members, acquaintances, as well as their own. Accordingly, these stories represent a diverse sampling amongst the Hispanic population. Three classes were asked to submit stories and fifteen stories were collected and will be used in their original form.

These autobiographical collections also have a central theme of early schooling experiences and perceptions. They give rise to the questioning relevancy of curriculum and perceived meaning of early schooling experiences to Hispanics. This collection's purpose is to express and share the experiences of the Hispanic people, to begin the discourse of contemplation, to consider what is happening in our educational system with regards to our nation's complex, multicultural composition and hopefully to set about change, thereby contemplating curricular options. "The point of the school curriculum is to goad us into caring for ourselves and our fellow human beings, to help us think and act with intelligence, sensitivity, and courage in both the public sphere – as citizens aspiring to establish a democratic society – and in the private sphere, as individuals committed to other individuals" (Pinar, 1996 p. 848).

Understanding cultural groups allows one to begin to ascertain what is and is not effective in education policy. The central focus of improved academic performance has anaesthetized educators into thinking that they are providing quality educational experiences when they are at best preparing only a small part of the population for college or university. What about the students who aren't academically gifted? Noddings, (1996) states that politicians often affirm that education is, or should be, the way out of poverty. Teachers are urged to have the same expectations for poor children as for rich children: all should meet the rigorous standards that are now being recommended. This advice may be well intentioned, but its logic is muddled. We know that, by and large, children from stable, economically secure homes do fairly well with standard schooling (We are not arguing that they are, therefore, well educated - just that

they do well on standard measures). In contrast, children from poor homes often have a difficult time with the usual pattern of schooling.

In the same vein, politicians call for “the same expectations” for all cultural groups. As educators, we must realize that just a socioeconomic status makes a difference, so does culture. They both need to be studied, understood, and contemplated in order to enact the change needed to equalize the educational equation - to take education beyond its present boundaries, to reflect and contemplate its application to today’s changing multicultural populations. William Pinar states that, “Any comprehensive theory of curriculum must include race and its concepts-such as multiculturalism, identity, marginality, and difference as fundamental” (Pinar, 1996, p.319). Student populations need to be respected by a curriculum that is not embedded with cultural bias. High drop-out rates, high teenage pregnancy rates, and the constant threat of violence in and out of schools all indicate the need for contemplation, discourse and action leading to change in society and in our public schooling system.

Differences Between the Two Phases of the Project

In the original *School Stories*, printed memories or representations of a group of successful men were collected. The men in the group were seemingly different from each other, but as their stories came together a common thread united them, their difficulties in their early schooling experiences. It was as if there were missing signals or misunderstood signals from the establishment that were not understood by these men until much later in life. The creativity or gifts were overlooked in youth and these boys were seen as problems instead of being recognized as creative, divergent thinkers. They went through the process of schooling backwards, but ended up being successful despite their early difficulties.

In contrast, the collection of *Hispanic School Stories* was composed of males and females from Hispanic backgrounds. Secondly, the diversity of the age of contributors along with the variety of careers is more varied among the second group. In many cases, the parents of the contributors had very little formal education. Notably, this group had a more positive outlook on their early educational experiences despite many challenges and setbacks. They

attribute their success to their parents' determination to see that their children have greater opportunities than previous generations.

Methodology

The question is, 'What is more?' Within educational research there is a vibrant hermeneutical strand. The writing and research by Jo Anne Pagano, Deborah Britzman, Nel Noddings and Madeleine Grumet are informative for our purpose. Grumet's work has been central to a field that might be called autobiographical text. In the past twenty years, Grumet has attempted to rescue autobiography from its association with the self, the alias that has given subjectivity a bad name (Grumet, 1996). She has clarified the role of story telling in autobiography by citing Alfred Schutz, the social phenomenologist by saying, "Meaning does not lie in experience. Rather, those experiences are meaningful which are grasped reflectively. The meaning is the way in which the Ego regards its experience. The meaning lies in the attitude of the Ego toward that part of its stream of consciousness which has already flowed by." (Schutz, 1996, pp. 69-71)

Grumet's methodology has been to encourage her participants to write multiple accounts of one educational experience thereby getting a triangulation on the narratives. In some ways the *School Stories Project*, through Rose's visual metaphors, seems to be doing something similar yet quite different at the same time. By representing autobiographical text in a visual context, Rose and Griffith appear to have added a new dimension to what feminist phenomenologist call the reclamation of the self. Rose and Griffith are asking about the relationship between two distinct but not separate, forms of autobiographical text in reclaiming the self that was constructed in formal schooling. They are asking how the various forms of thought: verbal, visual, and written combine to form identity and shape memory. Peter Ackroyd raises much the same idea but on a more general level in *Albion: The Origins of the English Imagination*, (Doubleday, 2003) when he argues that all forms of human expression must be taken into account in constructing cultural sensibility. The *School Stories* also seem to have uncovered another theme. The autobiographical texts appear to make explicit what has been implicit and in the process question what have been called historical

presuppositions about what we believe is the basis for the way we view the world. One example might be that the school stories question the ability of the public school system to fully prepare children for life in a vibrant democracy. These autobiographical texts are not simply bourgeois individualism. Like Connelley and Clandinin, these stories represent personal, practical knowledge of how to get by without succeeding in school. They tell of how a group of creative men succeed despite the myths of how to behave and learn in our society. One might say that they could be a broader exploration of Robert Fulghum's, *All I Really Need to Know I Learned in Kindergarten*.

Conclusion

A second example might be questioning how we know in schooling that we know. In an era of “no child left behind,” our rush to accountability based on quantitative standards just may not be acceptable in a diverse and complex world. If autobiographical text is important in informing the nature of the School Stories project to this point, it may also help point the way to an educational context of community, diversity, complexity, and short term planning as Fullan (*Change Forces: The Sequel*, 2001) has argued. By rendering explicit what has been implicit, the *School Stories Project* may be a vehicle to help coalesce much of the work cited above.

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