

CHARACTER EDUCATION IN PRINT:
CONTENT ANALYSIS OF CHARACTER EDUCATION IN
INTRODUCTION TO EDUCATION TEXTBOOKS

by

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ABSTRACT

BABETTE MARISA PROTZ. Character education in print: Content analysis of character education in introduction to education textbooks. (Under the direction of DR. JEANNEINE JONES)

Albert Einstein is credited with saying that the most important component of education is the development of students' character. While debate exists as to the delivery of character education in the public schools, it must be recognized that not all students have a support system outside of the schoolhouse. Consequently, when character development is not fostered within the home setting, this responsibility falls to the schools. Additionally, 36 states have enacted legislation that either mandates or encourages the inclusion of character education instruction in the schools' curriculum. To address this need as well as comply with legislative mandates, teachers must first be provided the skill set to effectively incorporate character education in their respective classrooms. Teacher education programs bear this responsibility; however, the authors and publishers of textbooks marketed and sold for teacher education do as well.

This study analyzed the content of eight introduction to education textbooks to determine the extent to which character education was presented to teacher candidates. The results revealed that the expansive topic of character education was largely silent in these textbooks. The information presented was found to be narrow in scope and breadth. Strong recommendations were offered for consideration by programs of education, professors, authors, and the publishing industry.

DEDICATION

The highest form of wisdom is good deeds.

-The Talmud

This work, my work, is dedicated to those close to me who came before and who travel after. To my mother whose life was wrought with demons only she knew and to my father who stayed even though he never understood. My mother's demons made me strong; my father's staying presence taught me perseverance. I only fully realized this as I worked on this research.

To Peyton whose spirit is thoughtful and ripe with kindness, a rare quality for one so young. Your road is open – make good choices and remember that learning is ongoing. Most importantly, maintain your quality character the world needs kindness.

To my children, set your goals and travel toward them. Along the way you will experience times of success and times of disappointment. Each has something beneficial – it is upon you to understand the meaning of each. Remember to engage always in kindness, integrity, and respect for yourself and those you meet along your travels.

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Every blade of grass has its angel that bends over it and whispers “grow, grow.”
-The Talmud

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Dear Teacher,

I am a survivor of a concentration camp.
My eyes saw what no person should witness:
Gas chambers built by learned engineers.
Children poisoned by educated physicians.
Infants killed by trained nurses.
Women and babies shot and burned
by high school and college graduates.
So, I am suspicious of education.
My request is: Help your children become human.
Your efforts must never produce learned monsters,
skilled psychopaths or educated Eichmanns.
Reading, writing, and arithmetic are important
only if they serve to make our children more human.

-Holocaust Survivor

This letter was found in Hiam Ginott's (1972) book, *Teacher and Child*. Ginott wrote that all the teachers in one private school received a copy from their principal on the first day of the new school year (p. 317). The message is clear and pertinent – content instruction is important; but so, too, is character development.

Introduction

Chapter One presents an overview of this study. Through the lens of societal problems, a case is presented for character education to take a forefront position in the public educational system. However for such to occur, teachers must possess an understanding of the concepts of character education – generally this would begin with teacher education programs. Hence, a systematic process of investigation would

involve an examination of all aspects of teacher education programs. Examining how character education is presented to teacher candidates in introduction to education textbooks could very well be considered the first step in this process. As such, it was the aim of this study. A definition for character education is offered along with the issues surrounding children, families and public education. The relationship of character education to violence and delinquency is considered. Presentation of relevant research, coupled with reports issued by juvenile courts, governmental agencies, health organizations, and private institutions is included. Delimitations, limitations, and the significance of the study conclude the chapter.

Overview

The concepts of character and its educational counterpart character education are complex. The definitions are many and varied as are the student goals. Whether or not the public school is the appropriate domain for teaching character education has been the subject of debate throughout the twentieth and into the twenty-first centuries (Althof & Berkowitz 2006; Boyd, 2010; Davis, 2006; Glanzer & Milson, 2006; Howard, Berkowitz & Schaeffer, 2004; Kohn, 1997; Leming, 2008; Nisivoccia, 1998, Oladipo, 2009; Staudt, 1956).

Character education has a long history in the United States (U.S.), dating back to the Puritans in colonial America. Through the nineteenth century societal expectations held that schools would reinforce the lessons in morals and values a child received at home. While ideas, theories, expectations, families, and society in general, have changed over the last four or so hundred years – character education has endured in some form or fashion (Davis, 2003; Dill, 2007; Howard, Berkowitz & Schaeffer, 2004;

Laud, 1997; McClellan, 1999). Character education remains, as will be addressed in this study, as an avenue to impart those values viewed by society as critical to the development of a youth's character, and by extension, of his or her role as a viable, productive citizen.

There is no question as to the value of academic education – it is the primary medium for attaining economic and social success. Education should be viewed as more than scores on standardized tests; however, it is also the place where youths develop a better sense of self. For many youngsters, school is the primary socializing institution. In their seminal work on juvenile delinquency, Gluek and Gluek (1952) wrote:

... though schooling does not completely account for the structuring of his character and the motivation of conduct, it can provide a sense of emotional satisfaction in the achievement of skills; it can arouse socially acceptable ambitions; it can place the pupil in contact with adults with whom he can identify and whom he can strive to emulate. On the other hand, it can leave scars in the psyche of the growing child which may well enhance the development of antisocial attitudes and defiance of all authority. ... [school] supplies the first proof of his adaptability and his capacity for socialization. (p. 69)

Through character education youths learn the values, attitudes, and skills necessary to effectively navigate through life. While some argue that character education is the domain of the family unit, this chapter will illustrate that not every child who walks through the schoolhouse door has a supportive family unit.

Two reports penned in 1932 illustrate these points. One was generated by the U.S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau in an effort to address the prevention and treatment of juvenile delinquency. In part, the report read that schools had the opportunity to address the problem:

... the school must realize increasingly that the child it teaches has a life outside of that which is passed in the classroom and that he must be taught and treated and guided in the light of this fact, that the school must sincerely and vitally interest itself in the environment of the child it tries to teach ... (p. 18).

The other report was published in *The Journal of Higher Education* by one C.O. Mathews in 1932. Professor Mathews was the chairman of a committee reviewing the honor system through a survey on attitudes toward academic integrity among students and faculty at Ohio Wesleyan University. The survey was constructed from an early form of the “Character Education Inquiry” (p. 411) to measure student and faculty views on academic honesty in regard to cheating and reporting of occurrences of cheating by others. In his analysis of the study, Professor Mathews writes:

When opinions vary as widely as the ones expressed by these persons and when rationalizations to justify most any action are so easy to construct, is it any wonder that honor systems seem ineffective and that the problem of academic honesty is always at hand? (p. 415).

The importance of these reports is evidenced by the fact that in the 80 years since they were written, numerous governmental reports, briefs, as well as scholarly and commercial articles have been written addressing these very same issues.

Defining Character Education

Definitions for character education are abundant, staggeringly so. The definition of character education is complex according to Marvin Berkowitz (2002); finding a consensual label for character education and what it entails is difficult. Lickona (2004) defines character education as the deliberately fostering the development of solid core virtues that are beneficial not only to the student, but also to society as a whole. Character education, according to Vessels and Boyd (1996) is the “strategic instruction that promotes social and personal responsibility and the development of the good

character traits and moral virtues that makes this possible” (p. 55). Lockwood (2009) has stated that the central goal of contemporary character education is to promote positive behavior and diminish personal and socially destructive behavior (p.12). Gray (2010) quotes Stanciak in defining character education: “it’s what you do when no one is looking” (para. 3). In their study on what works in character education, Berkowitz and Bier (2007) suggest:

Regardless of what one labels the enterprise (character education, social-emotional learning, school-based prevention, citizenship education, etc.) the methods employed, the undergirding theoretical justifications and the outcome assessed are remarkably similar because these programs are all designed to help foster the positive, pro-social, moral, and/or civic development of youths. (p. 5).

The U.S. Department of Education (U.S. DoE-a, n.d.) defines character education as:

A learning process that enables students and adults in a school community to understand, care about and act on core ethical values such as respect, justice, civic virtue and citizenship, and responsibility for self and others. Upon such core values, we form the attitudes and actions that are the hallmark of safe, healthy and informed communities that serve as the foundation of our society (para 5).

Given the number and variations of definitions, it is essential to clarify how character education is defined for this study. In an attempt to maintain consistency this study will adopt the definition of the U.S. DoE. The characteristics, social and emotional aspects and value components that comprise good character are also considered integral to the definition: respect, responsibility, giving & caring, fairness, justice, trustworthiness, civic virtue, citizenship, morals, ethics, values, integrity, honesty, empathy, social justice, civility, politeness, understanding, compassion, kindness, tolerance, virtue, problem solving, teamwork, conflict resolution, sharing, human rights, social justice, cultural awareness & appreciation (Berkowitz & Bier, 2004; DeRoche & Williams, 2001; Lickona, 1991, 2004; Schwartz, 2008a; Walker,

2002). Social emotional learning is also included as a characteristic, as the characteristics associated with this initiative are, for all intents and purposes, those that comprise character education. The five core groups of social and emotional competencies – self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision making encompass the traits of good character.

Child, Family, and School

Historically, the family was responsible for developing children's morals and character (Covey, 2008; Davidson & Lickona, 2007; Ellenwood, 2007; Field, 1996; Greenawalt, 1996; Lickona, 2004; Lockwood, 2009; McClellan, 1999; Mulkey, 1997). Although this remains true, the family structure has undergone major changes. Dill (2007) asserts that the move from producer-based to consumer-based market at the start of the twentieth century caused families to no longer live and work together on farms or in local communities. Dill also noted that the complexity generated by the urbanization and industrialization of this period "profoundly altered the capacity for the moral and civic cohesion necessary for collective identity and shared public life" (p. 222). In observing general social and cultural trends in the U.S., Liu (2009) asserts that while the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) has greatly increased, the nation's character has moved in the opposite direction. Change in family structure continues with good as well as bad effects. Regoli, Hewitt, & Delisi (2010) write that in 2006 – for the first time in U.S. history – unmarried couples composed the majority (50.2%) of households (p. 361). In 1970, 85% of youth under the age of 18 lived with both parents, and by 2005 the percentage dropped to 67%. Jennifer Schwartz (2006) found that counties with greater

degrees of family disruption have higher murder rates than counties with more stable family structures. Quoting a principal in a Florida high school, Covey writes:

Basic character traits and life skills used to be taught to young people at home, at church, and at school – all three. But nowadays the home can no longer be assumed reliable, church attendance by youth is at a minimum, and many schools are no longer teaching character-related topics or interpersonal skills due to heavy pressures to focus on core subjects (p. 27).

Concerned about the lack of moral behavior in public schools, an increasing number of parents have turned to home-schooling their children. According to a report issued by the U.S. DoE (2008), 1.5 million youth were homeschooled in the spring of 2007 – an increase from 1.1 million youth homeschooled in the spring of 2003. The three top reasons parents chose to homeschool: 36% said it was to provide religious or moral instruction, 21% were concerned about the public school environment, and 17% cited dissatisfaction with academic instruction offered at schools. The number of parents citing moral or religious instruction increased from 72% in 2003 to 83% in 2007 (U.S. DoE). Even though character education may thrive in the homeschool setting, Hiatt-Michael (2006) argues that this decision removes children from the civic function of public education. Yet, in a survey of adults who were homeschooled, Ray (2003) found homeschooled graduates were more involved (71%) in ongoing community service (i.e., volunteering, coaching) than U.S. adults of similar ages (37%); where 35% of U.S. adults considered politics and the government too complicated to understand, only 4.2% of homeschooled graduates were of the same opinion – and more homeschooled graduates not only voted, they worked for and contributed to campaigns – 76% of homeschooled graduates between the ages of 18-24 voted within the last five years as opposed to 29% of the relevant U.S. population.

Parents, according to DeRoche and Williams (2001), are the primary force in character education, with schools building partnerships with the home. Lickona (1991) reiterates this by stating that without help from the home, there are limits on what the school can do; however, a child who shows even a small amount of change should be considered positive. Lapsley and Narvaez (2006) state that most parents want to raise their children to be ethical, contributing members of society. Attention, however, must be drawn to the fact that not every child who enters the schoolhouse has strong familial support; some have no support at all. Even if a child has support in the home, he or she may be confused by the messages conveyed by the adult. Kandakai, Price, Telljohann, and Wilson (1999) report that mixed messages children received from parents can also prove to be problematic. These researchers found that 90% of the mothers in their study believed their children would handle problems at school without resorting to fighting, yet 40% believed that in certain circumstances, it was permissible for their children to fight.

Training and modeling of moral, ethical, and non-aggressive behaviors by parents or guardians of young people cannot be taken for granted. Often, a youth's sense of right and wrong, and view of positive character traits is skewed by a dysfunctional family life. To illustrate this point, the following vignette is offered:

The student misunderstood something the professor said in class, instead of asking for clarification from the professor, the student sent an angry email followed by an even angrier, threatening phone message. After listening to the message, the Dean strongly suggested the professor have the student removed from the class and security notified. The professor thought about this, waited a week then contacted the student. During an hour long phone conversation the professor learned that the student, on the light side of twenty, had a child in elementary school. The student grew up extremely poor, no one in her family ever talked about the importance of an education or how to address problems – the aggressive manner through which her caregivers solved problems, became

her model. She did not do well in school, feeling disconnected. The student dropped out of school at age 14 to have her child. Looking at her growing child, the student decided she wanted more for her child, she didn't want her child to "only know poor." She secured her GED, went to community college and then enrolled at the University. She still had no idea of how to effectively interact with people or how to read social cues; in essence she did not have communication competency. During the course of the conversation, the professor realized that the student posed no real threat to anyone; what was perceived as threatening was actually the only way the student knew how to respond to perceived slights. The student could not draw on the resources instilled through character education (i.e., problem-solving skills, social competencies) because the student was never exposed to any aspect of character education at home or school.

Violence, Delinquency, and Character Education

Weber (1996) proffered a 1988 article published in *TIME* comparing school discipline problems of the 1940s to the 1980s. The majority of problems reported during the 1940s consisted of running in the hallways, talking, not putting paper in the wastebaskets, and chewing gum. The problems escalated to rape, robbery, arson, alcohol / drug abuse, and suicide in the 1980s. At the turn of the twenty-first century, 71% of U.S. public schools experienced at least one violent incident according to Chen (2008); it was this growing violence and all-around disrespect for teachers, staff and peers, according to Damon (2005) that generated a rebirthing of the character education movement in the early 1990s.

Myers (2006) asserted that parents have an obligation to supervise their children's behavior; however, this does not lessen the school's responsibility to guide students toward becoming civic-minded citizens. Joseph and Efron (2005) contend that by instilling morals and virtues the school can shape the behavior of students; this aligns with the recommendations made by Chen (2008) for reducing school crime and violence.

Silberberg and Silberberg (1971) asserted that the history of a correlation between antisocial behavior and lack of school success can be seen through the history of juvenile delinquency. The significant connection between education and delinquency – academics, communities, and school bonding – has been long established and well researched (Catalano, Haggerty, Oesterle, Fleming, & Hawkins, 2004; Dryfoos, 1990; Empey, Stafford, & Hay, 1999; Felson & Staff, 2006; Gluek & Gluek, 1952; Healy, 1933; Henry, Knight, & Thornberry, 2011; Jarjoura, 1993; Lawrence, 2007; Lee & Smith-Adcock, 2005; Lochner & Moretti, 2004; Maguin & Loeber, 1996; McCord, Widom, Bamba, & Crowell, 2000; Monk-Turner, E., 1989; Paetsch & Bertrand, 1997; Siennick & Staff, 2008; Wald & Losen, 2003).

Wald and Losen presented a paper at the School-to-Prison Pipeline Research Conference at Harvard University in 2003. A few of the statistics they shared included:

- Of the youths under 18 sentenced to adult prisons, 75% had not completed tenth grade.
- Approximately 68% of state prison inmates had not completed high school in 1997.
- Almost three-quarters (70%) of women in state prison have not completed high school.
- One study found the U.S. could save \$1.4 million with a 1% increase in male high school graduates as the number of crimes committed nationally would reduce by 100,000.

