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Letter from the Editor

Dear Conference Presenters,

Thank you for your wonderful contributions to the 2015 International Society for the Social Studies Annual Conference. Your presentations have helped to make the conference a success. The combination of pedagogical and content based presentations left conference attendees both excited and content. It is our hope that the following will either provide a synopsis of the presentations or offer even more information.

Sincerely,

William B. Russell III

Editor

Bonnie L. Bittman

Editorial Assistant

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**Local History and Local Culture at the Core of Elementary Social
Studies Curriculum**

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Frequently social studies curriculum and instructional practices favor the students from the dominant group. This situation aggravates social inequality particularly in a multicultural society like the Philippines. Grounded on the social constructivism theory, this study intended to develop a curriculum framework for elementary social studies that is equitable, culturally responsive, learner-centered, community-based, and empowering. Set in a Philippine rural area, the research involved 173 elementary school students and six social studies teachers in a public school. Surveys were conducted to ascertain the socio-demographics and cultural background of the participants, in addition to interviews, focus group discussions and class observations. Through frequency counts and thematic analysis, it was found that socio-cultural diversity exists in

schools in rural areas. Teacher participants are varied in terms of religion and learning styles while the students are diverse in terms of gender, socio-economic status, religion, ethnolinguistic group, linguistic background, and learning styles. Interestingly, there are also cultural variations among children who belong to the same ethnolinguistic group. Results of this study emphasized the need for a curriculum that is sensitive to the socio-cultural uniqueness that each pupil brings to class and instructional practices that value learners' individuality over the stereotypes attached to their group affiliation. A curriculum framework that positions every student's local history and local culture at the core of social studies curriculum is proposed, as well as the implementation of instructional approaches that are aligned to the principles of social constructivism.

**An Analysis of Enrolment in Advanced Placement Classes in Florida
from the 2010 to 2011 School Years**

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The Florida Department of Education grades public schools using a complex grading system with grades ranging from A to F. Different dimensions are included in the grading formula, which is divided evenly between FCAT performance and non-FCAT-based components (Florida Department of Education, 2011). Participation in accelerated coursework, including Advance Placement (AP) classes, International Baccalaureate classes, dual enrollment courses, and industry certification are all included in the final grades for high schools across the state. This grading system affects the individual schools significantly through funding, risk of school closure, teacher pay incentives when improving letter grades, and, if failing for an extended amount of time, observation and intervention from the Florida Department of Education (Harrison & Cohen-Vogel, 2012).

The score for the school is calculated based off of a 1600 point scale, with letter grades assigned according to ranges set by the state (Florida Department of Education, 2012). Between the 2010-11 school

year and the 2011-2012 school year, the advanced coursework participation portion shifted, specifically students were weighted in 2010-11 year, 1.0 for advanced students with 0.1 added for each additional course taken by juniors and seniors divided by the enrollment of juniors and seniors in the school. In the 2011-2012 measurement, equation for participation shifted away from the weighted score to the percentage of juniors and seniors taking AP exams. Furthermore, the points awarded to participation has shifted to the performance section; formally, in 2010-11 participation is worth 175 points, with performance worth 125 points, and in 2011-12, participation and performance is measured 150 points each.

With the state of Florida including AP classes as a part of the school grades, districts and principals have a vested interest in increasing the number of students enrolled in AP classes, as well as the number of exams students are taking. While encouraging students to take AP classes can be beneficial for students, forcing a student to take a college level class could be detrimental to their educational experiences, overwhelming them with complex content and large amounts of school work.

Purpose of Research Study

The purpose of this research study is to determine if there was a significant increase in AP class enrollment, the number of students taking AP exams, and the total number of AP exams given between the 2010-11 and 2011-12 school years.

Research Questions

1. Did the number of students taking AP exams increase significantly from 2010-11 to 2011-12 in the state of Florida?
2. Did the number of AP exams taken by student increase significantly from 2010-11 to 2011-12 in the state of Florida?
3. Is there a relationship between a) school population, b) total number of AP students in 2011-12, c) the total number of AP exams given per school in 2011-12

Operational Definitions

For the purposes of this study, student enrollment in AP classes is defined as the number of students per high school taking AP classes in the 2010-11 and 2011-12 school years. The total AP Exams is defined by the number of AP exams taken by students per high school.

Methods

This research study utilizes a non-experimental research design in examining the effect of the change in grading of high schools in Florida on AP student enrollment, total number of AP test offered, and the number of AP classes offered by schools between the 2010-11 and 2011-12 school years.

Having used the Department of Education population data, a sample was not used in this research study. To ensure this study's external validity, several conditions had to be met to be included. Both public high schools as well as charter schools were included in the data set; however; schools had to have a population over 1,000 students in both years to ensure the school's population could support both general and AP classes. Moreover, if a school did not offer any AP classes in 2010-11 or 2011-12, they were excluded from the data set. A total of 355 high schools have met the criterion. Sampling methods were not necessary for this research study.

Data collection procedures involved several steps. From the Department of Education Division of Accountability, Research and Measurement's (ARM) website (<http://www.fldoe.org/arm/>) included

information regarding school population, total number of students taking AP exams, and the total number of AP exams taken (Florida Department of Education, n.d.).

Results

Between the 2010-11 and 2011-12 school year, there was only a decrease of 3 students at the 50% cut off, suggesting little change between the two years. A frequency table showed that the 50th percentile almost exactly lines up with no change between the two year, suggesting little difference in the number of students between 2010-11 and 2011-12 school years. The frequency distribution for the total number of AP students shows a similar trend, the 50th percentile of the difference between the two years is reported at -2.00, again very close to no change.

Despite the lack of difference at the 50th percentile, the 75th percentile does show some significant change between the two years. The 75th percentile for the difference in the number of AP students is around 42 student between 2010-11 and 2011-12. Furthermore, the 75th percentile for the difference in the number of total AP exams is around 79 total. The lowest quartile for both the difference in AP students and difference in AP

exams decreases. For the exact numbers for the 25th percentile, the 50th percentile, and the 75th percentile, see Table 3.

	Total Number of AP Students in 2010-11	Total Number of AP Students in 2011-12	Total Number of AP Exams in 2010-11	Total Number of AP Exams in 2011-12
Percentiles				
25	234.05 ^a	226.25 ^a	359.25 ^a	338.83 ^a
50	368.00	363.00	589.00	592.50
75	589.83	604.50	1061.33	1081.00

a. Percentiles are calculated from grouped data

Measures of central tendency and variability.

The mean for the total number of AP students in 2010-11 was 435.01, the approximate median was 368, and the mode 416. For the 2011-12 school year, the mean was 438, the median was 363, and the mode 144 (multiple modes existed, the smallest value is shown). Thus the number of students' distribution is positively skewed, with the mode being less than the median, which is less than the mean. For 2010-11, the exclusive range was 1677, *H* spread (interquartile range) was 354, and standard deviation was 281. For 2011-12, the exclusive range was 1838, *H* spread was 397,

and the standard deviation was 288. From this we can tell that the number of student varied quite a bit, for example, the standard deviation for both years exceeded 200 students. Thus, the number of students taking AP classes varied greatly from school to school.

Table 4, the mean for the total number of AP test taken in 2010-11 was 778, the median was 589, and the mode was 427 (multiple modes existed, the smallest value is shown). For the 2011-12 school year, the mean was 781, the median was 582, and the mode was 596. Thus, like the number of AP students, the distribution for number of AP exams is positively skewed. For the 2010-11, the exclusive range was 3,443, *H* spread was 702, and the standard deviation was 583.5. For 2011-12, the exclusive range was 3,652, *H* spread 743, and the standard deviation was 611. From this information, it is clear that the spread in the number of AP exams taken increases between 2010-11 and 2011-12.

Discussion

Although the grading for Florida high schools changed between 2010-11 and 2011-12, the number of AP students did not increase significantly, nor did the number of AP exams taken by students. The

grading system for high schools has been gradually changing over the past 5 years, shifting away from FCAT focused assessments and to a broader assessment structure. High schools have changed the way they approach AP, but the process is gradual. The mean of the enrollment for the schools decreased by 3 while the number of students increased on average by 2.9. This suggest that schools are increasing their AP enrollment, but not sharply.

Some students may not be given a choice to take AP class, instead being forced to take AP classes without self-selecting them. Consequently, student would be faced with more students faced with more difficult coursework than they choose, harming students academically and stunting their academic potential. AP classes are difficult, college level courses that students must choose for themselves to prosper. Besides the possibility that students are being forced into these difficult classes, the size of the school must be taken into account. Larger school offer more AP classes for students to take. This puts smaller schools at a disadvantage. Without the school population to support dedicated AP teachers, some schools will

limit the course options for students and prevent them from taking interesting and challenging classes in the future.

Limitations and Future Research

Although this study is conducted using mostly population data, the exclusion of schools with smaller student populations (<1,000 students) limits the data and could affect the results of the study. Further analysis of the data to ensure validity will be needed and should be researched further. Also, the limitation in time prevents a detailed analysis of the AP enrollment. Education programs generally take longer than a single school year to become effective. Further analysis should be conducted to examine AP enrollments as a five year trend. Lastly, the 2010-11 data does not provide information concerning the number of AP classes and whether there was an increase in the number of classes, a potentially more telling variable than the number of students enrolled in AP courses or the total number of AP exams taken. ARM started collecting this data in 2011-12 school year and further research should be done to analyze for any difference in the number of AP courses offered by Florida's high schools.