Student bullying is currently on the rise, prompting legislation nationwide (Lunenburg, 2010). Englander (2007) referred to bullying as a junior form of terrorism;

the upshot of bullying can lead to violence and, as has been covered by national news – students dying by their own hand. Klomek, Marrocco, Kleinman, Schonfeld, & Gould (2007) investigated bullying and suicidality at six high schools in New York from Fall 2002 through Spring 2004. Of the 3,635 students, 2,341 (64%) participated. The researchers found victimization was more prevalent in school than outside of school. Students who were involved in bullying behaviors either as a victim or a bully were at significantly higher risk for depression, serious suicidal ideation, and suicide attempts as compared to students who never engaged in any type of bullying behaviors. Students who repeatedly bullied others in or out of school, according to Klomek, et al., were three times more likely to be depressed than with students who never bullied others.

As previously reported a relationship exists between delinquency and school disengagement, academic performance, and low school commitment. The following studies are also worth noting: Henry, Knight and Thornberry (2011) found school disengagement as a robust predictor of youth dropping out when reaching high school. In their meta-analysis of the delinquency and academic performance relationship Maguin and Loeber (1996) discovered that children with lower academic performance repeatedly offended, increased in the seriousness in their offending, and were persistent offenders. Paetsh and Bertrand (1997) established a statistically significant relationship between school and delinquency as students who reported low grades, skipping classes, and neglecting homework were more likely to report engaging in delinquency. Eleanor and Sheldon Gluek (1952) put forth:

Under the impact of intensive clinical exploration of human motives and behavior, it is being realized more and more that “book learning” does not play as important a role in the development of character and conduct as was formerly

supposed. Knowledge is one thing; its efficient and socially acceptable use is quite another (p. 69).

It is known that school connectedness – students’ feeling of belonging and being cared for by the school – has been linked with lower levels of substance abuse, suicide attempts, emotional distress, and teenage pregnancy (Wald & Losen, 2003). Schools, according to Edwards (2001), are moral communities – dynamic entities with the potential to assist students in avoiding violence by helping them to develop autonomy and social responsibility for their community membership. In 1956, Virginia Staudt addressed the obligation of schools to develop the ‘wholeness’ of the student:

The long range task of education is the improvement of society through the improvement of individuals. Therefore, we cannot be satisfied with training the child to conform to standards in our current society. Thus, it would seem that greater good, rather than harm, could be reaped if teachers would hold forth the loftier goals of character development before their students (p. 198).

The mission of the schools to provide moral education is especially pronounced when the increase in juvenile delinquency is taken into account (Staudt, 1956). There is growing evidence that quality character education produces a range of positive effects – from individual student growth in academic and social skills to building positive school-wide environments (Benninga, Berkowitz, Kuehn, & Smith, 2011). Bennett-Johnson (2004) recommended character education as a means of combating school violence.

Statement of the Problem

Education and the Perfect Storm

As with adults, students have problems of varying severity in their lives and when they enter the schoolhouse their problems enter with them. Some children are homeless, some are under juvenile court supervision, some have psychological problems, and some have substance abuse issues. Thought-provoking findings from

studies conducted by governmental and private agencies are presented to illustrate the types of problems schools and teachers face every day. Growing chaos in classrooms nationwide, community violence spilling into the school, teachers reporting student misconduct substantially interfering with their teaching, and annual vandalism cost estimates ranging between \$50 million and \$700 million are some of the problems educators face according to Lunenburg (2010).

The Josephson Institute (2010) conducted a study of 43,321 high school students' attitudes and conduct in public, private religious and private non-religious schools. A sampling of the Institute's findings include: of all high school students surveyed, 50% admitted they bullied someone in the past year; almost half, 47%, reported being the victim of bullying; and 52% disclosed they had hit a person in anger during the past year. The Institute also reported that 33% of all high school students say that violence is a big problem at their school, and one in four say they do not feel very safe at school. Ten percent of all students reported taking a weapon to school at least once in the 12 months prior to the survey, and 16% admitted to having been intoxicated at school. The convergence of alcohol, weapons, and anger are the ingredients for a 'perfect storm.'

According to Johnston, O'Malley, Bachman, & Schulenburg (2011) the results of the 2011 Monitoring the Future survey indicated that alcohol consumption dropped; however, marijuana use continued to rise among U.S. teens. The Monitoring the Future survey has been conducted annually by the University of Michigan since 1975. The 2011 survey was a nationally representative sample of 46,733 students located in 400 secondary schools. Samples were drawn separately at each grade level to represent the

students in that grade level in public and private secondary school. Highlights of the study include:

- 50% of seniors and 20% of eighth graders reported having tried an illicit drug at some time and 25% of seniors and 8.5% of eighth graders used one or more drugs in the prior 30 days
- Vicodin use is at 2.1% for eighth graders, 5.9% for tenth graders, and 8.1% for seniors
- Misuse of Adderall, the most widely used amphetamine, held steady for seniors and declined for eighth and tenth graders
- 22% of seniors reported occasions of heavy drinking – having five or more drinks in a row at least once in the two weeks prior to the survey

On their Website, the American Medical Association (AMA) reports 11 million youth in the U.S. consume alcohol, with nearly half of these youths drinking to excess. The first time boys try alcohol is generally around age 11, and the average age for girls is 13; after automobile crashes, the leading cause of death among youth is the consumption of alcohol (AMA, n.d.).

Youth and Juvenile Court

One area that public schools and juvenile justice have in common is that all youth adjudicated delinquent are school age. Through the National Center for Juvenile Justice, the research division of juvenile and family court judges, Puzanchera, Adams, & Sickmund (2011) issued a report addressing youth adjudicated delinquent. The information contained in their report has a direct impact on public education – more than 31million youth were under juvenile court jurisdiction at the end of 2008.

Findings from the report include: in 1960 approximately 1,100 delinquency cases were processed daily, and by 2008 processing has increased to approximately 4500 per-day; the number of delinquency cases increased by 43% between 1985 and 2008 – 79% of juveniles were between the ages of 10 and 15; 57% of the cases resulted in probation as the most restrictive disposition; 23% of informally handled delinquency cases resulted in voluntary probation, and 35% in other dispositions.

In 2009, Dinkes, Kemp, & Baum issued the annual *Indicators of School Crime and Safety* under the auspices of the National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education, and Bureau of Justice Statistics, Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice. According to the authors, 55.7 million students were enrolled in prekindergarten through grade 12 during the 2007-2008 school year. Key findings include:

- 21 homicides and 5 suicides of school-age youth were committed at school
- 10% of teachers in city schools reported being threatened with injury
- 23% of students ages 12-18 reported gangs at their schools
- 35% of students ages 12-18 reported seeing hate-related graffiti at school
- 22% of all students in grades 9-12 reported that they had been offered, sold, or given an illegal drug on school property in the 12 months prior to the survey
- 25% of public schools reported that bullying occurred among students on a daily or weekly basis
- 11% reported student acts of disrespect for teachers other than verbal abuse took place on a daily or weekly basis
- 18% of students in grades 9-12 reported they carried a weapon¹ anywhere

- 6% reported they carried a weapon on school property during the 30 days prior to the survey

Robers, Zhang, & Truman (2012) reported that in the 2009 – 2010 school year:

- 85% of public schools recorded one or more incidents of crime having taken place at school; this amounts to approximately 1.9 million crimes.
- 23% of schools reported bullying among students having occurred on a daily or weekly basis
- 9% of schools reported widespread disorder in classrooms
- 20% of students reported gangs present at their schools
- More students (4%) reported being fearful of being attacked at school than away from school (3%)
- Roughly 74% of schools reported one or more incident of violent incidents, 16% report one or more serious violent incidents and 40% of schools reported at least one violent incident to police
- Approximately 34% of teachers reported that student misbehavior interfered with their teaching during the 2007 – 2008 school year

Important to keep in mind is the word “reported”; the dark figure of crime² extends to the school population as it does for the general U.S. population. In his testimony before the U.S. House of Representatives regarding school safety, Trump (2009) argued that federal school safety data have grossly diluted the real school violence problem. It can be safely stated that an unknown number of incidents go unreported. Conversely, there are incidents reported to school administration with no further action taken outside of the school, either intentionally (personal experience) or unintentionally. Equally

important to bear in mind, school crime and violence is not the solely the province of urban areas; all one has to do is remember Columbine High School in Colorado, Virginia Tech University, or most recently, Taft High School in California.

Ethics and Academic Dishonesty

In the past cheating was a covert act and, aside from Chairman Mao Zedong who endorsed the practice (Mooney, 2006), cheating was considered deceitful and unethical behavior. Today cheating is commonplace, as will be shown. Broad spectrum academic dishonesty in academia, business, media, medicine, universities and public schools has been the topic of discussion on national news, news magazines – print and televised, blogs, tweets, books, and scholarly journals (Callahan, 2004; Dessoff, 2011; Green, 2006; Lathrop & Foss, 2000; Lickona, 1991; Twenge, 2006; Wowra, 2007). Students cheat in any number of ways – copying assignments, purchasing papers, using cheat sheets, or as reported by Green (2006), turning in papers written by their parents. Academic dishonesty is growing exponentially. According to the Educational Testing Service (ETS) reports Huffman (2012), 20% of college students reported cheating in high school in 1940; the percentage has since sky-rocketed to 98%. Romanowski (2008) reported that cheating is not only an epidemic, it is appears to be accepted as part of the school culture; for example, 76% of the top U.S. teens, members of the *Who's Who among American High School Students*, reported cheating. Most said it was “because it didn’t seem like a big deal” (p.1). Students know how to cheat; the following is presented as a case in point:

The answers on the exams of two students were identical including the nine incorrect answers. The professor questioned the students individually, asking both the same question: “Why cheat on an open book exam”? First there were denials, then the truth. Later in the same week one of the students came to the

professor's office to talk about the incident. "I really didn't think telling him where the answers were in the book was cheating. I didn't tell him the answers. But, after I thought about it, I guess it was cheating". As the student was leaving the professor's office he said "I don't get why he'd copy my exam exactly, I mean kids know how to cheat".

Academic dishonesty or cheating is nothing new when one considers the previously presented article written in 1932 by Professor Mathews. More recently, in a 2011 survey of private and public university presidents by the Pew Research Center, over half of the respondents reported plagiarism has increased over the past 10 years (Caruba, 2011). In a report by Huffman (2012), five juniors at Panther Creek High school, one of Wake County's [North Carolina] highest rated schools, were caught cheating; ironically, the students are considered at the top of the junior class, one student even being a national honor society member (his membership was revoked as a result of his cheating). The incident at Panther Creek is not, unfortunately, an anomaly. Callahan (2004) and Lathrop and Foss (2000) also addressed the issue of honors students who cheated their way to the top.

Some students are quite savvy at using technology to cheat. In his 2004 book *The Cheating Culture*, David Callahan reported that in today's high-tech world, students are using technology to cheat in several ways; for example, text messaging test answers, using free translation programs found on the Internet to complete homework or write essays in a foreign language class, and sharing homework answers via email. Some of the technological methods used by students to cheat could carry a criminal penalty. For instance, Lathrop and Foss (2000) reported that student hackers change grades, transcripts, delete unfavorable information, plant viruses that have the capability

to delete student records of a school or district, and break into school networks to copy work produced by other students.

The Josephson Institute of Ethics (2009) survey in 2008 on High School Character and Adult Conduct reported that students who cheated in high school are far more likely as adults to cheat on expense accounts and insurance claims, as well as lie to their spouses or employers. Additionally, it was found that respondents who reported cheating on high school exams were substantially more likely to provide a child a false excuse for missing school, to ask a child to lie for them, and misrepresent or omit a material fact to secure a job interview than those who did not cheat in high school. Ironically, 92% of the respondents to the survey reported satisfaction with their personal ethics and character.

Considering the results of this survey, it is not unreasonable to view academic dishonesty as a precursor to adult unethical behavior. Lovett-Hooper, Komarraju, Weston, & Dollinger (2007) found that students who reported cheating behaviors also indicated they are more likely to engage in adult deviant behaviors such as cheating on a spouse or significant other, being arrested for drunk driving, or faking an illness to avoid work. Martin, Rao, & Sloan (2009) established a relationship between cheating and potential white-collar crime. Zamost, Griffin, & Ansvari (2012) reported on doctors nationwide who have cheated on board-certification exams in radiology; according to the report the practice has been going on for years. Every year, employee misconduct threatens a loss of 5% of a company's revenue according to Johnson (2012) with the Association of Certified Fraud Examiners (ACFE). In 2011, Johnson reported

the median loss at \$140,000 due to workplace fraud with some companies facing losses close to \$1 million.

Perhaps the most daring example of cheating was carried by the author of a book entitled *Telling Right from Wrong*. The work, considered by the editor to be “terribly important” in its treatment of ethics never went to publication. The reason: the author forged a laudatory letter from the chairman of Harvard University’s Philosophy Department (Lickona, 1991, p.57).

The Josephson Institute reported the results of their 2010 ethics survey of Over 40,000 American youth in public and private high schools. Highlights of the survey include: 21% reported stealing from a parent or other relative, 1 in 3 boys and 1 in 4 girls reported stealing from a store, 59% of students cheated on an exam with 34% admitting to doing so more than once, 1 in 3 students admitted to plagiarism using the Internet, and more than 8 in 10 students admitted to lying to a parent regarding something significant. (Josephson Institute of Ethics, 2011).

Edwards (2000) stated that the expectation is for schools to deliver well educated students capable of making ethical and moral decisions in a world that is increasingly unethical. Edwards’ view does not appear to be far-reaching when considered in conjunction with the previously reported delinquency, cheating, and substance abuse statistics.

Legislation

According to the Character Education Partnership (CEP) Website (n.d.), character education has been either mandated or encouraged through legislation in 36 states; the remaining 14 states speak to character education non-legislatively or utilize

intervention or prevention programs such as Positive Behavior Intervention Support (PBIS). Glanzer and Milson (2006) asserted that the profusion of character education legislation passed by state legislatures is unparalleled in U.S. history. On its Website, the Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL) reports that the revisions for the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) contain language specifically addressing social, emotional, and character development (CASEL, 2012).

Uerling (1995) contended that character education has been acknowledged by educators, legislators and jurists; it is at the heart of the educational endeavor. Character education that has been codified now carries the strength of the law behind it; reinforcing the assertion that teacher candidates or alternative route teachers must be educated in the realm of character education.

Given the fact that more than half of U.S. states have codified the implementation of character education in state public schools, the 2008 standards of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) is strangely silent on character education. However, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) does specifically address character and civic responsibility under Proposition 1 which reads in part "... develop students' cognitive capacity and their respect for learning. Equally important, they foster students' self-esteem, motivation, character, civic responsibility and their respect for individual, cultural, religious and racial differences" (2002, p. 3).

Teacher Education

Teachers play an important role in developing positive character traits in

students through modeling and integrating character education in their lessons. Yet, as pointed out by Berkowitz (1998), Cummings, Harlow, & Maddux (2007), Howard (2005), and Wakefield (1997), the role of the teacher in character or moral education is negligible in teacher education programs, when it should be center-stage. When schools add character education to their curriculum, Romanowski (2005) pointed out that it is the teachers who bear the greatest responsibility for implementation. It is, according to DeRoche and Williams (1998), Lickona (1991), Milson and Mehlig (2002), and Schwartz (2008b), a general expectation that teachers serve as positive role models, seize opportunities to reflect on moral issues within the context of the curriculum, create a moral climate within the classroom, as well as provide students with opportunities to demonstrate good character through service programs, clubs, and peer tutoring. Character formation is an “inescapable part of the teacher’s craft” (Narvaez & Lapsley, 2008, p. 157).