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**Looking Beyond the Textbook: Multimodal Intertextuality in a
Secondary Social Studies Classroom**

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Social studies teachers historically use textbooks as a primary source of instruction. This creates a problem for students who struggle with understanding the content because they have difficulty connecting with the ideas presented in the textbook. The reason why these factors can be problematic is it can impact students' motivation to learn. As we become entrenched in the 21st century technological revolution, curriculum and instructional approaches must meet the needs of the students. Providing the text in various formats (multimodality) can aid students in developing an in-depth understanding of it. Digital resources or texts accessed through computers or computer software programs provide students with a way to read information by using platforms in which they are generally accustomed. Intertextuality provides students with a way to internalize history by providing a reference within a reference.

Intertextuality also provides a way to build schema. By providing multiple modes (or types) of the text through print, digital and visual platforms, situational interest in the text can be triggered by identifying aspects of the text associated with reader personal interest.

To explore this topic in further depth, the researchers asked the following questions:

1. Does multimodal intertextuality (MI) provide a way for students to engage the text through a variety of formats and instructional experiences?
2. How did the assessment results of the class using the MI curriculum compare with the class that participated in traditional instruction?

Review of Literature

Students may struggle with understanding the content within textbooks because of problems connecting the ideas presented in the text. Social studies teachers have a long history of using textbooks as a primary source of instruction (Goodland, 1984; Dunn, 2000 and Villano, 2005). Jere Brophy (2010) maintains students must be engaged in order to

motivate them. Using the text in formats other than print can aid in developing an in-depth understanding and enhance the student's motivation to learn. The idea of multimodal resources requires using texts that convey meaning in print as well as pictures. Intertextuality can provide a reference within reference. These references can provide more context and understanding for the reader. Kristeva calls this experience "performed intertextuality" a process where the reader makes sense of the text (2002), while they read to understand and read for understanding. The researchers propose that developing and using a curriculum using MI will provide a relevant and meaningful learning experience for the students.

Methodology

A sample of convenience was used from two eleventh grade United States History classes in a rural Midwestern school. A qualitative and quasi-experimental approach was used as the research methodology. There were two groups; a control group and an experimental group. There were 12 students in the control group. This group participated in instructional approaches that included lectures, taking notes and answering questions from the end of the assigned chapter. There were 14 students in

the experimental group. They participated in a MI instructional approach to learning about the Civil War (the experimental group). The experimental group used the new curriculum which consisted of: excerpts from Michael Shaara's The Killer Angers, selected video clips from the 1993 movie *Gettysburg*, a video game simulation titled *Gettysburg: Scourge of War* and the assigned textbook. The instructional activities were structured and consisted of bell work, journaling, participating in the video game simulation at least three times, a quiz and a summative evaluation. Unlike the control group, the experimental group did not use the assigned textbook as the primary source of information. The MI curriculum was designed to provide students in the experimental group with alternative forms of text concerning the Civil War and the Battle of Gettysburg. The journals, movie review questions and bell work were designed to assess student's progress and understanding of the Civil War, specifically the Battle of Gettysburg.

The journals were collected from the experimental group and summative assessments from both groups. The responses in the journals

were analyzed through coding for major themes. The grades from the summative assessments from both groups were analyzed and compared.

The majority of the students in the experimental group wrote about learning strategy from the video game in their journals. Most of the students learned video game strategy and a small percentage of the students were able to relate the strategies used in the simulation to the historical Battle of Gettysburg. There were also a small percentage of students who stated they learned little to nothing from the video game simulation. All of the students in the experimental group found the movie, supplemental reading and the rest of the curriculum beneficial to their learning experience.

Analysis of Data (Assessment Results)

The summative assessment revealed the control group cumulative percentage grade was 88.88% and the experimental group was 85.68%. However further breakdown of the scores revealed that the control group earned six “A’s”, four “B’s”, one “C” and one “D”; while the experimental group earned eight “A’s”, two “B’s”, three “C’s”, and one “F”. The researchers also found that the pass rate percentage of the

experimental group was higher than the control group. This was done by dropping the lowest grade from both the control and experimental groups.

The field notes show students in the experimental group were visibly engaged in every aspect of the experimental curriculum. However, the journals show some of the students found the video game simulation difficult to play or did not find value in that particular activity.

Discussion

It is the intent of the authors to further develop this line of research and they recommend: more reflection questions should be added to the assigned movie while supplemental reading questions are asked in the journal assignments. In addition, the video game simulation should be more structured starting on the first day and more reading instructional strategies implemented. This should provide students with approaches to understanding the Battle of Gettysburg and the Civil War. Lastly, a Likert-like survey will be used to evaluate student motivation and interest in the experimental curriculum.

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**School/Family Communication and Involvement: A Top Ten List for
Elementary School Teachers**

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Teachers must successfully communicate with parents. The National Council of the Social Studies (NCSS) strand V. Individuals, Groups and Institutions supports this relationship in that: Institutions such as schools, churches, families, government agencies, and the courts play an integral role in people's lives. They exert enormous influences over us (NCSS).

However, while the research suggests that this communication, between school and family, does have an impact on a child's learning, this impact can be positive or negative (Epstein, 2001; Grant & Ray, 2010; Pinkus, 2006; Pomerantz, Moorman, & Litwack, 2007). Studies that focus on positive impact discuss parents who choose to communicate with their child's teacher and actively participate in their child's education leading to higher levels of student academic achievement (Epstein, 2010).

“Participation” for parents usually includes attending Parent Teacher Association (PTA) meetings or back to school nights, both being the leading forms of parental involvement (Howe & Simmons, 1993). Yet there can and should be much more.

In true David Letterman style, this article presents a Top Ten List to ensure successful school/family communication and involvement.

10. **Include the child.** Partnerships between teachers and parents help the *child* see that you are a team working toward his/her academic success. Invite the child to attend each teacher/parent meeting and present his/her work and goals to the parents.

9. **Meet parents on *their* time.** Consider offering meetings with parents at school early in the morning before work or by using technology such as Skype or FaceTime to acknowledge and accommodate parent work schedules.

8. **Go beyond typical PTA meetings.** Establish online communication through class websites such as <https://education.weebly.com/>. Post announcements and other important communication with parents who can be tech savvy.

7. **Paper and phone.** While many parents are tech savvy, others remain not so much. Printable parent newsletters and personal phone calls are still effect ways to communicate with parents. Be sure to include positive feedback as well as those times you must share not so good comments about a child with their parents.
6. **Paper, continued.** Purchase simple small spiral notebooks. “Catch” children being good and jot down these events in the notebook. Add yarn through the spiral wire to create a Necklace of Notes (Hudson, 2000). Parents read the notes and respond with comments in the notebook. The notebook will become a wonderful journal of the school year for families to keep and enjoy.
5. **Donuts for Dads, Muffins with Moms.** Encourage parent participation at school with special days throughout the year.
4. **Facebook connections.** Create a private group on Facebook for your class. Post pictures and encourage parents to make comments and respond to other parent comments. Note: For those non-tech parents share this Facebook page with them at school during the teacher/parent conference.

3. **Picture it-with more technology.** Create a Shutterfly account (<http://www.shutterfly.com>) specifically for class photos. Parents can view and treasure daily pictures during the school year. Note: For those non-tech parents, print pictures out and send home for them to enjoy.

2. **Professional collaboration: Don't stop there-reach out.** Find other educators not only in your school but across the globe and inquire how they communicate with parents. They will be able to offer new ways to share school/family communication and involvement.

Example: <http://www.teachability.com/welcome>

And the number 1 reason for school and family communication and involvement?

1.**The rewards.** Teachers and parents are essential partners in a child's education. These types of relationships may require extra work and effort, yet the rewards are great for all involved.

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**Bi-epistemic Research in a Policy Context: Current Findings and
Subsequent Studies**

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As an inter-disciplinary and bi-epistemic research team we consider Aboriginal community leaders and public school officials as key partners in collaborative and consultative research projects (Trudeau & Cherubini, 2010). We recognize the rapid demographic growth of Aboriginal peoples in Ontario and across Canada, and as a result we seek to examine educational practices and provincial educational policies that foster self-reliant communities in Ontario and beyond (Ontario Native Affairs, 2005). The core issue, as we discovered in our previous federally-research through the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council, is that the educational experience of Aboriginal students in publicly funded schools is often significantly stifled (Cherubini & Hodson, 2008). As we have already documented in other publications, Aboriginal students are often at odds with the protocols and practices of publicly funded

classrooms and mainstream teachers that do not honour their unique socio-cultural worldviews.