For the most part teachers value the ideologies behind character education, but may be unaware or unsure about what they should do as character educators (Jones, Ryan, & Bohlin, 1999; Narvaez & Lapsley, 2008; Revell & Arthur, 2007). However, teachers who receive their training at private religiously affiliated institutions report they are more confident in their ability to impart values (Milson & Mehlig, 2002). The issue is the lack of training; teachers must be fully informed about the significance of implementing character education in their classes as well as their role in facilitating self-development within the students under their tutelage (Jones, et al).

Models of excellence are most likely scattered around the U.S., states Jones, et al (1999); however, “teacher education programs as a whole needs to do more to convey

to prospective teachers that character foundation is at the heart of what it means to be a teacher” (p. 20). Moreover, Revell and Arthur (2007) reiterate this position as they are of the view that teachers graduating from education programs without training in character education are ill-equipped to teach in this area. In their study of teachers in England, Revell and Arthur found that while teacher candidates were, in the abstract, committed to character education, they were far less confident with the actual implementation in the classroom (p. 89).

There are literally hundreds of commercially developed character education programs sold nationally. The CEP and the U.S. DoE *What Works Clearinghouse* have each reviewed the research on a number of these programs through research-driven review protocols. Supported by a grant from the John Templeton Foundation, Berkowitz and Bier (2004) investigated effective character education programs. While the study provides valuable information, it is the teacher who implements the program. Programs deemed effective by one or more organizations are ultimately reliant on the teacher. Consequently, the likelihood of successful implementation decreases if teachers are unfamiliar with the concepts of character education. As reported by Lickona (1991), Milson (2003), Revell and Arthur (2007), and Wakefield (1997), teachers who are knowledgeable of, and understand, the concepts of character education, will be more confident translating the concepts into effective character education teaching. Without a thorough understanding of character education, it is difficult to implement any character education program or curriculum with fidelity. Wakefield goes so far as to say:

If program heads strongly suspect that their students may need character education methods, yet fail to provide them, they may be failing in their duty as

pre-serviced educators. Consistent and effective learning in any discipline comes as a result of methodological teaching (p. 10).

At the end of the day, it must be acknowledged that when it comes to the school setting, in the end it is the teacher who is most influential in developing the content of their students' character.

Textbooks

When designing their courses, university professors make choices about what to teach in their classes; one of the fundamental decisions is the selection of a textbook. In their report on a national survey of how publisher practices impact textbook selection, Landrum and Hormel (2002) state the selection of the textbook is one of the essential decisions made by the instructor. The textbook selected may guide what content is taught or it may serve as supplementary reading material. Either way, the content within the textbook provides teacher candidates or alternative route teachers' valuable information.

No singular method exists for textbook selection and many universities afford textbook selection to individual professors; consequently, teacher candidates or alternative route teachers at one university may receive similar or different information from those at another university. Thus, knowing what character education concepts are presented in introductory education textbooks available to professors for selection is of significant value. From preface to glossary, what is *absent* from the textbook is just as important as what is *presented*.

Referring back to this section's opening letter "Dear Teacher," how teacher candidates or alternative route teachers are trained to convey the value of humanity in tandem with content instruction may be the most important lesson teachers convey.

Consequently, the way character education is presented in introductory education textbooks is a topic that should have strong coverage; yet, a review of the research in this area yielded no results. Given the vast number of commercial books available on character education, it was surprisingly that this topic does not appear to be addressed in the scholarly literature. As such, there is a need for this study to help fill this gaping vacuum within the literature.

Theoretical Perspectives

Kolbe and Burnett (1991) and Neuendorf (2002) stated that formal theory is not required in qualitative content analysis; often theories are determined by the analyst's own theory. In their study of the use of content analysis as the methodology in consumer behavior/marketing research, Kolbe and Burnett reported that theoretical perspectives were observed in 7, or 5.5%, of the 128 journal articles reviewed. While Hsieh and Shannon (2005) limited their position on the exclusion of theoretical perspectives to inductive content analysis, Neuendorf was broader in scope in this area. In content analysis, states Neuendorf, when no past studies exist or there are no clear theoretical underpinnings to drive the research, the research questions steer the process.

Drawing on Dewey's view of educational theory, Thomas (1997) maintains that theories should neither drive investigations, nor should they aim to create some theory. To do so, Thomas continues, is dangerous as the predilection for educational theory hinders thought leading to "pompous banality" (p. 98). Is there or has there been a consensus regarding educational theory? Thomas argues that there has not been as a comprehensive investigation of educational literature that disclosed any consensus in regard to the meaning of theory. This, according to Thomas, is problematic given the

considerable significance conferred upon educational theory. Theories that have gained wide, almost adoring attention in the educational world, and are then found to be flawed, sometimes seriously, continued to be supported states Thomas, pointing to Piaget.

Educational theory did not exist until the end of the nineteenth century, and only came into being at that time because educational reformers began to worry about the “conspicuous absence of ‘theory’ from teacher education” (Carr, 2006, p. 138). Until the introduction of educational theory, teachers were trained through an apprenticeship system – beginning teachers learned from experienced teachers gaining practical knowledge of the profession (Carr). Naylor (1975) makes the argument that theories are important because they “provide a point of orientation” and to conduct research without theory is to simply search for relations. Naylor continues to say that theories are “creative acts which go beyond the facts” (p. 12); however, they are subject to contradiction whenever a significant fact should arise. The question then becomes, what does this mean? Is research is only valid from a theoretical point of origin? Miller (2007) would beg to differ, his response pointing to Fleming and the discovery of penicillin. Valuable research can be conducted using targeted problem solving or with careful observation, states Miller; researchers should not back away from atheoretical research because of an “obsession with theory-building or theory-testing” (p. 184). There are two problems with educational theory states Carson (1980): One, educational theories do not “ensure absolute and unassailable certainty;” and two, the factors that influence “human decision making and actions” are fraught with numerous and complex factors (p.32). As an example of the second problem, Carson refers to the

misbehavior of a youth; there are, he points out, any number of factors causing the behavior – home or school frustrations, perhaps both, peer influence, social life – to these could be added hunger, substance abuse, fear, or learning disabilities. Any of these could be the root cause of the misbehavior and should the cause be discovered, it may have absolutely no bearing on the next misbehaving youth.

Kolbe and Burnett (1991) and Neuendorf (2002) report that when there is no clear-cut theoretical perspective to serve as a foundation, the questions will drive the research. Kolbe and Burnett state that any suggestion of atheoretical content analysis as valueless is myopic (247); Potter and Levine-Donnerstein (1999) argue that a good study can be designed and useful results obtained without theory involvement using an inductive, descriptive content analysis. Some content analyses “neither begin nor end with a theory” (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, p.262). Such was the case with this research study.

Purpose of the Study

For many students who do not have a significant person in their life to teach and model the values of good character, society must step in, much as it did historically. It could be argued that the village becomes the responsible party when parents or guardians cannot or will not own their child raising duties – similar to *parens patriae*. The school, according to a number of researchers (Anderson, 2000; Berkowitz, 1998; Bryson, 1941; Lickona, 1991/1993; Milson, 2000; Oladipo, 2009) remains the significant vehicle in developing responsible citizenry.

The over-arching question for this study is: How are the concepts of character education conveyed to teacher candidates and alternative route teachers in introductory

education textbooks? It is important to note how the topic is introduced, to what extent character education is embedded in the textbooks, whether the textbooks cover the history and controversy of character education and to what extent legislation is addressed. Each is essential in understanding the concept of character education.

As articulated through this chapter, crime, violence, and academic dishonesty are alive and well from the boardroom to the classroom. The lack of ethical behavior and academic integrity permeates the academic and business worlds. Character education involves teaching students the importance of basic human values in order to provide youth with the skill set to develop emotional competencies and communication proficiency, while also reducing intolerance, aggression, and antisocial behaviors. Character education cannot stop all violence/aggression, nor can it erase behaviors such as academic dishonesty; however, through character education delivered by teachers knowledgeable in this area, there is an opportunity to make a difference. In any given school year in the U.S. there are millions of students in public schools. It could be reasonably argued that on a daily basis teachers have almost unlimited opportunities to instill the characteristics of civil, nonviolent, nonaggressive behaviors, and communication competency.

Importance should be attached to the fact that many of the students in teacher education programs across the nation are straight out of high school. If these students: a) were never exposed to character education during their K-12 school years, b) the teacher education programs fail to address character education in their curricula, and c) textbooks present limited to no substantive information on character education, these

teacher candidates will one day enter their own classrooms with no schema from which to draw.

Taking into account the societal problems addressed in this chapter; the need for teacher candidates to possess a strong understanding of character education concepts, the view that textbooks may be considered an essential aspect of the educational experience and are generally one of the first encounters through which teacher candidates are introduced to the nature and expectations of the teaching profession, it is imperative to determine their content in relationship to character education. With this in mind, the following four questions framed this study:

1. To what extent did introduction to education textbooks explain character education?
2. To what extent did introduction to education textbooks address the history of character education?
3. To what extent did introductory education textbooks address the divergent viewpoints regarding character education?
4. To what extent did introduction to education textbooks address state and federal legislation regarding character education?

Delimitations & Limitations

The content analysis of introduction to education textbooks conducted for this study is subject to the following delimitations and limitations:

Delimitations:

- a) Textbook selection was delimited to the five largest publishing houses in the U.S. (determination criteria will be described in greater detail in Chapter 3)

b) Textbooks were delimited to the most recent copyright (no textbook with a copyright older than 2009 was selected)

c) Introduction to education textbooks were delimited to an American audience

d) Analyzed content was delimited to the coding manual, instructions and protocol designed specifically for this study

e) The base character traits were delimited to those traits found in No Child Left Behind – 20 USC § 7247 – Partnership in character education program.

f) The analysis was delimited to character education – only those traits that were specifically related to character education through textual matter or visual representation were coded. Other areas that may have had the same traits associated with its topic (i.e., multicultural education) were not included.

Limitations

a) While a rigorous inter-coder reliability process was utilized along with a carefully developed rubric, this study was subject to reliability of the coding process and validity of the protocol. Additionally, while the content was manifest in nature, some subjective judgment is inherent in content analysis.

b) The results discovered in this study are limited by the proficiency of the methodology utilized in the study to address the research questions.

c) The textbooks as representative of the textbooks selected by teacher education programs on a national level is limited to the samples chosen.

Definitions

Definitions are provided for the verbiage specific to this study are provided for clarification and consistency in Appendix A.

Significance

The results of this study are significant on several levels. First, the results add new information to the body of literature regarding character education curriculum in teacher education programs. Second, the results supply critical information to publishers concerning the inclusion of character education in introductory education textbooks. Third, as previously stated, many professors utilize textbooks as the course map, making the inclusion or exclusion of character education within the text even more critical. Fourth, inclusion of the concepts of character education in introduction to education textbooks contribute to the knowledge base of character education to teacher candidates or alternative route teachers. Fifth, results provide information to university faculty to use with textbook selection and teacher preparation curriculum. Sixth, coverage of character education in introductory education textbooks coupled with intentional instruction (Munson, 2000) could possibly save schools or school districts money. In-depth character education coverage would provide teacher candidates or alternative route teachers the level of knowledge required to effectively impart the various aspects of character education in their classrooms, thereby eliminating the cost associated with purchasing commercial programs. Seventh, thinking back to the reference early in the Chapter to our violence riddled society, emphasis must be placed on ethical life skills accountability as well as with academic accountability – starting with teacher education programs. Lastly, an examination of textbooks is not bounded by geographic location, thereby allowing the findings to be viewed as encompassing of teacher education programs on a national level.

Conclusion

A youth's character formation directly impacts the type of person, the type of citizen, the child will grow to be – whether he or she becomes Bernie Madoff serving 150 years for perpetrating the largest financial fraud in U.S. history, or Colin Powell recipient of the American Patriot of Character Award for his dedication to ethical conduct and for exceptional service to America. The information and examples presented in this chapter illustrate the need for examination of all avenues of character education, starting with the manner in which character education is presented in introductory education textbooks. An all-inclusive understanding of the underpinnings of character education is imperative, lest educators view good character as static rather than an ongoing journey.

Chapter Two presents the literature addressing character education – the history of character education in the U.S., the characteristics of character education, and divergent views regarding the inclusion of character education in the public schools, legislation, court cases relevant to the topic of character education, teacher education and textbooks. The methodology utilized in the study is presented in Chapter Three. Chapter Four offers the research findings, and Chapter 5 discusses the findings along with implications, recommendations for future research, and final reflection.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Character without knowledge is weak and feeble, but
knowledge without character is dangerous and a potential menace to society.
Character and knowledge together are the twin goals of education.

-Boston Latin Grammar School, 17th century

June Marshall (2001) began her article on character education in preservice education with the seventeenth century Boston Latin School maxim on the goals of education. Fast forward some 300 years and – variations of the same sentiment are presented by two influential Americans. Teddy Roosevelt has been attributed with saying “To educate the mind and the not the soul is to educate a menace” and Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. (1947) wrote “We must remember that intelligence is not enough. Intelligence plus character – that is the true goal of education” in the Morehouse school newspaper. Boston Latin Grammar School in the seventeenth century initiated the belief that the goal of education is the development of mind and spirit. Reiterated by a former U.S. President and a civil rights leader is the belief that education and character development go hand-in-hand.

Introduction

The review of the literature includes an examination of character development through the ages along with its historical roots in the U.S., the what, why, and where of character education, research into the use of character education in schools, divergent viewpoints – the controversy regarding teaching character education in the public schools – federal, and state legislation, court cases where the majority opinions

expressed a belief in the role of the school in teaching the fundamentals of character development, teacher education programs, and a look at the use of textbooks historically through their present use.

Character Education

Every school day educators have approximately 50 million opportunities to, in the words of Lickona and Davidson (2005), help students to be “smart and good” (p. xv). While good character education can be equated with a good education and growing evidence suggests that effective character education promotes academic achievement (Benninga, Berkowitz, Kuehn, & Smith, 2011; Berkowitz & Bier, 2004, 2007; Lickona & Davidson, 2005) – character education in U.S. public schools ebbs and flows. To know where one is going, one must know where one has been, and so it is with character education. To truly understand character education today, a look into its historical roots in the U.S. is essential. The past, in essence, informs the future.

Everything new is old.

Through the ages the belief that values and morals, the soul of character, should be instilled in children has been articulated, starting with the ancient scholars. Many, in writing on moral and character education, refer to Socrates, Plato and Aristotle. For instance, Rivera (2005) wrote that Aristotle assumed no separation between the acquisition and application of morals, social justice and intellectual knowledge (regarding justice as one of the virtues a state and an individual must possess). Sherman (2002) spoke to the importance of looking to Plato, Socrates, and Aristotle for guidance in virtue or moral education. In his book *Character Matters*, Lickona (2004) quoted Socrates’ admonition that a fulfilling life is one of virtue. Government involvement in

character or moral education dates back to Socrates according to Glazer and Milson (2006), as they articulated the view of Socrates as told by Plato that it is the responsibility of the state to promote virtues such as justice to children of diverse social classes. In his article on moral education in America, Laud (1997, p. 1) began with the following: “As Aristotle taught, people do not naturally or spontaneously grow up to be morally excellent or practically wise. They become so, if at all, only as the result of a lifelong personal and community effort.”

When viewing the historical basis for moral or character education, Confucian thought should also be considered. Confucius emphasized moral education, the belief that individuals, families, schools, and society together should carry out moral education throughout everyday life (Fengyan, 2004). In Confucianism, according to Fengyan, a youth’s nature can be shaped much more readily than the nature of an adult; consequently, enriched environments ripe with positive role models are noteworthy in the development of a youngster’s morality. Confucius looked primarily at the four virtues of sincerity, righteousness, filial piety, and benevolence. The grandfather of Dewey and Kohlbergian thought was the ancient Chinese. Fengyan points out that the ancient Chinese people were aware of the differences in “individual development of body and mind” (p. 436), and emphasized that moral education should be taught in accordance with a child’s own aptitude and personal characteristics. Dewey’s belief, explains Murphy (2005), stressed reflective thought rather than lessons on morality; this articulated the ancient Chinese belief that moral education rested upon the development of consciousness and knowledge of morality as opposed to “memorization and recitation” (Fengyan, p. 436).

The belief in the importance of instilling morals and values can be seen during the Age of Enlightenment when English philosopher John Locke suggested that the role of character development supersedes that of intellectual attainment (Sanchez, 2005). This outlook was brought forward into the nineteenth century by English philosophers John Stuart Mills and Herbert Spencer (Huitt, 2004; Sanchez, 2005).

Historical View of Character Education in the U.S.

Understanding the role of character or moral education in the history of American education is important and necessary. History tells us that character education is far from a new concept in U.S. education; its value in education parallels that of academic education (Ellenwood, 2007; Field, 1996; Greenawalt, 1996; Lickona, 2004; Lockwood, 2009; McClellan, 1999; Mulkey, 1997). Throughout history, writes Davidson and Lickona (2007), education had two critical goals: intellectual and moral/social. While the degree of moral instruction lessened through the decades, the expectation from the 1600s through the 1800s was that morals, values, and religion were to be taught in the home by both parents, with the school reinforcing those moral and religious lessons (McClellan).

17th – 18th centuries.

In Puritan New England, where schools existed, the primary focus of education was to teach literacy skills; however, the instructional materials were permeated with religious and moral imagery (McClellan, 1999). Parents at that time, according to McClellan, were under constant supervision in case they slipped in the education of their children; those judged inadequate were subject to admonishment by their neighbors and even civil and criminal penalties. The education of children was

considered of vital importance, to the point that a law was passed in 1642 to address parents who neglected their children's education. McClellan reported that this law gave the town the legal authority to fine negligent parents and to remove the child from the home, placing the child in an apprenticeship so that he or she may be provided an appropriate education. The first law related to public education was the Massachusetts School Act of 1647, also known as Ye Old Deluder Satan Act, adopted in 1647 in Massachusetts (Greenawalt, 1996; Laud, 1997; McClellan). Laud reports the School Act stated in part:

It being one chief object of that old deluder, Satan, to keep men from the knowledge of the Scriptures, as in former times by keeping them in an unknown tongue, so in these latter times by persuading from the use of tongues, that so at least the true sense and meaning of the original might be clouded by false glosses of saint-seeming deceivers, that learning may not be buried in the grave of our fathers in the Church and Commonwealth... (p. 2).

Additionally, the act ordered towns with 50 or more households to establish a school where the children could be taught to read Scriptures. In 1760 New Jersey, good character was one of the qualifications considered for those who desired to teach (Laud).

Benjamin Franklin wrote Greenawalt (1996), believed education should include morals and ethics, with Franklin adding that curriculum should include the study of ethics. However, Franklin was one of the first to call for a secular and practical education rather than a religious one (Laud, 1997). Jefferson firmly believed the core principle of public education was to produce future citizens who would be able to effectively participate in the new republican-democratic government; however, he opposed any organized religion involvement with public education (Laud, Seamon, 2011). The "basis of knowledge required to read the newspaper and make rational and

moral decisions as citizens of the republic” (p. 65-66) would be found in reading and history, not religion or Bible study (Seamon). Jefferson, according to Laud, believed that children possessed an innate sense of right and wrong, and the school’s responsibility, therefore, was to strengthen this innate competence through reason and application more so than direct instruction. If a child did not respond to this educational approach they should then “be trained in the habits of right and wrong” (Laud, p. 7).

19th century.

In the nineteenth century a preference for women as teachers emerged as women were considered to be inherently moral, unlike men (Laud, 1997). In their content analysis of nineteenth century school mission statements, Stemler and Bebell (1999) reported that the entire curriculum was infused with moral education in the 1830s and 1840s, with teachers actively engaged in teaching morals and character building. Realization that school was the vehicle to deliver character education as well as the fact that didactic methods alone are not sufficient to instill morals and values was recognized in the early 1880s. William Harris wrote in the *Journal of Education* (1882):

The great advantage of school instruction in morality lies in the fact that the pupil is made to do and practice these fundamental moral acts of self-control, and is not merely made to hear lectures on the subject, and exhortation without accompanying discipline in moral habits. In the school, moral habits must be practiced, or the instruction cannot go on (p. 367).

In the same article, Harris wrote that school has a positive effect on students as the student is taught skills critical to his or her success as an adult. The inverse relationship between school and delinquency was also recognized. In addressing crime and the educational attainment, Harris wrote that those students who mastered reading and

writing were much less likely to reach the prisons or jails. Referring to an 1872 report by the U.S. Commissioner of Education, Harris wrote:

... the illiterate portion of the population in each State in the nation produces from four to fifteen times as many convicted criminals as an equal number of the population that can read and write ... The average of illiterates in the total population of the seventeen States was three and one-half per cent thus the percentage of illiterates who became criminals was seven times as large as that of the educated.

Scarritt (1883) pointed out in the *Journal of Education* that it was the business of the State to produce intelligent and morally sound citizens and to disregard the moral element in education would be tantamount to suicide. Scarritt wrote that intelligence is nowhere near the only requirement for good citizenship: “To make a good citizen, the child must be trained in the “great industrial, social, and civic virtues of honesty, chastity, truthfulness, justice, and responsibility for social order. These are all safeguards of national life.” (p. 339)

During the mid-1800s a largely popular set of readers infused with moral lessons, known as *McGuffey's Eclectic Readers*, were the basis for teaching literacy and math skills. Through religious stories, poems, and heroic tales, children were taught ethics, self-discipline, respect, honesty, hard work, cleanliness, responsibility, charity, thriftiness, empathy, and citizenship (Field, 1996; Greenawalt, 1996; Lickona, 1993; McClellan, 1999). Corinth (2009) wrote that the *McGuffey's Eclectic Readers* were widely used throughout schools in the U.S. from the mid-1830s until the 1920s, with more than 100 million copies sold; Corinth further stated that the readers are still in use today by some Amish communities and homeschooling families.

McGuffey Readers, according to Rebecca Shankland (1961) flourished in the Middle Border society, an area of backwoods settlements in the Ohio, Indiana, and

Missouri region that was home to the first surge of pioneers who moved west. It was, Shankland, reported a rough, crude, and vulgar area; the schools' mission was to "bring civilization to this emerging, still unfinished society" (p. 65). The school said Shankland became the bastion of morals and the stories in *McGuffey's Readers* were typical of the time, containing harsh consequences for children who disobeyed: "naughty boys drown and little girls who insist on tasting everything have the skin taken off their lips by a mysterious potion" (p. 63). There were frequent stories about dunces such as following from the *First Reader*, 1863:

O, what a sad, sad sight is this! A boy with a dunce-cap on his head! ... He is a bad boy. He talks and laughs in school. He loves to be idle, and does not learn his lesson.
 Does he not look bad? All the good boys shun him!
 Do you think a good boy can love a bad one? Can his teacher love him?
 I think not. No one loves a bad boy. No one can love those who are bad. (p.63)

Today, the work of the school is not to engage in stories such as *McGuffey's Readers* as morality has much deeper roots than suggested in his stories that ignored the complexities of morality (Shankland, 1961).

McGuffey's Readers, as established, were permeated with stories of morals and values; however, the development of the readers was not without controversy. In 1838 a rival publisher brought suit against McGuffey for plagiarism (Byington & Powys, 1964; Shankland, 1961). Much of the material according to Shankland was "borrowed from contemporary juvenile readers and schoolbooks"; Byington and Powys reported that the readers were composed of stories copied directly from the Worcester's series of readers, adding "that even the plan of the texts had been pirated" (p. 44). Shankland and Byington and Powers stated that the first readers were revised due to the lawsuit by publisher of the Worcester series of books. The suit, according to Byington and Powys,

was “settled by the payment of \$2,000 to the plaintiff” (p. 44). After a letter writing campaign initiated by his friend laid claims that McGuffey was unaware of copyright infringement as he “supposed all the selections he chose for his readers to be in common use” (p.44), McGuffey was exonerated for the intent to plagiarize (p. 44).

The belief exists that McGuffey authored the complete series of readers; Byington and Powys reported he actually authored one of the first four readers, with various others authoring the remainder of the series. Given the popularity of his name, McGuffey allowed it to be used in connection with the series of readers, including those he did not author (Byington & Powys).

Around the same time as the introduction of the *McGuffey* readers, education reformer Horace Mann recognized character development as exceedingly important in American schools and proposed that the goal of education was of a moral nature. Failing to make use of the opportunity presented in school to implant morals and values in youth was an opportunity lost; thus, the only other opportunity would be in “the penitentiary, the reformatory, or the asylum” (McClellan, 1999, p. 18; Seamon, 2011). According to Seamon, Mann saw education as a way to prevent poverty and crime; his belief in the aim of education was to develop character thereby creating a “higher level of individual and public morality in citizens” (p. 74). Mann, a Christian moralist, believed in the primacy of moral education and the duty of society to train children morally as well as intellectually (Jeynes, 2007). However, to teach morality without using texts that would favor one religious sect over another was problematic. Mann’s solution appears to be in direct opposition to Thomas Jefferson. While Mann is considered an important figure in American education as an advocate for a universal

public school system, he was also a politician. Mann proposed that the King James Bible provided the basis of ethical concepts and as such, required the Bible to be used in schools without commentary (Greenawalt, 1996; Seamon). Utilization of the King James Bible, wrote Seamon, was a politically savvy move as Mann sufficiently appeased the Protestant establishment enough to win their support for public education. Baer (1986) argues this point in a different light, referring to Mann as desiring the common schools to foster a liberal Unitarian/Protestant view, which he considered true and nonsectarian (p. 81). Mann, in effect, established “a de facto Protestant Christian public school” (p. 75) system, setting back Jefferson’s accomplishment in disentangling religion from public education (Seamon).

Early to Mid-20th century.

During the twentieth century interest in character education and the belief in the need for education in this area began to wane in U.S. society. By the mid-twentieth century public schools began to turn away from the idea of including character education in the curriculum. Educational battles in the last century, asserts Rivera (2005) have raged between domains some content are separate: intellectual and moral education.

Entering the twentieth century character education in the U.S. remained alive. At the turn of the century, the influx of immigrants, stated by Lerner (2007), generated a movement to bring moral education in schools into the political arena; similar to present-day sentiments of some, the general feeling was that parents in urban areas “were ill-equipped to properly train their children” (p. 131). In 1918, the Educational Policies Commission of the National Educational Association added “ethical character”

to the Seven Cardinal Principles (Lerner, p. 131). During this period according to Field (1996), the public school, largely through the *Children's Morality Code*, socialized children with morals considered important by middle class society. The code published in 1917 listed "ten laws of right living" (p. 50): self-control, truth, kindness, good workmanship, good health, sportsmanship, self-reliance, duty, reliability, and teamwork. When Boston added the 'law of obedience' the code became the basis of moral education in Boston from the 1920s through the 1930s (McClellan, 1999).

A national fear of the moral decline of youth in the 1920s drew significant attention to the inclusion of character education in the public school. Pollich, in 1926, described the Grant School's endeavor to develop a moral education program. Pollich wrote that every year the teachers picked an area to improve upon; one year it was reading, another year it was music, and so on. Through a democratic faculty organization; moral education was chosen for the school year 1924-1925. The staff developed their approach via a plan of study that consisted of five parts: concept of moral education, problem, purpose, method of attack, and program procedure. Pollich remarked that the "principal experienced some difficulty in keeping certain of the enthusiastic teachers from launching into the work" (p. 677) prior to the plan of procedure being fully developed. After searching through dictionaries, texts, etc., the teachers developed their own definition of the term moral education; deciding on: "Moral education in the elementary school is the developing of habits, ideals, and attitudes that will tend to make the child a citizen of outstanding character" (p. 677). Character traits were discussed "from every angle" (Pollich, p. 680).

In the mid-1920s, the Institute of Social and Religious Research issued a three-

volume report. *The Character Education Inquiry* reported a negligible difference between students in traditional character education programs versus those students who were not in the program (Field, 1996; Greenawalt 1996; Mulkey, 1997). This according to Greenawalt and McClellan (1999) marked a turning point in traditional character education and the public school. However, Leming (2008) pointed out that the Institute had no clear idea of what it was they were funding. Leming further indicated that the research moved from applied to one where measurement was stressed. This was at the direction of Edwin Thorndike, Director of the Division of Educational Psychology, as Thorndike's interest was in measurement, as opposed to research in schools. Leming reported that Thorndike "found schools to be a "bore" and urged his students not to spend time there" (p.19). Rather than a study on the practice of character and religious education to develop a knowledge base useful to practitioners, the focus was on the fundamental nature of character and measurement; only 3% or 50 out of 1,782 pages of text described the influence of character and religious instruction on youth (p. 20). The final bill for this study in today's dollars: \$1.6 million. Greenawalt wrote that the report impacted character education by causing a disjunction to arise (p. 3). Leming is not sure there is a clear relationship; given the vast number of teacher oriented character education publications of the 1930s.

Between the years of 1929 and 1940 there was a 73% decrease in journal citations under the heading of "character" or "character education", by contrast, the number of citations for "citizenship" or "citizenship education" remained relatively consistent (Leming, 2008, p. 30). Leming asserted this may have been the result of a shift of character education practices to social studies curriculum due to changes in

societal priorities – the term “character education” fell out of fashion, replaced by citizenship education.

The 1930s brought John Dewey, philosopher and educator of the early twentieth century. Dewey declared that the attention of public schools on moral education was fundamental and encouraged schools to provide an environment for student moral development in relationship to situational dilemmas (Hansen, 2007; Huitt, 2004; McClellan, 1999; Mulkey, 1997). Dewey, reported Hanson, believed moral knowledge encapsulated an understanding of justice, freedom, and virtue, and emphasized that moral principle should emerge concurrently with academic knowledge. In other words, as stated by McClellan, character should be viewed as knowledge of a particular set of virtues, or a way of thinking. McClellan wrote that Dewey in an attack on virtue-centered character education referred to morals as conceived in “too goody good a way” (p. 58). The education Progressives, of which Dewey was a member, were committed to a new method of moral education ignited by the novelty of modern industrialized society (McClellan); a society that promoted process, not product (Murphy, 2005). Hansen stated that Dewey saw a truly “civil civilization” (p. 179) as socially responsible with open communication between societal members; however, according to McClellan, Dewey provided no real way to get there. Dewey and the progressive movement provided no concrete guidance for their prescriptions (McClellan, Murphy). An idea of moral education that had no particular virtues and no clear path of moral development left educators confused. Consequently, teachers found it difficult to provide moral education (McClellan). Murphy argued that:

Dewey could be considered singularly responsible for the dramatic change in schools in the twentieth century, from the character promoting mission of

American education established in colonial days to the current situation in which violence, unethical behavior, and disrespect toward others runs rampant not only in our schools but also in our society (p. 285).

During the 1940s according to Field (1996), character education was debated among educators with most in agreement that it should be taught in some manner – some felt character education too ambiguous for inclusion in public education, some attempted to convince their colleagues by renaming character education – education for social adjustment, or building social foundations, but many maintained that social education could raise the civic and social consciousness of the young (Field). Bryson (1941) wrote that children must be taught in a variety of ways the importance of democracy in order to one day defend it. Character education, writes Field, moved toward civic education, and democratic ideals. In the 1940s it was reported in the *Journal of Education* that a 12-year-character-building program was recognized as contributing to a decrease in juvenile delinquency between the years 1940–1944 in Birmingham, Alabama. The program began in 1923 and emphasized 12 character development factors. Each factor was addressed individually for a 12-month period (Character Program Cuts Delinquency, 1946).

Allen (1944) wrote that one of the leading aims of education is citizenship and the preparation of students to one day participate in a democratic society; he asserted that the value of good citizenship can be cultivated in children by practicing the principles of good democratic living on a daily basis in the school setting. Allen, as director of the Greenwood Laboratory School, established the Good Character League in 1922. The objective of the League as set out in its constitution is to help students improve conduct in the classrooms, halls, and playground; additionally, Allen reported

that students in elementary school learn about good citizenship through participation in their own student government.