We have already investigated the impact of the key 2007 policy document related to Aboriginal education in the province of Ontario – the *Ontario First Nation, Métis, and Inuit Education Policy Framework* – as it relates to Aboriginal students, public school teachers, principals, Aboriginal youth counsellors, and Elders-in-residence (Cherubini, 2010, 2012, 2014; Cherubini, Manley-Casimir, Hodson & Muir, 2010). Our work has shown that cultural conflict and feelings of marginalization among K to 12 Aboriginal students are characteristic of publicly funded schools that do not adequately implement the respective objectives of the *Ontario First Nation, Métis, and Inuit Education Policy Framework* (the Framework). We conducted Research Conversations (Kanu, 2011) sensitive to Aboriginal ways of knowing to gather the perceptions and opinions of the aforementioned stakeholders across Ontario to investigate the impact of the Framework in classrooms and schools. We discovered that collaborative approaches between students, teachers and youth counsellors that honour the strengths and capacities of Aboriginal and

non-Aboriginal students offered the greatest opportunity for successful and sustainable policy implementation and Aboriginal student engagement. Moreover, teachers, principals and counsellors who understood the complex challenges facing Aboriginal communities were better able to effectively develop classroom and pedagogical approaches that resonated most with Aboriginal students. In these instances all students coexisted in social, epistemic, and symbolic spaces that valued the presence of Elders-in-residence as spiritual knowledge-keepers. In the same light, we noted the profound lack of consistent policy implementation in schools and classrooms across Ontario that resulted in few conceptual spaces where Aboriginal students could discern their social location and their individual and collective identity.

Although Ontario has advanced significantly as outlined in the *Ontario First Nation, Métis, and Inuit Education Policy Framework* (2007), the *2nd Progress Report* (2013), and the *Implementation Plan* (2014), it is imperative at this time to examine how the Framework and related documents affects Aboriginal Advisory Councils, the educational leaders of Tribal Councils, school board administrators and elected

trustees. It is clear that the Framework and policies provide strategies that are based on a holistic and integrated approach to improving Aboriginal student educational outcomes. They aim to raise educators' awareness of Aboriginal students' unique learning styles. They also address the importance of establishing the positive cultural identities of Aboriginal students in the social fabric across school and school board communities in order to foster self-esteem and engagement. Cited throughout the aforementioned documents is the significance of cooperation between school boards and Aboriginal communities and Aboriginal educational leaders to successfully implement education programs and services that support Aboriginal student achievement and well-being in public schools. According to the Framework, school boards will strive to: (a) collaborate with Tribal Councils to review strategies designed to improve Aboriginal student achievement; (b) collaborate with Aboriginal communities and organizations to integrate the Framework in school board systemic planning; (c) build strong connections with local First Nations; and (d) establish Aboriginal Advisory Committees.

There is a need, therefore, for an investigative research project to examine the frequency and measure the impact of school board support and Aboriginal community involvement from the perspective of all the key stakeholders of the respective school boards and communities. Moreover, it may be worthwhile to comprehensively examine and holistically describe the perceptions and experiences of all the stakeholders related to the policy implementation. In this way, there would be systematically collected data about the socio-educational impact associated with the policy Framework and Ontario Ministry of Education (OME) documents in school board and Aboriginal communities to inform policy adjustments aimed at enhancing the impact of the Framework.

By investigating the perceptions and opinions of the remaining key stakeholders that are identified in the OME documents the pivotal areas of convergence between the perceptions of all stakeholders related to the provincial policy will be clear.

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**Replacing the Birth Language for Internationally Adopted
Children: Linguistic and Cognitive Effects**

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Dalen (2002) classified internationally adopted (IA) children as an entirely unique demographic that are significantly different from their non-adopted, English as a first language (L1) peers. Upon the children's arrival to the United States, English, introduced as the adopted second language (L2), typically becomes the replacement for the lost L1 (Glennen, 2002). It is commonly accepted that younger children who were adopted internationally as infants will make the replacement between the two languages more easily than older children due to mastering the age-appropriate linguistic demands prior to starting school (Montrul, 2008). In contrast, because children adopted at older ages typically can speak their L1 upon beginning school in the United States, they face misconceptions of being an additive bilingual when in fact, they are replacing their L1 with English (Baker, 2013) leading to a case of subtractive bilingualism or L1 attrition. The ultimate result is that these children become what De

Geer (1992) has termed as *second-first language learners*. The transition to an English-based curriculum may pose more difficulties for older IA children due to these misconceptions (Baker, 2013) as well as added linguistic challenges including linguistic transfer and interference (Roberts, Pollock, Krakow, Price, & Wang, 2005). Prior care in orphanages has shown to have long-lasting effects on the IA children's cognitive, emotional, and behavioral skills. As studies have shown, these effects could have negative consequences to the overall development of IA children's linguistic acquirement in the L2, English, by severely impeding or prolonging language delays and ultimately hinder the children's educational outcomes. This presentation will provide a comprehensive literature review that describes various cognitive, linguistic, and emotional/behavioral effects caused from international adoptions and replacing the children's birth language with English and the consequences that could arise and impede these children's learning in a typical K12 setting.

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**Strategies for Managing Culturally Diverse Virtual Teams: Creating
a Feeling of Globalness**

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This presentation discusses the many cultural challenges that are faced by members of virtual teams. These challenges have the potential to interfere with effective communication within teams, to prevent sharing of knowledge, and to create conflict among team members. The presentation begins with a definition of culture and a discussion of some well-known approaches to the study of intercultural communication. Although the primary focus of this presentation will be on challenges related to national cultures, it will also include a discussion of organizational culture and functional culture and how they interact with national culture to influence the interactions among members of virtual teams. The presenter will discuss how to prepare students for virtual work as well as how to enhance the functioning of virtual teams in the workplace.

Culture is often defined as the shared values, beliefs, and standards of behavior of a particular group of people. These beliefs and standards

influence the way individuals work together in groups and how they relate to group leaders, how willing they are to share information with members of other cultures, and how they handle deadlines and other work-related obligations. Effective collaboration with diverse others requires a thorough understanding of culture; this understanding must encompass not only national culture, but also corporate and functional culture as well.

The phrase “corporate culture” is often used to describe the shared values, beliefs, and routine patterns of behavior of employees in an organization. The Encyclopedia of Business Terms states that “[c]orporate culture is rooted in an organization's goals, strategies, structure, and approaches to labor, customers, investors, and the greater community. As such, it is an essential component in any business's ultimate success or failure.” Employees in a corporation develop similarities in the way they “cognitively process and evaluate information” (Sims & Lorenzi, 1992). O’Neill et al. (1997) state that these similarities “result in and from a pattern of basic assumptions and norms enhancing individual and organization stability, manifested in shared meanings, communicated by stories, myths and practices.” Therefore, organizational

culture, like national culture, has to do with the shared perceptions of a group of people and with behavioral patterns that are the result of these shared values and norms.

Disciplinary culture can be defined as the shared beliefs and assumptions about the nature of knowledge held by practitioners, scholars, and teachers in various fields of study. Like members of national and corporate cultures, members of disciplinary cultures learn their cultures and express their belonging through various behaviors. Often disciplinary cultures are bound by ethical guidelines, just as national cultures are, and interact very differently with individuals outside their group than they do with those colleagues inside their own group.

In writing about virtual teamwork, O'Hare-Devereaux and Johnsen (1994) noted that national and functional cultures are much stronger than corporate cultures. Certainly, the world view shared by members of the same profession is likely to be more deeply engrained than the patterns of behavior shared by employees in the same organization, particularly in an age when few individuals remain with one employer for the long term. Even when employees' behaviors conform to the routinized practices of

their organization, their belief systems are unlikely to be affected by the culture of the corporation, particularly since the beliefs and values underlying the practices of the company are typically those of the founders or CEOs of the corporation and not the employees (Mintu, 1992).

In global virtual teams, it is quite likely that individuals from different national cultures and various disciplinary backgrounds will find themselves interacting with one another. While a strong corporate culture may contribute to the creation of a cohesive and harmonious team, the key variable for the success of such a team is effective intercultural communication.

Often, the development of trust is impeded by the fact that members of virtual teams have different communication styles. An understanding of the different communication styles across cultures can help prevent ineffective communication that can slow or prevent the development of trust among team members. Differences in verbal communication styles may lead to communication challenges in virtual teams.

Additionally, the reliance on technology in virtual work means that lack of nonverbal communication may also fuel misunderstandings within the team. Members of virtual teams may also have different cultural approaches to relating to leaders, sharing knowledge, and dealing with conflict.

Despite all these complex challenges, there are approaches to virtual work that can be successful and harmonious. Taking a mindful approach to communication with diverse others is very effective and can be applied by anyone, even team members who have little or no knowledge of other cultures. Cultural assessment tools are useful to help team members move toward ethnorelativism; such tools can help individuals begin to view their own culture as one among many rather than as “the center of reality.”

Team leaders can be instrumental in overcoming cultural challenges by helping team members develop “third ways” of working; third ways are approaches to collaborative work that do not privilege any one cultural perspective. Such approaches can be developed once team members have established common ground by focusing on areas of

commonality; ideally, as a result of establishing common ground team members will be able to establish routines of communication and shared processes for performing necessary tasks. Shared perspectives on the team project and on the best means for accomplishing the goals of the team are shared “mental models.”

According to shared reality theory (Hardin & Higgins, 1996), shared mental models are developed and maintained through interpersonal relationships. When team members share both task-related and social communication, they are likely to be willing to also share knowledge and create new ideas (Albrecht & Ropp, 1984). When team members have shared mental models, they will perform more harmoniously and effectively. Those teams that can move beyond cultural differences to establish a team identity and a feeling of “globalness” that bonds them together as an in-group are much more likely to succeed in virtual work.