During World War II (WWII) students were taught the meaning of citizenship, patriotism, and character through development of wartime activities. Taylor (1943) wrote that while there was consternation on the part of some teachers in having students involved in wartime activities, it was generally believed that failure to address the war would generate fear and misunderstanding. It was also believed that students who could articulate their understanding and fear of the war would be better prepared “to meet war problems without confusion, fear or bewilderment” (p. 12) as well as be able to intelligently talk about world events. Different projects were offered by Taylor in her article *Wartime Courses of Study*; these projects included having children make flags to teach patriotism and war stamp posters to boost the sale of War Stamps and War Bonds, thereby teaching students to make safe investments as well as assisting government’s efforts to purchase needed war materials. Clyde Moore, a professor at Cornell University wrote in 1941, “We are not educating our children to suit the government but to be the government” (p. 287). Moore asserted that it had been known for some time that the public school was a dynamic force in the development of democratic ideals, civic consciousness, and national unity. When WWII ended, character education as a focus within the school setting began its descent.

Mid-20th century.

From the mid-1940s through 1950s the nation was consumed with anti-communism rhetoric. In response to the rhetoric, schools revamped moral and civic instruction focusing on the dangers of communism (McClellan, 1999). This shift in

priorities, according to McClellan marked the beginning of the decline of character education. Because of differing views on values and morals, coupled with differing views on the inclusion of these areas in the realm of the public school, character education was criticized from the 1950s through the 1980s. Field (1996) and McClellan (1999) asserted that citizenship education was recognized to be an important aspect of post-WWII education and it was in the 1950s that formal character education all but disappeared. The goals in American education shifted during this time; child centered philosophies along with job and life training were being questioned (Brimi, 2008). McClellan suggests the decline in character education began after WWII when anticommunist sentiments directed attention away from character education. At the end of the 1950s the Soviet Union launched Sputnik and attained atomic weaponry. The policy making role of the nation's educational arena was now with the federal government through the National Defense Education Act (Brimi, 2008).

Long established, the 1960s were a turbulent period in the history of the U.S. It was a time when individual rights were stressed (Krajewski & Bailey, 1999). Included among those who first felt the effects of the social tensions of the time were the teachers wrote McClellan (1999). Increasing involvement in education by the federal government compounded the problem (McClellan). Academic competence was becoming the leading issue in American education with educators viewing a focus on values or character as sacrificing academic achievement (Sanchez, 2005). Teachers, fearful of violating students' views and rights, abandoned character education (McClellan).

Damon (2005) reported a revival of the character education movement in the

early part of the 1970s. In the mid-1960s and into the 1970s two new approaches to moral development were employed – Values Clarification and Kohlberg’s moral development (Krajewski & Bailey, 1999). Where character education identifies specific accepted societal values, Values Clarification effectively said students form their own values. When students define their own set of values, negative behavior will subside and the student then becomes purposeful and proud (Lockwood, 2009). Values Clarification was similar to Kohlberg in that it was based on situational moral decision making; however, where the teacher would question the student on their reasoning in regard to a particular moral dilemma under Kohlberg (Lickona, 1991; Lockwood; McClellan, 1999), with Values Clarification, the expectation was that the teacher would not impart his or her views; if a response was required, the teacher was to explicitly state it was his or her opinion and may “not be desirable for another” (McClellan, p. 81). From its inception asserted McClellan, critics of Values Clarification believed it muddied the waters of moral principles; for example, one such criticism was that Values Clarification “makes all moral principles into values and values into matters of personal preference” (p. 81), in effect makes any enforcement of values a personal inclination. Lockwood claimed that this model of teaching values has been rejected as it is representative of contemporary societal problems. Students are left with the idea that any choice they make is correct as long as they can provide rationale for the choice; they are also left with the impression that their personal response is inconsequential as all choices appear appropriate (Ellenwood, 2007; Lockwood). Under this model, students are not taught the intricacies of moral decision making. Real-life problems are complex requiring the decision maker to sort through nuances and

implications; Values Clarification is devoid of this process. Additionally, this model positions the teacher more as facilitator rather than teacher, which in itself is problematic.

In the latter part of the 1960s Kohlberg presented his theory of moral judgment as a process that evolved over time. Kohlberg's theory of moral development consists of six stages that are organized into three levels. Each stage builds on the previous stage of moral development, progressing from obedience to conventional role of conformity to self-accepted moral principles. In speaking of character education classes, Kohlberg (1966) stated that conventional character education classes, which he saw more as instructional or teachers preaching over trivial matters, were "Mickey Mouse stuff in relationship to the real need for moral stimulation of the child" (p. 22). Kohlberg believed that the teacher should conform to the child's moral judgments as opposed to the child conforming to that of the teacher. While Kohlberg wrote that if moral verbalizations are to be effective, they "must be matched to the developmental level of the child" (p. 24); in the next sentence he wrote that moral verbalizations should be communicated "primarily at a level one stage above the child's own and secondarily at the child's own level" (p. 24).

In 1969 Kohlberg visited an Israeli high school located on Aliyah Kibbutz; where the student peer groups would self-promote moral development (Lerner, 2007). Inspired by this, Kohlberg brought this concept to the U.S. creating the Community School; however, it did not work quite as he thought – for example, in lieu of promoting actual morals and values, the students cancelled afternoon classes (Lerner). Kohlberg believed that students would learn ethics and values through situational vignettes in

which the students were presented with a moral dilemma and then asked whether the decision made by the ‘character’ was right or wrong and to explain their rationale (Lickona, 1991; Lockwood, 2009). The “What would you do?” model, according to Ellenwood (2007, p. 32) was seriously flawed as it did not allow for sustained discussion on the topic at hand, and it fostered a more individualized approach to public concerns. In 1978, Kohlberg himself reversed his position; he now felt that his original position on instructional moral education had been a mistake (Sommers, 2004). In the end, Jeynes (2007) writes that Kohlberg is praised for affirming the importance of moral education in a child’s development.

Values Clarification and Kohlberg’s moral reasoning approach both reduced teacher participation to a facilitator status (Leming, 1993). Studies investigating the results for Values Clarification and Kohlberg’s moral reasoning approach were weak at best; additionally, the research base for these two approaches offers little curricula planning assistance (Leming).

At the start of the 1980s William Bennett, Secretary of Education during the early Reagan years, actively called for schools to play a well-defined role in imparting character education; Bennett used his position within the Government to fuel the character education revival movement (McClellan, 1999). Starting in the mid-1980s until present day, character education has steadily moved back toward the educational arena. Krajewski and Bailey (1999) assert that the 1980s was the decade the school returned to its role in character development.

Glanzer and Milson (2006) and Lickona (1993) argue that it was in the early 1990s the field of character education began to change and a new contemporary

character education emerged. Around this time revitalization in the belief that schools should incorporate values and morals into their educational philosophy began to take hold. Hymowitz (2003) asserts that the return to character education was a response to the “moral vacuum” of the middle to late twentieth century which itself developed from social and scientific changes of the time (p. 105). Similar to Hymowitz, Damon (2005) pointed out that the ever-growing public views of violent schools filled with students who cheat helped create a robust movement toward character education.

Two lobbying and advocacy groups, the Josephson Institute of Ethics, later launching Character Counts, and the CEP rose to prominence in the early 1990s in their efforts to establish secular character education programs in the public school (Althof & Berkowitz, 2006; Cooley, 2008). The Josephson Institute of Ethics hosted a conference in July 1992 that resulted in the “Aspen Declaration of Character Education”; the mission of the Josephson Institute and the CEP both were comprised of a national coalition of business leaders, parents, youth leaders, and governmental leaders – the goal of these groups was to place character education at the top of the national education agenda (Lerner, 2007). Both groups found legislators receptive to the idea of character education as a tool for education reform by providing funds to combat a host of problems such as teenage pregnancy, dropout rates, and violence (Cooley; Lerner). Public Agenda, a public policy research organization, conducted a national public opinion survey in 1993. The study, *First Things First: What Americans Expect from the Public Schools*, revealed that 71% of the respondents favored teaching values over academic subjects, 95% indicated schools should teach honesty and respect for others, and 93% said schools should teach students to solve problems without violence

(Greenawalt, 1996). Code Blue, a report issued by a commission made up of leaders in business, medical, educational, and political fields in 1990 reported that the current generation of teenagers to be less prepared for life than any previous generation (Greenawalt). Lerner presented another view as to why there was a call for the revival of character education – classrooms without structure or behavioral rules created by misguided reforms such as Values Clarification.

21st century.

Entering the twenty-first century, the push for moral – character education continued. Vardin (2003) asserted that educators in the U.S. are revisiting character education in the twenty-first century. As McClellan (1999) pointed out, the revival of moral education is an ongoing revolution (p. 104). The same concerns voiced through the twentieth century, particularly the latter part of the twentieth century are still viable; consequently, the need for character education has not diminished. Smith (2006) argued that the perceived decline in moral conduct among young adult along with the very real activities of the corporate world – both unethical as well as illegal – increases the need for character education, particularly at the secondary level. Teachers and administrators will undoubtedly face challenges as they “develop and integrate integrated character education programs” (p. 20) given the pressures schools face to increase students’ academic performance (Smith).

Character Education: What, Why, Where

What is meant by character education today? Why is it considered important, and are the public schools the place to deliver character education? As seen in its history, character education has had a place, in some form or fashion, since the

inception of the country. Bryson (1941) argued that character is not just affected by education, it is created by education. Anderson (2000) asserted that effective educational programs are those that understand character education cannot be taught; rather it is entwined throughout the curriculum by providing learning environments where a common core of character traits such as respect, hard work, and fairness are incorporated.

A prominent leader in the character education movement, the CEP, explains that character education is composed of a broad range of educational approaches such as service learning, social-emotional learning, and civic education that provide solutions to issues such as bullying, cheating, and dropout rates that are of concern in many schools. The CEP (2010) promotes a comprehensive character education design as is found in their nationally recognized *11 Principles of Effective Character Education*:

1. The school community promotes core ethical and performance values as the foundation of good character (p. 2).
2. The school defines “character” comprehensively to include thinking, feeling, and doing (p. 4).
3. The school uses a comprehensive, intentional, and proactive approach to character development (p. 6).
4. The school creates a caring community (p. 8).
5. The school provides students with opportunities for moral action (p. 10).
6. The school offers a meaningful and challenging academic curriculum that respects all learners, develops their character, and helps them to succeed (p. 12).
7. The school fosters students’ self-motivation (p.14).

8. The school staff is an ethical learning community that shares responsibility for character education and adheres to the same core values that guide the students (p. 16).

9. The school fosters shared leadership and long-range support of the character education initiative (p. 18).

10. The school engages families and community members as partners in the character-building effort (p. 20).

11. The school regularly assess its culture and climate, the functioning of its staff as character educators, and the extent to which its students manifest good character (p. 22).

According to Bryson (1941) it is the teacher's primary job to instill in his or her students the knowledge that with freedom comes responsibility; the basic characteristic of someone "fit to live in a democracy is that he is morally and intellectually mature" (p. 297).

It is universally agreed that the child's parents are his or her first character education teacher; home is the starting point for the child's developing character. However, all children do not have a significant adult in their life to impart good and bad, right and wrong. In the years 1963 through 1980 teachers were blamed for the decline in Scholastic Achievement Test (SAT) scores; however, as Jeynes (2007) wrote, societal factors most likely played a larger role than did school factors – in 1963 divorce rates surged then climbed 17 consecutive years, the increase in the use of illegal drugs demonstrated a very similar trend to divorce. During this same time period, as

previously shown, instruction in morals, values, virtues, in other words, character education, was also either limited or absent from schools.

As pointed out in the seminal research by Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck (1952), the school is an important training ground for children. It is in school where children learn socialization skills, further their development, or for some, initially develop, the concepts of moral and ethical values such as trust, honesty, confidence, and communication competency. Character education can change student perception of morals, ethics, the school climate, and life overall (Romanowski, 2005).

Dr. Thomas Lickona, considered a leader in the field of character education, wrote *Educating for Character* in 1991, the book reintroduced the idea that all people can agree upon a set of common beliefs and values. In *Educating for Character*, Lickona listed ten reasons why schools should be committed to teaching moral values and developing good character:

1. There is a clear and urgent need as young people are increasingly hurting themselves and others.
2. Transmitting values is and always has been the work of civilization for a society to survive and thrive.
3. The school's role as moral educator becomes even more vital at a time when millions of children get little moral teaching from their parents and when value-centered influences such as religious affiliation are also absent from their lives.
4. There is common ethical ground even in our value-conflicted society; Americans can identify basic, shared values that allow for public moral education in a pluralistic society.

5. Democracies have a special need for moral education, because democracy is government by the people themselves, people must care about the rights of others and be willing to assume the responsibilities of democratic citizenship.

6. There is no such thing as a value-free education, everything a school does teaches values, to include the way teachers and other adults treat students and others within the schoolhouse.

7. Moral questions are among the great questions facing the individual person and the human race, the two most important questions we face address how we live with each other and how we live with nature.

8. There is a broad-based, growing support for values education in the schools coming from educators, parents, and businesses.

9. An unabashed commitment to moral education is essential if we are to attract and keep good teachers; Keven Ryan of Boston University asserts that creating a civil humane community in the school will improve the lives of teachers.

10. Values education is a doable job, values education can be done within the school day, as it is now happening in school systems across the country (p. 20-22).

Welsh, Parke, Widaman, & O'Neil (2001) reported on the relationship between social and academic competence to determine the direction of influence between these two areas over time. The results indicated that over time academic competence exerts a significant influence over social competence. Academic competence in first grade positively influenced social competence in the second grade, lower academic competence in first grade negatively influenced social competence in the second grade; the pattern was replicated from second to third grade. Welsh, et al., reported that it is

essential to a child's success in the school setting for academic and social variables to be acknowledged as contributing factors.

In response to several states enacting laws holding parents responsible for the crimes committed by their minor children, le Sage and de Ruyter (2008) agreed that parents can be blamed as they have an educational duty to morally educate their child to assist the child in developing into a morally competent adult. However, the researchers argue that parents are not solely responsible; teachers also have a duty to advance that same goal by providing a good education. To blame the parents solely ignores the duty of the state to address poor schooling as well as unstable social environments, both known to have a causal influence; the state is obliged to morally educate children. According to le Sage and de Ruyter, research on moral qualities – moral reasoning, perspective taking, behavioral control skills – indicate that “these qualities can be developed and educated” (p.796).

Character Education Research

There is growing evidence that school-based social, emotional, character education positively impacts student development, behavior, and academics. Since the early 1990s, in recognition of the societal need for children to grow and develop into socially competent, ethically directed adults several formal organizations have been established. Elias, Parker, Kash, & Dunkeblau (2007) pointed out that these organizations were formed to help “codify and promulgate theory, research, and practice in moral and character education” (p. 176). Elias, et al., argued that social-emotional learning and character education are not mutually exclusive; these two domains, in fact, complement and reinforce each other. The researchers pointed to the

work of Rutgers University in bringing social emotional learning together with character and moral education; the idea being that students who are socialized in these two domains will grow into socially and emotionally capable competent adults who are ethically and morally capable of participating and contributing to a democratic society.

A sampling of current character education research is offered in reverse chronological order starting with 2012 and ending with 2001. One international study, conducted in England, is included as students are relatively close in culture to American students.

Snyder, Vuchinich, Adcock, Washburn, & Flay (2012) investigated a school-wide social-emotional and character education program, Positive Action, in Hawai'i. Utilizing a matched pair, cluster-randomized controlled design, the Positive Action trial included 20 racially and ethnically diverse schools from the 2002-2003 through the 2005-2006 school years. School level archival data were used to examine program effects at one-year post trial. Teacher, parent, and student data were analyzed to examine indicators of school quality such as student safety, well-being, involvement, satisfaction, and overall school quality. The researchers reported that analyses comparing change from baseline to one-year post-trial revealed the intervention schools demonstrated significantly improved school quality compared to control schools, with 21%, 13% and 16% better overall school quality scores reported by teachers, parents, and students, respectively. Improvement was found in student safety, well-being, involvement, satisfaction, quality student support, focused and sustained actions, standards based learning, professionalism and system capacity, and coordinated team work. Teacher reports also indicated improvement in the system's responsiveness.