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**Neoliberalism and Privatization of Urban Health Care Facilities in
Bangladesh**

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Neoliberalism is a term of big controversy in terms of both its definition and its implication through economic policies in the last few decades. Neoliberalism is accompanied by several terms such as privatization, free economy, free trade, commodification and so on. Introduction of neoliberal policies in the economy of any country requires the privatization of national possessions, removal of trade barriers for facilitating foreign and domestic investments, commodification of welfare expenditures, capital accumulation by individual entrepreneurs, reduction of state intervention and so forth. Neoliberalism has entered the arena of Bangladesh economy as well since the 1980s and we can now see the penetration of neoliberalism in all sectors of Bangladesh including health sector. The aim of the study is to analyze the extent to which neoliberalism has affected the health care services in Bangladesh and how it has led to the changing consumption pattern of health care facilities by the patients.

This is a cross-sectional study, which was conducted on the patients of both public and private hospitals of Dhaka city. This study includes 95 participants (both males and females, and girls) selected through random sampling procedure. Mixed methodology was used for the whole study where data collection techniques include survey (face-to-face interview), direct observation and case study. The findings of the study supported the hypotheses regarding the changing consumption pattern of respondents due to the presence of a large number of private health care centers. The study also made an attempt to discuss the process of neoliberalism and the privatization trend in health sector, in the light of the theory of David Harvey.

Engaging Students through the Dynamic Learning Approach

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“Engaging Students through the Dynamic Learning Approach” presentation reasons the need of the dynamic learning approach (DLA) as an effective environment while teaching in class or online. DLA offers a student-centered setting as an alternative to teacher-controlled and pre-designed instructional systems. It also outlines what might be the most successful way to store knowledge in students’ minds through developing critical thinking and new skills of gathering information. Teachers who adopt the dynamic learning approach are usually concerned about sharing the responsibility of the educational process between the teacher and the student. The presentation proposes some techniques teachers and educators can use to engage students in the learning process. Between teaching and learning, educators and students must communicate out-of-the-box ideas which evolve creativity and innovation in sharing of new knowledge, generating flexible learning activities, and creating new classroom environment.

**Role of Cultural Diplomacy in Strengthening Diplomatic
Relations: A Case Study on U.S.-Bangladesh Relations**

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Culture is shared by people of the same ethnicity, language, nationality, or religion. It's a system of rules that are the base of what we are and affect how we express ourselves as part of a group and as individuals. Culture is regarded as a powerful instrument to pursue national interest in an unobtrusive, intelligent, convincing and cost-effective manner. Hence, cultural diplomacy provides an important ground to achieve national interests through understanding each other nations. Also it is an integral part of the international cultural understanding which is a key goal of public diplomatic strategy in the modern age. Thus, in an increasingly globalized world, cultural diplomacy is critical to fostering international peace and stability.

Cultural diplomacy refers to the diffusion of thoughts, ideas, values and information on art, lifestyle, traditions and other aspects of

culture of peoples of one country to other countries. Sometimes it is called as ‘soft power’ as contrast from ‘hard power’ or military power. Cultural diplomacy focuses on the ways in which a country communicates with citizens of other countries through social or cultural activities. It also runs an exchange program among academics, scientists, businesses, artists, musicians, singers, painters and reputed cultural persons between two countries. This type of diplomacy can be practiced by the public sector, private sector or civil society.

Over the last few decades, the U.S.-Bangladesh diplomatic relations is marked by the mutual cooperation despite few backdrops. Although the U.S. opposed the independence of Bangladesh during the liberation war in 1971, soon after the war, both countries become strong partner in almost all spheres of relations including political, economic, strategic, and cultural exchange. For instance, some U.S. companies are the biggest foreign direct investors in Bangladesh, and likewise the U.S. is the single largest market for Bangladeshi readymade garments industry. Moreover, both countries’ armed forces maintain long-standing cooperation in the

areas of defense, counter-terrorism, maritime security and disaster management.

Cultural diplomacy between the U.S. and Bangladesh has been promoted rapidly since the quick spread of globalization. The forces of globalization introduce the Bangladeshi people with the American culture such as values, political thoughts, education, dress, foods, music, movies etc. Particularly, the U.S. Government is advancing initiatives to achieve its national interest in Bangladesh through the exchange of these cultural affairs. The American Center, for instance, seeks to uphold mutual understanding between the two countries and to provide free and open access to information about the U.S. to Bangladeshis. The center is playing crucial role for youth people of Bangladesh to learn about opportunities and policies offered by the U.S. Government for the Bangladeshi people. Also, it arranges programs of diverse categories to make people informed about those opportunities. Different projects and activities are carried out by the American cultural centers to facilitate the growth of engagement of country's youth with their goals and activities. It has grabbed the fascination of young population in Bangladesh because

they find the activities of the center highly fruitful for their skill development and knowledge gathering.

The U.S. Embassy Dhaka further established EMK (Edward Moore Kennedy) Center through partnership with the Liberation War Museum in 2012. This non-partisan platform is committed to open dialogue, informed action, individual and artistic expression, and personal and professional development. As part of its functions, EMK Center frequently organize educational and cultural programs in collaboration with the U.S. Embassy and relevant national organizations that helps to build positive image of the U.S. to the young generation of Bangladesh. In particular, survey found that about 70% young people of Bangladesh have a positive image about the U.S. and most of the students choose the U.S. as their first priority for higher education and future living destination. In this case, educational opportunities especially Fulbright Scholarship, Study of the U.S. Institutes (SUSI), and Secondary School Educators etc. highly encourage the Bangladeshi students to pursue their higher academic degree from the U.S. In addition, American movies, music, dress, foods

and lifestyle are increasingly popular in Bangladesh through the efforts of American cultural centers in the country.

The above cultural diplomacy strengthens the diplomatic relations between the U.S. and Bangladesh more rigorously. As public diplomacy makes people more engaged with the culture of the U.S. in the country, it creates mutual understanding and cooperation between the both governments. For example, both countries emphasize on a strong friendly relation in their foreign policy. As result, the U.S. is currently more concerned about the internal affairs of Bangladesh. Moreover, it provides considerable aid to Bangladesh to reduce several national crises including poverty reduction, education, ensuring human rights etc.

The paper proposes an approach of cultural diplomacy for strengthening diplomatic relations, and examines the approach by analyzing the U.S.-Bangladesh relations. It argues that cultural diplomacy plays an important role in building strong diplomatic relations between two countries, and the age of globalization offers convenient opportunities to promote cultural diplomacy worldwide. In justifying the argument, the paper will examine the U.S. efforts of building cultural exchange in

Bangladesh, and its impact on the bilateral relations between the two countries. In testing these hypotheses, the paper will be conducted on the basis of both primary and secondary data.

**Just Eat It: An Examination of the Sociological Factors that
Influence the Eating Habits of College Students**

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The characterization of an individual's eating habits foods considered is based on the choice or availability of food. This study will examine how three factors: - gender, living arrangements, convenience, and health may influence the eating habits of college students.

Eating habits are defined as the way an individual eats. Eating habits are rooted in an individual's particular society through various influencing factors. The characterization of an individual's eating habits foods considered is based on the choice or availability of food. This study will examine how three factors: - gender, living arrangements, convenience, and health may influence the eating habits of college students.

Gender refers to the masculine and feminine culture. Women are expected to consume fewer calories than men not only because they want to appear more feminine, but also a thin body image is expected (Jensen and Holm, 1999). A study conducted by LaCaille et al. (2011), male

college students cited eating unhealthy foods for the purpose of gaining weight, even though they were interested in adding muscle mass through either working out or lifting weights.

Living Arrangements refers to on-campus housing and off-campus housing. Brunt and Rhee (2008) found that off-campus students, who live either alone or with roommates were more likely to be overweight/obese than those who lived on-campus or with family.

Convenience is defined as foods that are easily available, low cost, easy to prepare and require little time (Rappoport et. al. 1992). Nelson et al. (2009) concluded that students generally did not have access to a full kitchen in their residence halls, but they frequently used microwaves in their rooms to prepare convenience food items, e.g., Ramen noodles, and microwaveable pasta macaroni.

Gatekeeping theory explains how gender, living arrangements, and convenience influence the eating habits of college students. Gatekeeping theory was developed by social psychologist Kurt Lewin. The premise of the theory is that the gatekeeper controls the food that reaches the table through various channels. Gatekeeping theory looks at identifying the

individual college student in this context as the current gatekeeper who is in charge of their eating habits. College students may have lost their previous gatekeeper, who is often a parent. People learn their gendered eating habits from their social environment and significant others especially the gatekeeper with whom they interact in society.

Hypothesis 1 states that gender may have an influence on the eating habit of college students. Hypothesis 2 states that living arrangements may have an influence the eating habits of college students. Hypothesis 3 states that convenience may have an influence on the eating habits of college students.

The survey measures how gender, living arrangements, and convenience may influence eating behavior of college students using a set of survey questions that provide quantitative data. The study consists of a random convenience sample. UCF students (18-25 years of age) were emailed a link to an online survey questionnaire. The survey questionnaire was administered and then collected through the online surveying system Qualtrics. The participation in the survey was voluntary and anonymous. The data was analyzed in SPSS. The sample size consists of 445 students

at the University of Central Florida. The population that I am trying to generalize my research study is the population of undergraduate and graduate students at the University of Central Florida between the ages of 18-25 years old.