Durlack, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger (2011) conducted a meta-analysis of school-based, universal social-emotional learning programs involving students in kindergarten through high school. Studies eligible for review met the following criteria: 1) studies were written in English, 2) appeared in published or unpublished form by the end of December 2007, 3) emphasized development of one or more social-emotional skills, 4) targeted students ages 5 through 18 without adjustment or learning difficulties, 5) included a control group, and 6) reported sufficient information to allow for calculations at post and follow-up data, if collect. Six dependent variables were employed with this meta-analysis: 1) social and emotional skills, 2) attitudes toward self and others, 3) positive social behaviors, 4) conduct problems, 5) emotional distress, and 6) academic performance. Durlak, et al reported the sample consisting of 213 studies involving 270,034 students. Approximately 75% of the studies were published during the last two decades, 47% employed randomized designs, elementary school made up 56% of the study, 31% were middle school, the remaining 13% were high school students. Student ethnicity was not included in 31% of the studies nor was socioeconomic status for 32%. Thirty-three or 15% of the studies met the criteria of at least 6 months for collecting follow-up data; the average follow-up period across all outcomes was 92 weeks for these 33 studies.

Durlak, et al (2011) reported that Classroom by Teacher programs were found to be effective in all six outcome categories, and multi-component programs were effective in four outcome categories. Only three significant outcomes were produced by programs delivered by non-school personnel. Student academic performance significantly improved only when school personnel conducted the interventions. Multi-

component program effects were comparable to but not significantly higher than those obtained in the Classroom by Teacher programs in four outcome areas; and they did not yield significant effects for social-emotional learning skills or positive social behavior.

For the most part, Durlak, et al (2011) reported findings from the meta-analysis that indicated social emotional learning as beneficial; significant positive effects on targeted social-emotional competencies and attitudes about self, others, and school were found. Additionally, students' behavioral adjustment in the form of increased prosocial behaviors and reduced conduct and internalizing problems, as well as improved academic performance on achievement tests and grades were enhanced. Based on a small subset of all reviewed studies, the 11% gain in academic achievement is notable. It should be noted that studies targeting students with learning or behavioral deficits were excluded from the meta-analysis.

White and Warfa (2011) reported the results of an action research study that investigated the impact of character education on school climate and student behavior in an elementary school in East Anglia, England. Participants in the study were 234 elementary school students, this study included students with learning difficulties. The students' scores in English, math, and science were well below national averages. The school was a mix of working and middle-class families, 17% on free school lunch. Baseline data was collected from students, staff, and parent questionnaires, observations and semi-structured interviews with random students and all staff in addition to archival data regarding suspensions, behavioral referrals/actions, absenteeism and truancy. Training was provided with teachers and support staff. The interviews revealed the staff believed the school to be deteriorating to a climate of disillusionment and chaos:

Teacher 1: Sometimes I just don't want to come to school in the morning I'm so tired It is a constant struggle I used to love teaching when I first started [17 years service]; now it is just a constant struggle (p.51)

Special education needs coordinator: At this point, I'm just running from crisis to crisis in the classroom; on the playground, all I do is deal with aggressive, angry behavior (p. 51).

Student responses were equally deflating.

Student 15: I hate school anyway, so who cares what they [teachers] do When I get excluded, I do what I want So, who cares (p. 52)?

Student 23: The focus is all on the bad kids; they get tons of stickers, play on the computer, and even get someone to write all of their work What is that (p. 52)?

Significant results in all measures were found six months after implementation of the program (White & Warfa, 2011). Teacher content delivery increased from 29% to 66%; behavior issues in the classroom decreased from 66% to 18%; relationship building between teachers and students during class time increased from 5% to 16%; on-task behaviors increased from 28% to 49%, and off-task behavior decreased from 72% to 51%. Disruptive incidents and office referrals also showed significant gains. The mean of office referrals decreased from 12.27 to 0.62 and from 17.83 to 2.17 for disruptive behaviors.

Equally important were the post-program interviews:

Teacher 1: It is remarkable Pupils are smiling, happy Laughter has returned and while, um I feel as if ... as it used to be, you know, fun to teach (p. 55).

Special education needs coordinator: Morale has just skyrocketed (p. 55).

Pupil 15: It is a lot easier to make friends now I think because when while there's a lot less bullying and learning is more fun and like we get to do cool stuff The Student Support Centre really helped and now I know what it means to be part of a team (p. 56).

Pupil 7: School's harder ... you know, I mean you can't really mess about and stuff and you have to work. [When asked to explain further the pupil continued.] You know ... I mean it [messing around] just isn't right anymore, and it hurts everyone, well, you know ... it isn't what a hero would do is it (p. 56)?

Qualitative and quantitative data strongly suggests that constructing a school of character may address ongoing concerns over academic engagement as well as anti-social behavior. The underpinnings of the program designed to build character were “universally valued personality traits” (p. 57): respect, responsibility, honesty, trustworthiness, caring and fairness.

Berkowitz and Bier (2007) reviewed the existing research to identify the most common effects of educational interventions as well as the shared practices of those programs. In collaboration with the CEP along with a panel of experts in social-emotional learning, drug and alcohol prevention, and teacher/classroom effects on students, the researchers collected 109 research studies and 5 focused program reviews. Of the 109, studies 73 were considered to have met the criteria for scientific study: a random or comparison group was included, pre and post-design were utilized, or a method to establish equivalency of the program and control groups was incorporated, delayed posttests, statistical significance was reported, research was published in a peer-reviewed journal, assessment of program implementation was included. Program effectiveness was then determined with 33 programs found to be effective. There were 64 studies regarding the 33 effective programs; 88% of the 64 studies demonstrated program effectiveness. The most commonly found significant outcome effects included: socio-moral cognition, prosocial behaviors and attitudes, violence/aggression, knowledge of risk behaviors, emotional competency, and character knowledge. The researchers point to the results of the study as evidence that character education can

promote the development of a wide range of psychological outcomes that can be considered facets of character.

As previously indicated the studies of the positive effects of character education on academics and behaviors are growing. Additional studies include Parker, Nelson & Burns' (2010) examination of the relationship between variables that affect classroom behavior and observed behavior in schools with and without character education. Looking at the observational data from 12 elementary schools comparing the control and treatment conditions to the percentage of students receiving free and reduced lunch and class size, Parker, et al., found more behavioral problems in the control schools than in the treatment schools. It was noted that the intervention appeared to have an effect on behavioral problems in those classrooms with ongoing intervention. The researchers warn that findings should be interpreted with caution as no baseline data was collected.

Miller, Kraus, & Veltkamp (2005) researched the effects of character education on violence prevention with all the 4th grade students in 11 predominately rural elementary schools in one school district. Students were divided into a control setting, intervention settings with three types of intervention, one with character education curriculum only, one with character education and summer program, and one with character education, summer program, plus family intervention. Miller, et al found that those students who received character education and the summer program had the greatest increase in school bonding and school activities. Those students who received all three interventions had the greatest gain in social competence, the lowest gains were found with those students receiving the curriculum alone.

Benninga, Berkowitz, Kuehn, & Smith (2011) examined applications from 681 elementary schools applying for the California Distinguished Schools Award in 2002. In their discussion of the results, the researchers report the results indicated a composite summary score of character education criteria to be positively correlated with academic indicators across years. Of the diverse sample of schools, those that included effective character education as part of their curriculum tended to have higher academic achievement scores.

Maguin and Loeber (1996) in their investigation into the delinquency and academic performance relationship conducted a meta-analysis of 106 naturalistic studies and 12 intervention studies; they found that academic performance predicted delinquency independent of socioeconomic status. Youths with lower academic performance, according to the researchers offended more frequently and persistently and committed violent offenses. Intervention studies grounded in moral education were successful in producing improvements in academic performance and reductions in delinquency; other studies showing significant academic performance results utilized social skills training and self-control training for boys (Maguin & Loeber). Payne, Gottfredson and Gottfredson (2003) found that by increasing communal school organization and greater student bonding there was a decrease in delinquency. Factors such as school community and student bonding are characteristics of effective character education offered by Berkowitz and Bier (2004).

Romanowski conducted two studies on high school experiences with character education – the first, 2003, with students, the second, 2005, with teachers. Both studies were descriptive in nature, no evaluation of the program itself was conducted. In 2003,

Romanowski asked students in one high school what they thought about the character education program instituted in their school in the wake of the Columbine High School tragedy. Over 25% of the student population – 144 students – were interviewed.

Students were asked what they felt the purpose of program was, if they viewed the program as effective, what their overall view, positive and negative, was on the program, and what they felt teachers and administrators of the school needed to know regarding their perspectives on the implementation of a character education program.

The character education program consisted of a formal 30 minute class every Tuesday and Thursday referred to as “Team Time” – the objective was to “develop students who know, desire, and do right” (p. 5). Students, while most believed character education was important, questioned the need for such a program at the high school level – the argument used by the majority of the students was that it was too late to teach character in high school, character education was something that should be taught at the elementary and middle school levels. Students regarded the curriculum as demeaning – worksheets, posters, word of the week – were all viewed as ineffective, students saw these methods as simplistic.

Student resistance was not directed at the specific character traits being promoted, rather, their resistance was focused on their belief they already knew the traits, and were being forced to participate in meaningless activities. Some students joked about the program, others chose to ignore what the teacher was doing by passing notes or talking about “more important things” with other students (p. 12). One student reported:

We mock the program. Like if Mrs. Smith tells us that we should do something then we will exaggerate it times ten. We will beat it to death. If we are learning

compassion or something we will be so nice to each other until it is over and out of her sight. We just make fun of it. (p. 11)

Students also cited teacher apathy or outright criticism of the program. The students' view of teacher opposition to the character education program was not directed toward the character traits, but against the use of a separate class to teach character. Students pointed to the use of Team Time by some teachers as a study hall, thereby passively resisting; others were openly hostile attacking the program's activities as "stupid" or "dumb" (p.13). In light of the teachers' authority, teacher resistance in effect devalued the program and "justified students' negative views, nonparticipation, and their own resistance" (p.13). One of the most important aspects of character education is that the educator models the traits being taught (Narvaez & Lapsley, 2008). Students regarded the lack of consistent role modeling as evidence that the program was ineffective.

Four examples of when students felt they gained something from the program was when 1) a guest speaker, a Viet Nam veteran, came and spoke of real life experiences, 2) the day the teacher was out and a substitute had the students "sit in a semi-circle and had a class discussion about the value we were on and how it was used in our everyday life" (p. 15), 3) the one teacher who used a program poster to prompt students to keep up their homework – the students believed the teacher "changed her own behavior by applying the poster to her own life and forced them to own up to their responsibilities" (p. 11) when she told them she would no longer nag them for homework, and 4) the use of popular culture – one teacher used an episode of *The Simpsons* to discuss Bart's disrespectful behavior. Some students reported that the program would help them raise their own children.

While Romanowski (2003) offered a number of student comments in his study, the following three statements sum up the student views:

They are teaching us how to be nice to people so they give us a word search. You don't learn how to be nice to people by doing a word search. Some of this stuff is ineffective ... a lot of true and false stuff. I don't think you can teach character with busy work (p. 9)

I am 15 years old and nothing Mrs. Smith says to me or any stupid worksheet or videotape about how sensitive or how many random acts of kindness I should do is going to help me or change me ... I think my character can change but not the way they are doing it. (p. 13)

Teachers who are trying to teach character education don't have the character traits that they are trying to teach. Things that teachers say are rude and shouldn't be said but they are. Then they tell us to respect others? (p. 14)

In 1993, Williams addressed the very issues the students spoke of – teachers practicing what they teach. Williams further stated that failure on the part of teachers to create respectful and ethically sound classrooms risks graduating students, future citizens, who will lack a sense of societal responsibility.

In 2005, Romanowski, interviewed 16 of the 32 teachers (including the program coordinator) involved with the character education program at the same high school in which the students were interviewed. The questions were the same, except, now the teachers were asked about the students. The program, “Teen Time” when the students were interviewed was 30 minutes long; Teen Time was reduced to 20 minutes when the interview with the teachers took place. Various curricula were utilized within the program as it had been when the students were interviewed.

The disconnect in some areas can be seen in the student and teacher responses. Students reported they did not gain anything from the program; however, teachers reported that students were “more aware of character and moral issues” because of the

program or another teacher who felt the program made the students “stop and think” (Romanowski, 2005, p. 10).

Teachers felt that the administration supported the program on a superficial basis – enough to secure funding. Several teachers cited an incident at a basketball game involving students acting inappropriately. The behavior of the student was directly opposite the character traits of the program and “embraced by the administration” (p. 12). One teacher asked the students to leave the gym and discussed their behavior with them – “pointing to the character traits developed” (p. 12) at the school. However, this was not the end of the incident:

The next day the administration was called by one of the student’s parents who was a current member of the School Board. After much discussion with the administration, the teacher was told to apologize to the students for his comments and behavior. If he chose not to, there would be consequences.

This incident, argued the teachers who were aware of it, demonstrated how politics interfaced with reality. The message the teachers received was that character education is important for some students, but not for the students with powerful parents. As stated by one teacher “the administration supports character education at the public relations level because of funding but not in the daily actions of the school” (Romanowski, 2005, p. 12).

Every teacher interviewed agreed with the students’ view that the curriculum and pedagogical strategies used in the program were not age appropriate, not relevant to the students, and were limited to basic “memory level thinking skills” (p. 15).

Comments from the teachers in this area mirrored those of the students:

Many of the activities need to be more challenging. Students don’t care for things like doing a word search or some kind of activity paper. You can’t worksheet them to death especially worksheets about character traits.

There is a lack of relevancy. Many of the video tapes are just not realistic and many of the dilemmas are rather obvious and really don't allow for any substantial discussion.

According to Romanowski (2005), teachers reported that lack of parental agreement was the death knell to character education. Some parents, they reported, defended and attempted to justify the behavior of their children and instead of agreeing with the school's position they threatened legal action. Teachers wanted to know when it was that parents would be held accountable, stating that until this was accomplished the program, character education itself, would not be taught in any meaningful way:

Until you get "buy in" from home, character education will never be completely successful ... our students had a drinking party after homecoming. Why didn't those parents understand that was wrong? Why didn't those parents understand that they just demonstrated a role model for those students that had completely inappropriate behavior and why are those same parents paying for lawyers to get their kid off when in reality the kid is guilty as can be? The parents should be stepping up to the plate and saying I was wrong; you are wrong and accept the punishment. But parents are not doing this. So until parents step forward and say that it is unacceptable behavior [the program] won't work. (p. 16)

Schools cannot shoulder the responsibility alone, family peers, and societal influences have "equal or perhaps greater importance" (p. 17).

In comparing student and teacher interviews, Romanowski (2005) found agreement on the curriculum as simplistic, unrealistic, and not at all relevant. Students believed "there little need for character education", especially what was presented to them as they already had a grasp of the traits being taught. Teachers, on the other hand, felt that "there was a need to develop awareness of character issues with students" (p. 19). Where students stated that teachers failed to demonstrate the character traits, teachers stated that the administration failed to demonstrate the character traits as they "conduct school business". Students cited lack of faculty involvement and faculty cited

lack of parental involvement as the source of the ineffectiveness of the program (p. 19). Both students and teachers offered valuable suggestions to enhance the program.

Romanowski (2005) argued that schools have a responsibility to develop students' character; however, the use of slogans, posters does not develop character – nor does reducing character education to a course or a lesson.

The largest federal study was conducted on seven character building / social development programs. The study reviewed the effects of school-based programs in several areas: social and emotional competence, behavior, student achievement, and perceptions of school climate. The study gauged the programs individually and jointly (Social and Character Development Research Consortium, 2010). The findings, according to Sparks (2010), indicated no improvement on student behavior or academic performance. The report reported the following three issues with data collection: 1) with the exception of one program, implementation began before initial data collection for six of the research teams (the interlude ranged from 2 to 6 weeks). Additionally, for all schools, teachers and principals received training on the intervention before the fall 2004 data collection resulting in captured data of what was being done at the time – subsequently, the fall 2004 reports are unlikely to reflect the true pre-intervention condition, 2) data were not successfully collected from all students, primary caregivers, and teachers, and 3) the evaluation did not follow all students originally assigned to the treatment or control groups because data were not collected from students who left the schools (Social and Character Development Research Consortium). Sparks did not report the anomalies in data collection; she did report that character education advocates believe the study did not invest enough time to observe slower emerging outcomes.

Additionally, the fact that the majority of teachers go through teacher education programs that largely ignore character education was not mentioned. One or two weeks of training on a program does not necessarily produce quality teaching. Without the requisite background, how can the fidelity of program delivery truly be measured?

Character Education Divergent Viewpoints

The role of the school in teaching character education as part of the curricula has been and continues to be a subject of controversy. With the renaissance of character education in U.S. schools came the questions – what is character education, whose values and morals are taught, is it not the parents responsibility to raise a moral child, why should the schools be responsible, and isn't character education about religion?

Much of the twentieth century was centered on the same questions seen today. A good deal of the literature is supportive of character education, or social-emotional character development; however, there are alternative perspectives. Moreover, there are those who, like Kohn (1997), are not in opposition to the ideals and goals of character education in and of themselves, the objection is to the means through which these ideals and goals are promoted. No one side is entirely right or entirely wrong.

Character education proponents.

- The American workforce comes from its schools. The survey responses collected from the personnel directors of major industries rated habits and motivation as more important than technical skills (Benninga, 2003).
- The school setting may be the only place that students learn physical and/or emotional abuse is not acceptable, alcohol and drugs are not commonplace in the home, how to handle hostility, and receive encouragement to become

independent thinkers committed to doing the right thing regardless of the circumstances (Creasy, 2008).

- Many children are growing up in homes headed by working parents who are exhausted when they come; the latch-key children are left with an abundant amount of time for exposure to negative influences of gangs or violent media (Schaeffer, 1999).
- Effective, broad-ranging character education helps students to develop important human qualities such as justice, diligence, compassion, respect, courage and the skills to understand why it is important to live by these qualities. (Lickona, Schaps, & Lewis, 2011).
- Since the beginning of the 1980s, public opinion began to demand that schools reassert their traditional role of providing moral education for children; today the general public along with educators agrees that character education should be provided by the school in some form or fashion (Pearson & Nicholson, 2000).
- The values of respect, dignity, honesty, responsibility, and functioning in a democratic society should be taught in the public schools; since the mid-1990s, universal morals and ethics have been the foundation of character education in schools (Lickona, 1991).
- Character education has certain features that dovetail nicely with the characteristics of gifted children; providing opportunities to act on character is a powerful means of fostering character development and corresponds with the assertiveness and altruism associated with many gifted students. Gifted students

are particularly prone to the injustice and stifling nature of traditionally hierarchical authoritarian school and classroom structures – character education supports the development of particularly civic democratic character (Berkowitz & Hoppe, 2009).

Character education opponents.

- Society is increasingly looking to the schools to serve as “surrogate parents” when it comes to moral education; the character education “industry” is orienting itself to a McDonaldization³ model – one of efficiency, control, and predictability, this can be a dangerous course. Legislators and policy makers who are more focused on reaching an agreement on what is taught as opposed to how it is taught may detrimentally affect the product (Hudd, 2011).
- Character education can be described as a collection of didactic teaching exercises which promise extrinsic rewards that, in actuality dilute intrinsic motivation – doing good for the reward, not because it is the right thing to do; no one benefits when people are trained not to question the value of what they have been told to do, and regard it as virtuous; the seriatim approach of – if it’s Tuesday it must be honesty – is unlikely to result in any lasting commitment to any values (Kohn, 1997).
- The public wants the school to accomplish what is not occurring in the home; problems that appear out of reach for parents are palmed off to the classroom – similar to sex or drug education. Social learning competes with character education as ‘if it feels good do it’ cultural messages are in direct conflict with the values schools teach. Schools in and of themselves are contradictory; for

instance, when told to think critically, students find themselves labeled as difficult when their thoughts differ from those of the teacher (Lasley, 1997).

- Didactic methods alone – codes, pledges, teacher catchphrases – are unlikely to produce noteworthy change or have lasting effects on character; students’ capacity to reason in regard to questions concerning morality and do not result in a related change in conduct (Leming, 1993).
- When morals and character are emphasized in the school and not in society at large, children are set up to fail; character education programs in the school alone are limited in their beneficial rewards; character education programs require a sustained effort beyond the classroom and the school (Cooley, 2008).
- The history of education is in part the history of fads, and fads are generally ahead of the research. Bad news arrives that the approach was ineffective, fad goes away; much like what happened with character education in the twentieth century. Teaching character is considered a holistic enterprise; holistic becomes totalitarianism, before long, teachers and administrators view themselves as “engineers of the human soul” (Davis, 2003, p. 48, 51).
- The traditional character education approach “is to move the discussion away from the extremely controversial realm of ideological dispute toward the safe and presumably more consensual realm of desirable personal traits, to convert social and political issues into educational and pedagogical ones, and to focus on stability rather than transformation” (Purpel, 2011, p. 43).

Given government mandates and regulations, as well as state legislatively mandated directives that place character education in public schools, the question of

whether or not character education should be implemented in schools is becoming less relevant (Was, Woltz, & Drew, 2006).

Legislation

Legislation at the federal and state levels have recognized and addressed the need for character development to be delivered through the school.

Federal level.

In 1965 Lyndon Johnson signed into law the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act* (ESEA). In 1994, Bill Clinton signed into law the *Improving America's Schools Act of 1994* (IASA). IASA was a reauthorization of ESEA. At the same time IASA was signed in to law, the *Goals 2000: Educate America Act* (Goals 2000) also took effect. Goals 2000 assisted in the establishment of a framework for comprehensive, standards-based education reform. ISIA created the Partnerships in Character Education Pilot Project and authorized up to a total of 10 grants annually to state education for the design and implementation of character education projects.

In 2001, George Bush signed into law *No Child Left Behind* (NCLB), this law was, again, a reauthorization of the 1964 ESEA. NCLB also addressed character education under Section 7247 – Partnerships in character education program. NCLB expired September 30, 2007; however, since no reauthorization has taken place since NCLB expired, the law remains in effect. According to a member of North Carolina Senator Richard Burr's staff, at this time no action is being considered on the reauthorization of NCLB (personal communication, 12/2012).

A number of revisions have been recommended; among these revisions is language specific to character education and social-emotional learning as reported by

CASEL. On their Website, CASEL (February 29, 2012) has posted a report on the status of the ESEA Reauthorization Draft. The following information is reported:

In October 2011, the Senate HELP Committee passed draft legislation to reauthorize ESEA. CASEL reports the draft bill including *Title IV- Successful, Safe and Healthy Students* which contained language in Part C – Section 4302(a) addressing the development of “social and emotional competencies”; and *Title IX – General Provisions* which spoke to promoting “social, emotional, and character development”.

On February 9, Student Success Act (3989) and the Encouraging Innovation and Effective Teachers Act (HR3990) were introduced. On February 28 the committee marked-up the bill which would reauthorize portions of the ESEA and the bill passed out of committee on a partisan vote.

On May 29, 2012, Representative Bob Dold [R-IL] joined 15 other U.S. Representatives in cosponsoring H.R. 2437: *Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning Act of 2011*. Between May 29th and November 13th, 2011 five additional state representatives have signed as cosponsors of this bill. As stated by Berkowitz and Bier (2005) in their research on effective character education programs, the label (i.e., character education, social-emotional learning) is not as important as the underlying premise. This Act employs verbiage such as: maintain focus and effect in the face of setbacks, productive work, engaged citizens, good communicators and problem-solvers, decreasing delinquency and alcohol abuse, impulse control, and social awareness. These characteristics are essentially the same as those associated with character education.

Elected officials of the U.S. House of Representatives recognize and are acting on the need for school-based endeavors to aid in the development of pro-social and positive character development of children.

Howard, Berkowitz & Schaeffer (2004) reported that 45 states and the District of Columbia received and implemented character education grants in the years 1995 to 2001, the first version of the Character Education Pilot Program (p. 209). Between the years 2003 and 2008, the U.S. DoE awarded 89 grants to help schools implement programs designed to help students develop good character and citizenship. Grants ranged in amounts from \$290,000 to \$650,000. Total grant awards per year ranged from \$1.3 million to \$15.5 million (U.S. DoE-b).

State level.

Glanzer and Milson (2006) point out that a number of states passed new character education legislation or revamped old legislation pertaining to character education between the latter part of the twentieth century and the early part of the twenty-first century. Educators, legislators, and jurists have all recognized that character and citizenship are fundamental to the school experience (Uerling, 1995).

At the state level, Cooley (2008) reports that two lobbying and advocacy groups, namely Character Counts! and the CEP demonstrated great success in persuading state and federal legislators that funding character education pilot programs would aid in combating societal problems such as violence and kids dropping out of school. Since pilot programs are coming to a close, a number of states, through legislative means, permanently codified character education into the curriculum (Cooley, 2008).

The CEP (n.d.) reports on its Website that character education is mandated through legislation in: Alabama, Alaska, Arkansas, California, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Nebraska, New York, North Carolina, South Carolina,

South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, and West Virginia. Nebraska, for example, mandates character education:

Each teacher employed to give instruction in any public, private, parochial, or denominational school in the State of Nebraska shall arrange and present his or her instruction to give special emphasis to common honesty, morality, courtesy, obedience to law, respect for the national flag, the United States Constitution, and the Constitution of Nebraska, respect for parents and the home, the dignity and necessity of honest labor, and other lessons of a steadying influence which tend to promote and develop an upright and desirable citizenry (Nebraska Revised Statute 79-725).

Through legislation, character education is encouraged in: Arizona, Colorado, Delaware, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Texas, and Washington. For example, in July 2004, P.L. 536, No. 70 amended the Pennsylvania Public School Code to encourage character education. The Pennsylvania code speaks to authorization by stating:

The board of school directors of a school district may establish and implement a character education program in its schools. (b) Curriculum contents.--The program may include and teach the following basic civil values and character traits: (1) Trustworthiness, including honesty, integrity, reliability and loyalty. (2) Respect, including regard for others, tolerance and courtesy. (3) Responsibility, including hard work, economic self-reliance, accountability, diligence, perseverance and self-control. (4) Fairness, including justice, consequences of bad behavior, principles of nondiscrimination and freedom from prejudice. (5) Caring, including kindness, empathy, compassion, consideration, generosity and charity. (6) Citizenship, including love of country, concern for the common good, respect for authority and the law and community mindedness. (c) Additional elements.--The program may also include and teach the importance of a service ethic and community outreach. (Title 22, Section 1502-E, p. 428).

In Connecticut, the District of Columbia, Hawai`i, Idaho, Massachusetts, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Jersey, New Mexico, North Dakota, and Vermont, character education is supported, but without legislation. The CEP (n.d.) reports, for

example, that the Legislature of Hawai'i proposed a bill to adopt character education as policy in 2001; there has been no movement on the bill since its introduction in 2002. However, in 2005, the State Board of Education designated Board Policy 2109 supporting character education as an effective and valuable teaching resource.

Character education is not specifically addressed in New Hampshire, Wisconsin, and Wyoming. These three states do, however, address safety and violence prevention, democratic citizenship and morality, bullying, and drug awareness, (CEP, n.d.).

Cooley (2008) addresses North Carolina's legislation, the Student Citizen Act of 2001. This legislation mandates character education in the curriculum; it also modifies the social studies curriculum "to instruct students on participation in the democratic process and to give them hands-on experience in participating in the democratic process" (p. 193). The law in North Carolina while allowing local school boards the flexibility to develop and implement character education has, according to Cooley, tied the hands of the local school boards by enumerating traits to be addressed and then mandating their inclusion. Cooley points out that no rationale was offered as to why these particular traits were not taught previously or why/how certain activities provided in the handbook would expose students to the traits without didactic lecturing. The handbook, designed to serve as a resource for teachers by expanding the codified traits for teachers, is problematic (Cooley). He offers the following example from page 5 of the 2002 handbook:

Diversity. Reverend Martin Luther King Jr. had a dream that one day his children would be judged, "not by the color of their skin, but by the content of their character." That dream becomes a real possibility when we realize that nearly all cultures, world religions and schools of thought have their most basic tenet in common—TREAT OTHERS THE WAY THAT YOU WANT TO BE TREATED. Many refer to this as the "Golden Rule." Words and language may

change, in Judaism it is stated as “What you hate, do not do to anyone” and in Hindu as “Do nothing to thy neighbors which thou wouldst not have them do to thee,” but they all yield the most common character trait of RESPECT. Appreciating diversity begins with knowing and understanding those things we have most in common. (p. 195)

Cooley argues that the blurred distinctions and oversimplification of different religions and cultures provided through this expansion is an example of the problem with character education.

Between the years 1917 and 1963, 36 states in the U.S. permitted, endorsed, or required Bible reading in schools through the law or court rulings (Glanzer & Milson, 2006). Court rulings starting in the 1960s regarding the Establishment clause of the First Amendment rendered these laws unconstitutional. Confusion over the Court’s decisions resulted in most school systems choosing to abandon formal character education as they were unsure how to provide it in a manner that would be constitutionally permissible while at the same time educationally sound and culturally sensitive (Vessels & Boyd, 1996). However, different legal as well as curricular occurrences in the 1960s and 1970s opened the door for contemporary character education legislation (Glanzer & Milson). The abundance of character education legislation passed by state legislatures since 1993 is unparalleled and unique in U.S. history – state laws are attempting to codify a secular methodology to character education (Glanzer & Milson, p. 531). Vessels and Boyd wrote that rulings by the U.S. Supreme Court and lower federal courts support the inclusion of character education in public schools. While case law makes it clear that character education is legally permissible, (Uerling, 1995) the law also makes it clear that students cannot be required to acknowledge a philosophy or belief.

Court cases.

Vessels and Boyd (1996) referred to several court cases that are indicative of the courts support in respect to teaching values in the public school; reflected in several decisions is the obligation of public school educators to impart the values vital to the democracy and social order upon which the country is framed. Boyd (1996) argued that there is strong support for character education in relation to the U.S. Supreme Court. The Supreme Court's support for character education offers a basis, argues Boyd, for concluding that potential challenges to character education based on First Amendment religious liberty clauses would not be viable.

While no case speaks directly to character education, research into these cases found the language of the District Court and Supreme Court Justices majority opinions to be supportive of values and/or character education instruction through the public educational arena. Language in some opinions speaks directly to the responsibility of teachers in imparting the values and ideals reflective of this county. Several majority opinions relevant to character education include:

In Lynn Ann Steirer, a Minor, by Barbara and Thomas Steirer, as Guardians and in Their Own Right; David Stephen Moralis, a Minor, by Thomas and Barbara Moralis, as Guardians, and in Their Own Right v. Bethlehem Area School District, 987 F.2d. 989 (1993), the court held that completion of 60 hours of community service did not constitute a violation of the First Amendment. The Third Circuit Court of Appeals stated:

[The stated goal of the program was to] help students acquire life skills and learn about the significance of rendering services to their communities ... gain a sense of worth and pride as they understand and appreciate the functions of community organizations... Even teaching values must conform to

constitutional standard. The constitutional line is crossed when, instead of merely teaching, the educators demand that students express agreement with the educators' values...