The study supported 1 out of 3 hypotheses. Convenience was the only significant independent variable that has an influence on eating habits with a $p < .001$. Gender and living arrangements were found to be not significant independent variables. On a date, 49.8% of college students ate the same amount of food they usually do. In mixed gender groups, 69.8% of college students ate the same amount of food they usually do. In same gender groups, 64.3% of college students ate the same amount of food they usually do. 44.2% of college students rarely eat out at restaurants. On average, 30.4% of college students sometimes eat prepackaged or frozen foods. On average, 39.4% of college students often ate snacks. Results indicated that 50.4% of college students perceive their eating habits as average. The strengths of the study are first, the analysis of the data is based on a sample size of 228 students randomly selected which exceeded my original goal of obtaining a sample size of 200

students. Second, the study focuses on what people eat and how they make decisions about their food consumption rather than why they eat.

The limitations of the study are that my sample size is based on one university not multiple universities and the data are self-reported by the participants. The present study examined what kinds of foods college students eat and how they make decisions regarding food consumption. There is a trend changing from the traditional gatekeeping patterns of the past where cooking and homemade meals were prevalent to the contemporary gatekeeping patterns where eating out and fast food purchasing is increasing. Specifically, American college students are eating out and purchasing more fast and prepared foods than ever before. In my theoretical orientation section, gatekeeping theory was the premise for my study and the findings support gatekeeping theory. I would like to see more future research on examining further how childhood has an impact on the eating habits of college students.

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Why We Should be Skeptical of Bandura's Bobo Dolls

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With the events that have been unfolding due to the decisions in the Zimmerman case and the case of Officer Wilson, many reporters and legal experts have begun to debate the root of aggression. We are once again presented with an interesting question: is aggression learned or innate? In this instance many people refer to the Bobo Doll Experiment conducted by Albert Bandura in 1961, and the subsequent replications that support his findings that aggression is learned from observing models. Individuals, on both sides, are using the findings from this study in order to demonstrate that African American children or Caucasian children who are exposed to aggression in the home are more likely to imitate that aggression somewhere else. Overall, many individuals are subscribing to Bandura's Social Learning Theory when analyzing these cases, without challenging this theory and simply accepting it as scientific law.

With all these new allegations being made, it is important to look at the generalizability of the findings in order to decide whether this study

is truly generalizable and ultimately valid. One major area of concern in using this study arises from the fact that the sample pool of participants was very limited. This phenomenon is typically referred to as selection bias. What we mean by this is that the only participants observed were individuals from the nursery at Stanford University in the 1960's. This leads us to conclude that these individuals were of similar socioeconomic background, age and race. Other areas of concern arise from the fact that demand characteristics may have played a large role in the results of the study. As scientist we have to tread carefully when it comes to experimental findings, it is our job to question these results and as journalists it is their job to verify that their information is valid and applicable before they tie their names and professional titles to those results. In the subsequent paragraphs I will provide some background to the methods, procedures and results from the Bobo Doll study, as well as a more in-depth view of my critique of this famous study with suggestions for future studies.

The famous Bobo Doll experiment was conducted in order to explore the connection between social learning and aggression. Until this

point, people subscribed to the Freudian view that aggression was due to turmoil that existed in the unconscious mind. Psychologist that treated aggression often used methods that allowed the individual to express those repressed thoughts and ultimately experience catharsis .The idea was to allow the individual to use catharsis as a gateway to release the aggression drive and thus reduce aggressive behavior (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2003).

At this point Bandura felt ready to challenge the pre-established theory and embarked on a scientific journey with the help of Dorrie and Sheila Ross. Bandura set out to prove that there was a connection between social learning and aggression. He believed that individuals learn by imitating models and thus aggression, just like any other behavior, could be learned by imitation. For his Bobo Doll experiment in 1961, this experiment would be one of many variations; he selected 36 boys and 36 girls that were currently enrolled in the Stanford University Nursery. These children ranged in ages from 37 months of age to 69 months of age with the average age being around 52 months. The children were then organized into one of five groups, which included a control group. Forty-eight children would be placed in the experimental group and twenty-four

would be placed in the control group. Of the 48 that were placed in the experimental group, half would be exposed to the aggressive model and the other half would be exposed to the non-aggressive model. Finally, the experimental group observing the aggressive model, was divided even further to expose half of the children to a same sex model and half of the children to an opposite sex model (Bandura et al., 1961).

For the experiment children in the aggressive model group were led into a room that contained highly appealing toys on one side and aggressive toys on the other side where the adult was located. The child was then instructed to only play with his/her toys and avoid the other toys. After a minute of play the adult would engage the Bobo doll with physical and verbal aggressive play patterns. After the time was completed, the experimenter would take the child to a different room filled with enticing toys and allows them to play freely. After a two minute mark the experimenter would prohibit the child from playing with these toys, but would explain that the child could play with toys in another room (aggressive and non-aggressive toys are present) for a period of twenty minutes. This tactic was used in order to cause frustration levels to rise in

the child. During the next twenty minutes, the experimenters observed how the child interacted with the Bobo doll. They recorded all physical as well as verbal aggression that occurred during the play session (Bandura et al., 1961).

In short, the results revealed that children exposed to the aggressive model were more likely to exhibit and imitate physical and verbal aggression towards the Bobo doll. The data also supported Bandura's prediction that children's behavior tends to be more heavily influenced by models of the same sex rather than models of the opposite sex. Finally, the data also supports the idea that males tend to be more aggressive than females, which is evidenced by the total tallies of 270 aggressive instances for males compared to 128 aggressive instances for females (Hock, 2009).

These results can be interpreted in many ways, but Bandura used these findings to combat Freud and the strict behaviorist of his time. With this study and the subsequent variations he performed, he found data to develop and support his social learning theory. This data allowed him to explore the principles of observational learning and social modeling and

how they may interact with motivation. With this he concluded that individuals could learn with no need for reinforcement (punishment or reward). (Skinner, 1938) If his theory was correct then this meant that people were capable of learning at a much quicker pace than was predicted by the established behaviorists of the time (Bandura 1989).

When wondering why would anyone critique the Bandura Bobo Doll study? There is a very simple answer: because we can and we should. We have all been taught about the famous Bobo doll study, and we may have used it as a reference for a different assignment before, but have you ever taken the time to question the great Albert Bandura? Yes, it is true that his study has been renowned as one of the most influential studies in psychology and that we will continue to use it as a guiding point when we discuss the root of aggression, but it is important to address some key flaws that have an impact on the generalizability and validity of the results.

If we take a moment to go back and listen to the reporters and experts that continue to debate the root of aggression one thing becomes clear, there are very few studies cited (if any at all) that have vastly

generalizable results. This is true in the case of the Bobo doll studies. The individuals that participated in the studies were all from the Stanford University nursery in the 1960's. Like it was previously mentioned, this led to a narrow sample pool of individuals who shared the same socioeconomic background, and race. This blatant example of selection bias gave us a group of individuals that were predominately white and that belonged to the upper-middle class. During this time period we also need to take into account all the racial biases that still existed and how that affected the racial variety at a prestigious institution such as Stanford University (Hart, 2006). We also need to address limited characteristics that were available for a model. The individual personality characteristics and physical characteristics could have had an impact on how much that individual child related to the model and thus subsequently imitated the model. In an effort to be fair, this was addressed in the discussion area of Bandura's published study

Moreover, the findings from an earlier study (Bandura & Huston, 1961), in which children imitated to an equal degree aggression exhibited by a nurturant and a nonnurturant model, together with the results [p. 582]

of the present experiment in which subjects readily imitated aggressive models who were more or less neutral figures suggest that mere observation of aggression, regardless of the quality of the model-subject relationship, is a sufficient condition for producing imitative aggression in children. A comparative study of the subjects' imitation of aggressive models who are feared, who are liked and esteemed, or who are essentially neutral figures would throw some light on whether or not a more parsimonious theory than the one involved in "identification with the aggressor" can explain the modeling process.

Even though the issue was addressed, we still need to be careful when generalizing the findings of this study. What we need to keep in mind is that not only does this flaw threaten the internal validity of the study, but also it makes it very difficult to generalize those results outside of the laboratory (Bandura et al., 1961).

Another major issue with this study stems from the possibility that demand characteristics may have affected the interpretation of the results. At the beginning of the study the child is shown a model that is engaging in either a non-aggressive play session or an aggressive play session. In

this situation that child might interpret the model as a set of instructions and may be motivated to follow the instructions. In an effort to please the adult and/or the experimenter the child would imitate the behaviors that s/he observed from the model. If this is the case then the study is not looking at aggression but instead it is studying the effects of motivation on following the instructions presented by the model (Gauntlett 2005; Ferguson 2010). Even though this may not have been the case for every child, we cannot be certain that this variable had no effect on the results, and thus the confound has an effect on the generalizability of the results and must be addressed in future replications of the study.

After carefully looking at the results and reading the literature surrounding this study, I am sure that a study like the Bobo Doll study should not be accepted as scientific law. Even though this study was revolutionary and it continues to be included in all psychology textbooks, we must be careful of how we interpret and apply the findings to the general population. Aggression has been a hot topic in modern times and it has been discussed in instances such as: increasing violence in television and video games, mass shootings at schools, abuse of police authority and

the effects of adverse childhood experiences among other things. As much as we would like to point fingers and say that Bandura was right, there are many key areas that affect the way in which someone could interpret the data. My recommendation is for future studies to address aggression in terms of the bio-psych-social approach and to make these studies more inclusive of modern characteristics that can exacerbate displays of aggression.

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**Opportunity Costs of Planning with Mandated Assessments: A
Case Study of Fourth Grade Social Studies**

Rebecca Reed

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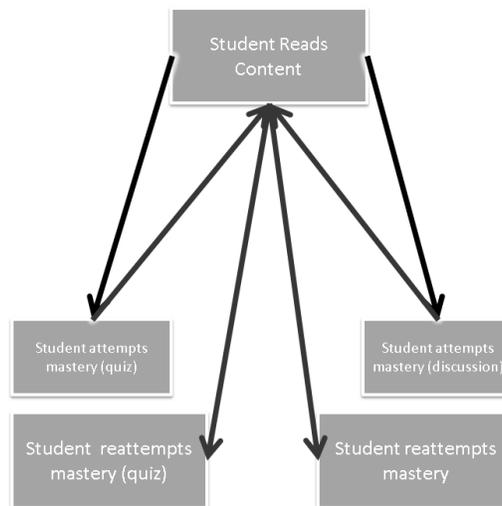
This single case study contributes to research on mandated state assessments in social studies. The State of Delaware has assessed state social studies standards since 2000. The results from the assessment remain relatively flat, in spite of the publication of results for each school in local newspapers. Currently there is no accountability associated with the assessment. The researcher presents data from interviews and observations of a fourth grade teacher of a struggling school whose students score above average, not only for similar demographically defined schools, but for all schools. This study provides insight into how a fourth grade teacher maintains her reputation as an exemplary teacher while prioritizing, modifying, and balancing the recommended curriculum under narrow time constraints. The researcher draws conclusions from the findings and provides recommendations for future study.

**RCA Intervention: An Intervention System for Traditional, Blended,
and Online Courses**

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Remediation



Above: Remediation in our learning system

We disagreed then, and we still disagree to this day when the topic of *remediation* is brought up as a strategy to help learners succeed. You see, the buzzword “remediation” is defined, by Dictionary.com, as “the

correction of something bad or defective.” We saw this definition, and as educators with administrative backgrounds, and sort of cringed. When we saw that word defective in the definition we knew that we, morally, couldn’t call a learner or their efforts defective. In fact, insinuating that something is defective typically would denote a replacement was in order. We began to wonder why a total replacement of knowledge would be needed when some patchwork would get the learner on their way; we then worked to develop a unique patchkit to meet the diverse needs of a large student population.

- **Remediation**
 - The correction of something bad or defective
 - You throw stuff out that is defective – why throw out knowledge?
 - Wanted to do something that kept the learner in the game.
- **Intervention (intervene)**
 - To occur or be between two things

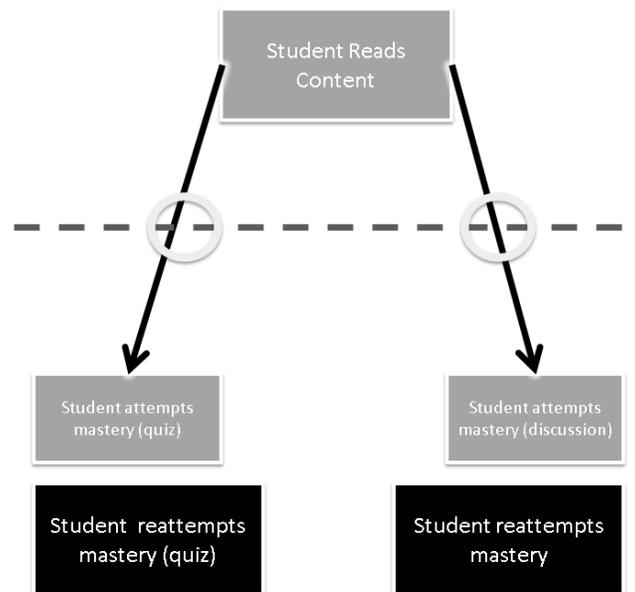
Above: Remediation v. Intervention

Remediation was instituted as a *best practice* within our learning institution. However, we disagreed with this *best practice*. When learners went through the outlined remediation process they were to do so on their own; we saw where self-reliance got them in the first place and knew there

had to be a better way. Between wanting to offer guided instruction to the learner, we asked ourselves why the learner had to wait until after the point of failure to learn about their issues with content mastery and adoption. As educators, instructional designers, and techies, we knew that the current practice of *remediation* was not a best practice, but a severely flawed one.

When it came to creating an intervention system for our learners, we determined that the initially self-adopted knowledge the learner possessed before the demonstration of conversational mastery may have been flawed, but was not worth totally discarding. Negating the efforts of the learner was, also, not a road we wanted to travel down. As educators, we want the learner to be self-sufficient in their quest for knowledge, and we want our role to be that of one in which we can support and nurture the growth of confidence and content knowledge, all at the same time.

Interventions

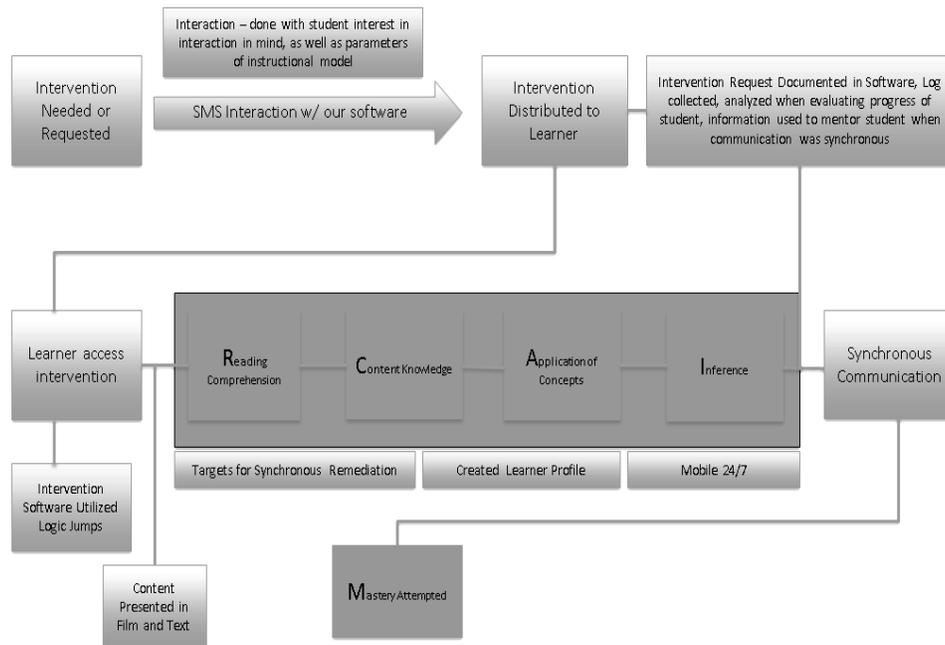


Above: Points of Intervention

To us, *remediation* was a crutch; we didn't want the learner to think that it was okay to fail only so that they could *remediate* to move forward. We wanted our learners to stand on their own two feet and grow confidence through social studies. To do this, we had to buck the system and develop a worthwhile process that would facilitate confidence and success. Settling on a process in which we could bridge the knowledge gap between the learners' recently acquired information and what was

truth was an easy decision to make; deciding where to complete this process, how to orchestrate it, and make it valuable to the learner was the hard part.

We knew that the best way to facilitate success in the learner's demonstration of mastery was to intervene beforehand to take an inventory of the learner's knowledge, or *knowledge inventory*. Identifying what the learner knew and didn't know was going to be essential in targeting a personalized approach to facilitating opportunities for the learner to build content knowledge and confidence in demonstrating conversational mastery. A system of interventions that supported students around the clock was decided upon, and the Reynolds Cummings Asynchronous Intervention was born.

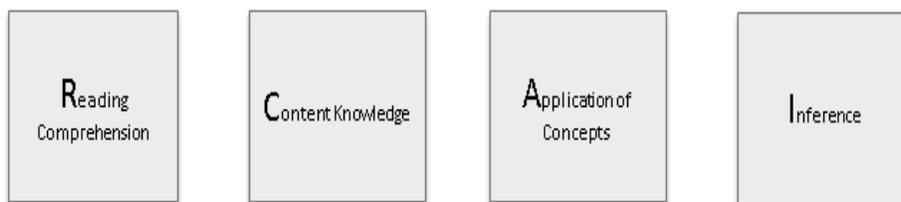


Above: The RCAI System for Aynchronous Interventions

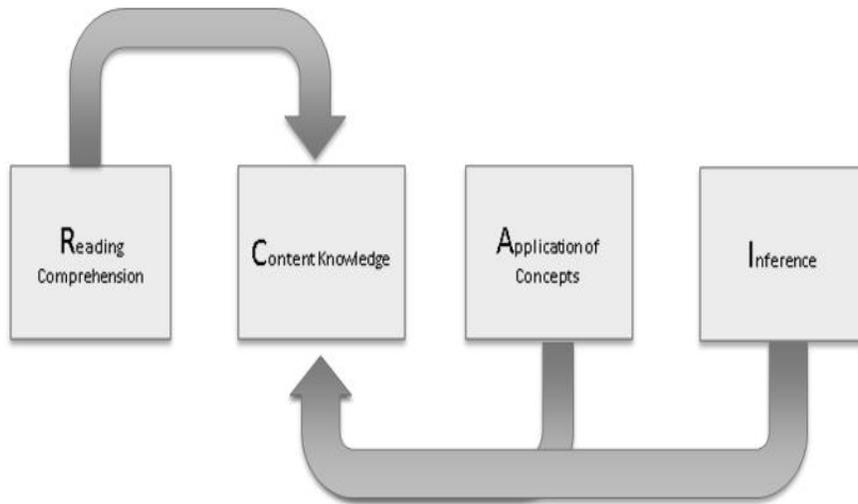
Interventions were offered to learners 24/7 through SMS. Through the use of knowledge inventories, we would guide and facilitate the growth of knowledge, scaffolding, and confidence in the learner’s ability to succeed in demonstrating conversational mastery. The learner would go through our system to understand where their inventory resided, where they had knowledge in surplus, where they had no knowledge supply, and where their supply was running consistent with demand. By the time the learner

had completed a knowledge inventory they understood the majority of what was expected of them; they were ready to take stock of their knowledge and demonstrate conversational mastery with us.

Removing *remediation* from our practices was an easy choice; were we really going to let the learner go off on their own without guidance to correct their knowledge? In a system of *remediation* they would have done just that; they needed guidance from their teacher. This guidance came from our creation of intervention content that facilitated the growth of skills in the learner, such as reading comprehension (**R**), analytical abilities (**A**), and inference (**I**), all of which were needed to demonstrate content knowledge (**C**).



Above: RCAI Variables (Impact Conversational Knowledge)



Above: Content Knowledge Demonstrate thru Conversational Mastery, a Result of CAI.

During our use of an asynchronous system that delivered learning interventions to Government students, we saw substantial learning gains, and noticed a remarkable desire for mobile learning. At this present moment we have applied our concept of RCAI (Reynolds Cummings Asynchronous Interventions) to a traditional classroom and a blended learning environment in Clarke County, Nevada. We believe the future of RCAI is within the blended learning environment, acting as the

complementary technological component that will assist teachers in facilitating success in learners, as demonstrated through conversational mastery.

**Millennials at the Ballot Box: Where Have All the Young Voters
Gone?**

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Fresh off the 2014 midterm elections American voters decided to handover full control of the U.S. Congress to the Republican Party. However, just 36 percent of people showed up to cast a vote at the polls nationwide. This is no surprise since voter turnout in the United States averages just below forty percent during midterm election years but what is most alarming is the voter turnout among young Americans. Of all the voting age groups in the U.S., the millennials, young people ages 18-29, are much less likely to participate in national elections than any other group. There are various factors that contribute to this lower voter turnout among America's youth but perhaps the most common explanations include: registration requirements, learning about political issues, negative ads, frequency of elections, apathy and alienation, and lack of civic duty (Patterson, 169).

Voting registration requirements add a layer of difficulty to voting for younger people. Even though policies such as the Motor Voter Act in

1993 made it easier for young people to register to vote when applying for a driver's license, it still did not address the requirement of having to re-register when one changes locations or addresses. Whether it's off to college or moving into a new apartment after landing a job, young people are more mobile and tend to move more frequently than others. For younger people, this is an added burden to voting and likely results in lower participation (Patterson, 170-71).

Knowing a candidate's backgrounds and learning about the political issues on the ballot can be overwhelming to new voters, especially when a host of new candidates, issues and ambiguously worded state constitutional amendments are included. To find reliable voting information about candidates and issues takes time and effort and this sometimes falls short on the "to-do" list for young voters. In addition, the rush of negative ads on the air waves during election season can be a turnoff to new voters and can likely give a perception that politics is just merely a smear campaign between candidates they have little in common in with. This may reinforce an often misleading "new voter" perception

that politics is “a dirty, distance spectator sport, whose players don’t seem interested in their ideas or their issues” (We the people, 270).

Another factor that can overwhelm new voters is the frequency of elections. The United States holds more elections than other democracy. No other country holds national elections every two years and elects or reelects its president as often as every four years as in the United States. In addition, local governments often hold elections during the years when national elections are not held, making voting an annual event for many participants. Overall, the American people are asked to vote two to three times more than participates in other democracies and this frequency of voting can dampen the excitement, lead to less media coverage and decrease the likelihood of returning participates (Patterson, 174).

Other times, young people show little interest in voting simply because of apathy, which is generally defined as a lack of interest in politics. Since politics can be perceived as being negative and dirty, and can be exceptionally controversial on many topics, many new voters often lose interest in the political process. Other voters may believe their votes do not make a difference and feel alienated from the government and

politics all together. This lack of interest and feeling of personal powerlessness often lowers the turnout among young voters. Based on a survey of over seventy college students at the State College of Florida, apathy was the most common reason cited for low voter turnout among young voters aged 18-29. Other notable reasons for low voter turnout cited from the survey include voter lack of education, inconvenience of voting and alienation (Rogers, Survey).

Perhaps the best way to increase voter participation is to cater to our nation's young voters and insert more technology in the voting process. Online registration and voting, for example, would likely increase participation in voters aged 18-29 since many of their daily activities are already conducted via social media and the internet. It would certainly make voting more convenient. Additionally, extending deadlines for registration would likely include additional young voters in the voting process since they would have more time to register. A voting mandate, similar to those in Western Europe or Australia for example, would likely increase voter turnout by requiring all citizens to vote as part of their civic

duty. If paying taxes, jury duty and military service are a required part of civic duty then voting could be added to this list as well (Orszag, 2012).

Being that only 13 percent of young people voted in the 2014 midterm election, and the fact that voter turnout among America's millennials averages far below that of other groups, it is reasonable to conclude that a majority of young voters do not regard voting as part of their civic duty. The importance of citizenship and the significance of voting should be repeatedly emphasized to America's young voters or many will continue to believe that civic and political participation is not a responsibility of citizenship (Patterson, 176). In addition to underlining the importance of voter education, education in general should be emphasized as a tool that can also raise voter turnout levels since the more education a person has, the more likely it is that he or she will turn out to vote. Education, in turn, leads to an increase in overall wealth for graduates, which is another factor that increases the likelihood that a person will participate in the political process (Sidlow, 191). Since there are an estimated 80 million millennials eligible for political participation in the United States, these measures should be accentuated and employed in

order to increase voter turnout among this generation and for generations to come (Safer, Time).

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Impacts of Socio-Economic Background on Participation in Various Sport Types

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The purpose of this study was to investigate effects of socio-economic background on participation in various sport types and sport perception. Datas in this study were gained by making source research and getting surveys of the people who have different socio-economic backgrounds. Survey sheets were prepared in terms of concept and format considering all cases and details of question preparation and survey techniques. In this study likes and preferences of the people in different socio-economic status and their point of views on sport were evaluated. As a result of the datas gained in the research it was understood that there were several perceptual and applicational differences of sports in social classes and socio-economic backgrounds determine the form of the sport that they participate in.

**Using Film to teach Character Education and Social Justice
Education in Social Studies**

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University of Central Florida

Today's teachers have access to multiple methods that utilize media and technology in the classroom, and one of the most powerful tools is film. Using film to teach character education and social justice issues, supports democratic and citizenship education, by engaging and connecting students to lessons that develop informed decision-making skills. Many teachers shy away from teaching social issues because of the controversial nature of the topics, even though teaching social issues is considered a best practice (Russell, 2009, Waters & Russell, 2010).

Combining the teaching of social issues with the media literacy skill of teaching with film, two known best practices, the lessons will connect with this generation of students in a meaningful and engaging way. Teaching with film can convey feelings and conditions of a time or place (Toplin, 2010) It has become an accepted pedagogy and a powerful

way for students to construct meaning and connect with the content (Russell, 2012). Many teachers today use film in the classroom to connect students to social studies topics. Film stimulates the senses and emotions (Russell, 2007,2012). Using film to teach social issues in the secondary setting, would address content standards, literacy standards, and 21st century media literacy standards. Marcus and Stoddard noted that teachers can use several modes for instruction with film and video (Marcus & Stoddard, 2007). Film can be used in clips, as a spring board for discussions, in its entirety as a virtual textbook, as an analogy, as a depicter of a time period, or as a historiography. Using the teaching techniques outlined by the *Russel Model for Using Film* (Russell, 2012) to teachers can utilize film in approved methods and meet instructional goals, objectives and standards, while maintaining school district and state requirements.

Film is a powerful teaching tool that allows teachers to engage students in meaningful ways with multiple modalities while meeting both content and literacy standards. Students benefit from studying social issues by learning about relevant problems from the past and present,

recognizing multiple perspectives as a part of discourse, to critically analyzing evidence, learning how to make evidence-based arguments, how to make informed decisions, and learning the value of compromise in the democratic process. When evaluating these events students will also begin to critically analyze the situations and roles people play in them. Character education in conjunction with social justice lessons can help promote civic competence by teaching students to make informed reasoned decisions (Waters & Russell, 2011).

While some scholars do not agree on the role of character education in the democratic education process (Santora, 2009) , the Character Counts program has thrived in elementary schools. This is a widely recognized and respected curriculum, in large part due to its impartiality. Based on “The Six Pillars” (or themes), it is not meant to be political, religious or culturally biased, but rather one that is based on common ethics (The Six Pillars of Character(SPC),2007). The six pillars are: Trustworthiness, Respect, Responsibility, Fairness, Caring, and Citizenship. Students are taught about the Pillars through identifying traits (Table 1).

Table 1: The “Six Pillars of Character”

<i>Theme</i>	<i>Traits</i>
Trustworthiness	Integrity, Honesty, Reliability and Loyalty
Respect	Golden Rule, Tolerance and Acceptance, Nonviolence, and Courtesy
Responsibility	Duty, Accountability, Pursue Excellence, and Self-Control
Fairness	Justice and Openness
Caring	Concern for others and Charity
Citizenship	Do your Share and Respect for Authority and the Law

(SPC,2007)

Many primary schools across the United States participate in this program and have students draw pictures, create banners, vote for classmates that exemplify the traits of these pillars. If we can teach these ideals to students in elementary school, and see nothing wrong with this, then why do we not bring the same values to classroom discussions in the secondary

setting curriculum? Using character values to evaluate civic responsibility and accountability in the secondary classroom will meet multiple discipline standards. The civics discipline concepts or tools students learn to use include knowledge of civic and political institutions, applying civic virtues and democratic principles, and knowledge of processes, rules, and laws (NCSS 2014). Social justice issues by their very nature can be addressed in these areas. The second area specifically looks at the character and motives of the people involved. Discipline standards address the other areas. Using film to engage and enrich lessons, builds discipline skills for both content literacy and discipline literacy, while teaching about the democratic citizenship. Lessons about social justice topics can be layered with inquiry activities, to explore these issues using discipline tools, such as analyzing *Processes, Rules, and Laws* in our justice system, or identifying the roles of *Civic and Political Institutions*.

Applying the pillars to the secondary social studies setting seems natural when this is where we teach about societies and the cultural interactions of people through courses like civics, economics, geography, history, and psychology, to name the most common. Taking the themes

(pillars) and looking at the traits in each of them, connections can be made within the content areas to current events. Social issues naturally fall into the themes when we consider how people handle or resolve problems in society.

Elementary Schools are where students first learn about democracy and citizenship. Students are taught about being a “good neighbor” to their classmates. They can volunteer for class activities. They may have an assigned chore to do like “line leader” or participate in other class projects and work together as a group. Sometimes the class writes their own rules and even votes on things that happen in their classroom. The climate all depends on the teacher, and these are all social studies methods. Character Counts is really the introduction of social issues for elementary students, where teachers can talk about relevant events to students like honesty, loyalty, bullying, hurt feelings, tolerance for someone who is different, maybe stealing, trustworthiness, and reliability. It makes sense to continue with social issues in the secondary education curriculum.

Film list:

Classic Hollywood

- *Mr. Deeds goes to Town* (1936)
- *Mr. Smith goes to Washington* (1939)
- *Inherit the Wind* (1960)
- *Guess Who's Coming to Dinner* (1967)

Legal social Justice

- *To Kill a Mockingbird* (1962)
- *Witness* (1985)
- *A Few Good Men* (1992)
- *The Pelican Brief* (1993)
- *A Time to Kill* (1996)

○ Health Care

- *Philadelphia* (1993)
- *John Q* (2002)

○ Food

- *Food Inc.* (2008)
- *Fresh* (2009)
- *Scarecrow* (2013) animated short film

○ Water (Environmental)

- *A Civil Action* (1998)
- *Erin Brockovich* (2000)
- *Semper Fi: Always Faithful* (2011)
- *My Toxic Backyard* (2014)

○ Oil

- *Crude* (2009)
- *Gasland* (2010)

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Creating lessons with the C3 Framework and Digital Literacy

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The Standards Based Education Reform (SBER) movement that has taken place since the 1983 Committee on Excellence, has brought about current high stakes testing (Vincent, Ross, & Wilson, 2011). From No Child Left Behind, to Race to the Top and Common Core, many state education departments have revised and adopted tougher content literacy standards such as those written by the **National Governors Association Center for Best Practices** (Herzog, 2010; NGACBP, 2010).

Literacy experts identify the skills needed for reading, writing, and thinking within a specific discipline as discipline literacy (Shanahan & Shanahan 2008). Teachers use these discipline literacy skills to meet content standards (Moje, 2008; Shanahan & Shanahan 2008). Research in the field supports social studies teachers using multiple literacy standards within the content area of social studies. Best practices for teaching

literacy in the social studies content area cross over multiple categories; basic literacy (also called traditional literacy), digital literacy, discipline literacy, and media literacy (Hobbs & Frost, 2003; Moje, 2008; NCSS, 2009, Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008; Stripling, 2010).

The current definitions of literacy have been expanded to the cultural proliferation of media and the expectation that students are able to navigate between discourse and media resources (Hobbs & Frost, 2003). Digital literacy is viewed as a set of needed skills that students must develop in order to be successful in current and future classrooms and careers.

Social studies teachers are taught about general literacy, discipline literacy (Moje, 2008; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008) media literacy (NCSS, 2009), and digital literacy (Stripling, 2010; Waring, 2013) requirements for the social studies classroom in their preservice program. They must learn to create lesson plans that will incorporate these literacy pedagogies with curriculum materials (text books, maps, charts, graphs), media resources (library, internet, journals, newspapers), current events resources (television, radio broadcasts, and public speakers), and discourse (debates,

discussions, etc.) in order to teach students to become active informed citizens (NCSS, 2014). Preservice teachers will exhibit more confidence with these skills towards the end of the program than the beginning. It is important for teachers to know the literacies they are expected to meet.

While social studies subject areas have not been a featured player in the SBER melee, social studies standards have been revised and social studies now has high stakes testing in many states.

The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) has introduced of the College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework as a new curriculum theory design that presents a framework for facilitating Common Core standards from English Language Arts and literacy, with current state standards for the content area, and engaging community activities (Herzog, 2013; NCSS, 2014). The structure of this curriculum design is based on an “Arc of Inquiry,” a constructivist pedagogy, to meet the discipline specific skills of the multiple social studies areas (NCSS, 2014 p. 12). Using the domain of inquiry, this curriculum framework applies the discipline literacy skills in each of the content areas.

To prepare students for these tests teachers need to target the content literacy skills on these assessments. The C3 Framework is a new curriculum theory design that aligns best practices with inquiry methods, and targets discipline literacy concepts within the content areas of social studies. Until the development of The College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework now lesson plans for discipline specific instruction had lacked cohesion. Using the over arching domain of inquiry as a guiding framework and the 4 Dimensions, this process can now be replicated. As a tool for creating discipline specific lessons. Using this framework and the different domains of literacy or social studies skills, teachers can address the content standards and discipline literacy demands of social studies lessons in alignment by scaffolding the literacy skills for deeper engagement and learning of the students. The framework incorporates discipline literacy and media literacy pedagogies with content (Hobbs & Frost, 2003; Moje, 2008; NCSS, 2014; Shanahan & Shanahan 2008). Stripling refers to this as process and content, in a mutually supportive relationship, where students need the “content to learn the process” and vice versa (Stripling, 2003, p.9). For example, the discipline literacy skill

of inquiry supports the learning of the content material and the content in turn supports learning the skill of inquiry. The goal of social studies inquiry lessons with students being two fold, to meet discipline literacy standards while advancing informed and active citizens for our society.

The C3 Framework is a culmination of current reforms to literacy standards and National standards for the social studies include discipline standards for media literacy and inquiry with primary sources (NCSS, 2010). Using different literacy pedagogies incorporated in the field of social studies, future teachers need to meet the literacy requirements of the field. Digital Literacy, and using free tools from the Library of Congress to design lesson plans. Create student engagement with primary source documents while meeting content standards. Using online resources to build lessons that meet discipline literacy and 21st century media literacy skills. Learn to create lesson plans that will incorporate these literacy pedagogies with curriculum materials (text books, maps, charts, graphs), media resources (library, internet, journals, newspapers), current events resources (television, radio broadcasts, and public speakers), and discourse

(debates, discussions, etc.) to teach students how to become active informed citizens (NCSS, 2014).

The New Literacies include the skills, strategies, and insights necessary to successfully exploit the rapidly changing information and communication technologies (ICTs) that seem to be continuously emerging in our world. (Leu, 2002) . A digitally literate person is able to use diverse technologies appropriately and effectively to search for and retrieve information, interpret search results, and judge the quality of the information retrieved, uses these skills to participate actively in civic society and contribute to a vibrant, informed, and engaged community, uses these skills and the appropriate technologies to communicate and collaborate with peers, colleagues, family, and on occasion, the general public;

A new literacies framework suggests that teachers will become more important in 21st century classrooms—they will function more as facilitators of student learning (Leu et al., 2004). Using the C3 Framework teachers can target literacy strategies with in the content areas.

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**Examining Students' Patterns Based on Their Historical Knowledge
and Ability by Cluster Analysis**

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Learning outcomes can be categorized into knowledge and ability, with knowledge referring to students' recalling concepts and facts, and the latter to their capability to apply learned information to new situations. By measuring students' historical knowledge and ability, four types of students were identified through cluster analysis. Based on the characteristics of each group, pattern A is named as higher knowledge and higher ability group, pattern B as lower knowledge and lower ability group, pattern C as higher knowledge, lower ability, and pattern D as lower knowledge and higher ability. This study indicated that the development of one dimension, i.e. knowledge, didn't naturally lead to the corresponding rise of ability. Therefore, teachers should pay attention on balanced training of both qualities.