Fundamental Christian school children and their parents objected to reading the Holt series textbooks as they claimed the texts to be offensive to their religious beliefs and therefore violated the Free Exercise Clause of the First Amendment in *Bob & Alice Mozert, individually and as guardians ad litem for Travis Mozert and Sunde L. Mozert, et al., v. Hawkins County Board of Education, (Hawkins County Public Schools)* 287 F.2d 1858 (1987). In this case the Sixth Circuit Court reversed the District holding that exposure to materials and ideologies which conflict with individual religious beliefs does not violate students' constitutional rights nor does it place an unconstitutional burden on their free exercise of religion:

The Supreme Court has recently affirmed that public schools serve the purpose of teaching fundamental values "essential to a democratic society". These values include tolerance of divergent political and religious views while taking into account consideration of the sensibilities of others... the [Supreme] Court has almost never interfered with the prerogative of school boards to set curricula, based on free exercise claims... It is a substantial imposition on the schools to require them to justify each instance of not dealing with students' individual, religiously compelled, objections ...

Island Trees Union Free School District School Board, contrary to the recommendations of a parent committee and school staff, ordered the removal of certain books it considered "anti-American, anti-Christian, anti-Semitic, and just plain filthy" from its district's junior high and high school libraries. The U.S. Supreme Court held in *Board of Education, Island Trees Union Free School District No. 26, et al. v. Pico* 457 U.S. 853 (1985) that the Board could not remove books from the library because they disagreed with the content:

We ... acknowledged that public schools are vitally important "in the preparation of individuals for participation as citizens," and as vehicles for "inculcating fundamental values necessary to the maintenance of a democratic political system." ... local school boards must be permitted "to establish and apply their curriculum in such a way as to transmit community values," and that "there is a legitimate and substantial community interest in promoting respect for authority and traditional values be they social, moral, or political." Knowledge will forever govern ignorance...

The case of *Ambach v. Norwick*, 441 U.S. 68 (1979) involves foreign nationals who had resided in the U.S. for many years and were married to U.S. citizens. Both were eligible for citizenship, but had refused to apply. Both applied for certification as public school teachers in New York State. New York law prohibited the certification of non-citizen teachers who had not sought citizenship; the applicants were denied certification solely on that ground. The U.S. Supreme Court overturned the District Court holding that states could be justified in barring aliens from certain positions in government:

... public school teachers may be regarded as performing a task "that go[es] to the heart of representative government." Public education ... "fulfills a most fundamental obligation of government to its constituency." The importance of public schools in the preparation of individuals for participation as citizens, and in the preservation of the values on which our society rests, long has been recognized by our decisions ... it is clear that all public school teachers, and not just those responsible for teaching the courses most directly related to government, ... should help fulfill the broader function of the public school system. More importantly, a State may properly regard all teachers as having an obligation to promote civic virtues and understanding in their classes, regardless of the subject taught.

It can be reasonably stated that various Courts have promoted the idea and belief that the function of the public school and the teachers within its brick and mortar walls are responsible for passing on to the students under their educational guidance those values and civic duties required of citizens in a democratic state.

Teacher Education Programs

Teachers have significant influence on students; most adults remember the teachers who inspired and moved them forward as well as, unfortunately, the teachers who made them feel inferior. It has been argued that character education instructional strategies should be included in teacher education programs (Marshall, 2001; Munson, 2000; Narvaez & Lapsley, 2008, Wakefield, 1997; Wiley, n.d.). Yet, Lickona (1993) points out that even though character education “is far more complex than teaching math or reading” (p. 11), almost no training is provided to pre-service teachers. Similar pronouncements that most teacher education programs do not include specific character education preparation and little in the way of substantive training for teacher candidates have been made by a number of researchers Cummings, Wiest, Lamitina, & Maddux (2003), Howard (2005), Mathison (1998), Milson and Mehlig (2002), Nucci, Drill, Larson & Brown (2005), Prestwich (2004), Schwartz (2008a), Wakefield (1997) and Weber (1998).

Six obstacles effectively block teacher education programs from delivery of character education training to teacher candidates according to Berkowitz (1998); these are 1) disagreement on what defines character, 2) lack of consensus on what constitutes character education, 3) the perception that there is no room for character education training within teacher education curricula, 4) paucity of verifiable results as to what elements of character education work as well as the outcome attached to that element, 5) uncertainty of expertise and resources, and 6) uncertainty as to the role of public education in teaching character education.

Munson (2000) asserted that teachers influence the moral development of their

students through daily classroom decisions involving moral issues, the transmission of societal values, and as moral role models. Character values, good or bad, are imparted by teachers through the actions they commit or omit (Prestwick, 2004). As teacher candidates or alternative route teachers, it is crucial that their initial introduction to the teaching profession includes all aspects required to teach the whole child; or as Davidson, Lickona, & Khmelkov (2008) and Noddings (2005) assert, teaching heart and mind provides students the skill set to develop into a person who is at once smart and good. In her article, *What Does It Mean to Teach the Whole Child?* Noddings points out that most people want to be treated as a person, “not as the sinus case in treatment room 3 or the refund request on line 4” (p. 12).

The school environment is ripe with ethical and moral issues and decision-making involving morals and ethics. More often than not students are faced with making decisions steeped in morals and ethics more than once during the course of the school day. Making the wrong decision requires school intervention or as Wiley (n.d.) wrote, schools are obliged to respond to students who arrive under the influence of alcohol or some other illegal substance, engage in physical altercations and/or acts of bullying, or resort to cheating on exams or other class assignments. Teachers are on the front line of instilling good decision making skills in the students under their guidance. As Wiley stated “Teachers are moral coaches, cueing, reinforcing, motivating, and enforcing appropriate behavior and good character.” (para. 16).

Before teachers can implement an effective character education program, regardless of the teaching strategies in their arsenal, it is imperative that teachers have a complete understanding of what constitutes character education. Teachers who have

expertise in content as well as pedagogical knowledge, are more effective teachers; if character education content and pedagogy are narrow in scope or absent all together, non-effective teaching will occur (Lapsley & Narvaez, 2006; Munson, 2000). Character education infused into the school day is far more likely to produce results than adopting commercial programs, how character education is integrated into the school day comes from the thoughtful inquiry of teachers into their own practices (Silva & Gimbert, 2001).

In a study of 95 institutions in the four regions of the U.S. with enrollment of 200 plus students in teacher education programs (7% of all teacher education programs in the U.S.) Wakefield (1997) found that most teacher education programs in the U.S. have not included character education in their curricula to any substantial degree. Wakefield's study also found that a discrepancy existed between what programs supported and what they actually provided, most programs that reported the inclusion of character education also reported a total of less than one week instructional time, most heads of teacher education programs were amenable to character education programs; however, a sound plan for the inclusion of such a program was generally not available. The one area Wakefield found that all programs appeared to have in common: "neglect of purposeful character education methods instruction" (p. 8).

The study by Wakefield (1997) is mirrored in the study conducted by Jones, et al. (1999). In their study of 212 public and private teacher education programs in the U.S., Jones, et al. report the following from the Deans and Department Chairs regarding character education as an essential aspect of American education:

- 91.4% agreed that most Americans believed a core set of values existed that should be taught in school – yet, only 24.4% reported character education is highly emphasized in their formal teacher education curriculum
- 6.6% of public institutions reported character education is highly emphasized in their formal curriculum as opposed to 32.2% of the private institutions
- 87.2% stated that character education is a topic of concern
- 70.1% said character education is covered as a unit in at least one required course, only 10.6% reported as having a required course dedicated to character education
- 39.7% of public institutions reported character education is addressed in their written mission statements of their teacher education programs as compared to 73.1% of private institutions

As noted by Jones, et al. there is a rather large discrepancy between the reported level of conceptual support and the reported level of curricular attention afforded to character education. One Dean of a public program in North Carolina referred to character education as the weak link in teacher education programs. Howard (2005) stated that if this study were conducted today, it would be a reasonable assumption that the data would “quantify a further decline in the status of moral education” (p.49) in teacher education programs given the pressures of standards based reforms.

Carla Mathison (1998) assessed the attitudes toward character education of 150 experienced teachers from Minnesota, Kentucky, Texas, and California and 137 student teachers from San Diego State University’s School of Teacher Education Credential Program. Mathison found:

- 64% of experienced teachers strongly agreed that the primary responsibility for moral education rests with the home, whereas only 38% of the student teachers responded in kind
- 90% of the experienced teachers agreed that discussion on moral issues is a regular part of the instructional day; only 60% of the student teachers agreed this to be the case
- 80% of the experienced teachers reported that character education had been appropriately addressed in their teacher preparation programs; again, 60% of the student teachers felt this to be the case
- 74% of both experienced and student teachers felt character education should be given more attention in the teacher education process

Mathison's (1998) findings indicated that teachers do consider character education an important part of the public school curriculum. She also reported that student teachers were unsure of the legality surrounding discussion of moral issues with students; Mathison also noted a concern over the lack of understanding of U.S. Constitutional law applicable to character education in the public school demonstrated by the student teachers.

In his study of teacher candidates' perceptions of character education, Beachum (2005) found results similar to those obtained by Mathison (1998) – teacher candidates overwhelmingly supported character education in the curriculum of public K-12 schools (p. 48). Beachum concluded that the actions of those who govern the curricula for teacher education basically disregard the character education training much to the dismay of teacher candidates. Research conducted by Cummings, et al. (2003) and

Yost (1997) found that teacher education programs place more emphasis on the theory of teaching and academic teaching methods than they place on character education.

Overview of Textbooks

Paper textbooks, according to Robinson and Stubberud (2012) are one of the oldest resources for learning materials (p. 99). Issitt (2004) and Mules (2011) argue that finding a common definition for what constitutes a textbook is problematic. Mules defines a textbook as “a formal text for the instruction in a specific subject especially used as the full or partial basis of a course of study” (p. 148). This is the definition that will be employed for this study.

In today’s market there are a number of options open to professors and students when it comes to textbooks – paper, ebook for computers, e-book for mobile devices, and podcasts name a few. In a study of Norwegian and American college students and their preference for educational materials, Robinson and Stubberud (2012) report that paper textbooks are still quite popular when given a choice of several different mediums – 76.8% of students in American universities selected paper textbooks. These researchers found that 91.1% of the American respondents preferred online notes as a first choice, paper textbooks their second choice; roughly one-third of the respondents, 35.7% chose e-book for the computer. The choice of the paper textbook was about the same for U.S. male and female students at 69.8% and 68.3% respectively (Robinson & Stubberud). Similar to the Robinson and Stubberud findings, Woody, Daniel & Baker (2010) found students prefer textbooks over e-books regardless of their gender, experience or comfort with computer. Woody, et al. speculated that students felt most

comfortable with paper textbooks, even though the present cohort of students are the most computer savvy to enter the university.

In his argument that textbooks are indeed a legitimate subject of research, Issitt (2004) argues that textbooks:

... illuminate the history of ideas and the evolution of dominant ideologies as well as the effects of government rhetoric, cultural mythology, pedagogic designs, authorial intent and many other areas. At the level of the evolution of ideas, textbooks offer a way of tracing the changing pattern of socially legitimized ideas and the way the learner, teacher and text are positioned. (p. 696)

This quote, in a manner of speaking, speaks to character education, in that character or moral education largely present in textbooks utilized in the U.S. during the 1600s to 1800s may not be the case today given the change in cultural ideas and pedagogic designs in relationship to character education over the years.

Textbooks in the public school.

Textbooks prior to 1840 were predominately religious. Teaching literacy was seen as facilitating Bible reading (Wakefield, 1998; Whitten, 1975) The New England Primer, circa 1600s taught reading through religious instruction until the nineteenth century when religious values moved to more general morals and values (Wakefield). There is evidence, according to Wakefield, that the change from religious commitment to the American character in the mid-1800s was due to three reasons: change in the attitude toward discipline, by the student diversity now found in schools, and the emergence of a national textbook market.

McGuffey's Readers were credited with sparking the rise of the textbook publishing industry in the nineteenth century according to Andes (2010). Whitten (1975) wrote that textbook publishing developed as a specialized industry in the latter

part of the nineteenth century as a result two distinct phenomenon: 1) growth of industrialization and 2) the influx of immigrants into the U.S. produced large number of children now populating the schools. The large number of immigrant children from various parts of Europe who settled in areas across the U.S. caused the need for a uniform curriculum throughout the country reports Whitten. It is writes Whitten, “a distinctive feature in American educational history that textbooks are partly the means by which the school curriculum became regularized” (p. 58); he continues by saying this need created a collaboration between educators and publishers in the private-sector. Wakefield (1998) concurred, as he stated that immigration between 1830 and 1850 was “ten times that of the first three decades of the nineteenth century” (p. 21) causing a need for a standardized curriculum. Wakefield added that with the common school, children with many diverse backgrounds were now included in school; thus, creating a need to build on shared characteristics. These shared characteristics, by and large, represented collective moral and values such as industry and kindness as opposed to values exclusive to any one religion (Wakefield). Around the mid-1800s, the religious content of reading or textbooks gave way to moral content and the development of an American character; Wakefield wrote that starting around the 1830s up to the Civil War there was quite a bit of evidence pointing to a national fear of disunion visible through the number of stories stressing the importance of national unity in the Readers of the time.

The *Sanders' Union Primer*, circa 1870, contained moral lessons often aimed at boys; considered a sort of classroom management system for unruly students, the lessons contained admonitions to be kind to others, especially animals (Wakefield,

1998). The *Sanders' Union Primer* used in the East, rivaled the popularity of the McGuffey's *Readers* (Wakefield). *Elson Readers* in the early 1930s followed the McGuffey's *Readers*. Following *Elson* were the *Dick and Jane* series in the 1940s through the 1960s. This series represented White, middle class America – the father in a suit going to work and the mother staying home to clean (Andes, 2010). Neither the *Elson Readers* nor the *Dick and Jane* series embedded character or moral storylines similar to those presented in the *McGuffey's or Elson Readers*.

In 1986 Dr. Paul Vitz presented his study of the role given to religion and traditional values in the basal readers and social studies texts used in U.S. schools to the Symposium on Content, Character and Choice in Schooling: Public Policy and Research Implications under Secretary of Education William Bennett, an ardent proponent for character education.

The study included 60 social studies textbooks utilized in grades 1 – 6 from 10 major publishers. Vitz (1986) described the content of the textbooks as “similar to each other as the menus of McDonald's and Burger King” (p. 46). Vitz first looked at how religion was treated in the textbooks, finding that religion was not mentioned with any substance, meaning “the incredibly vibrant religious life in our society today was without a textual reference” (p. 47). The only reference to religion in the texts was related to the Amish or people who live in the Barrio. Vitz found a significant decrease in the number of references to religion in textbooks: in the 1600s references were over 50%, dropping to around 1% in the 1900s. The sixth grade world history and world culture textbooks oriented presented, according to Vitz, more references to Islam in the world history books; in U.S. history texts the focus was on Native American religions

Vitz found high school U.S. history textbooks anemic on the subject of religion; stating that if someone wanted to know the history of religion in this country, it would not be found in a U.S. history book.

Vitz (1986) then looked at how the family structure was presented in the textbooks. Most of the textbooks did reference family; finding the representation of the family to be generic. For example, the most common definition Vitz found was “The family is a group” (p. 49), the other common way family was defined was “... the people you live with”; Vitz stated the definition would also include a “fraternity house” (p.49). Vitz found it disconcerting that the word marriage was not present in the text, nor were the words husband or wife. Consequently, Vitz argued, the problems of teenage pregnancy in high school could be logically extended to the neglect of addressing the “importance of marriage for family life in the first six grades” (p. 49).

In the 22 basal readers for grades 3 and 6 examined by Vitz(1986),no specific mention of Jewish or Christian religions was found in any of the books. In the 670 stories he examined, one Native American religion story was found; several secondary religious, the term religion without context, were found in the Houghton Mifflin textbooks. Vitz then examined the readers for their treatment of patriotism. Of the 670 stories, only five had a patriotic theme: four were of a girl and one of a boy in the War of Independence. Vitz reported the main effect of reading these stories as “the same effect you get listening to Muzak. These stories are essentially so dumbed down or so rewritten as to be to real literature as Muzak is to real music” (p. 50-51).

Textbooks at the university level.

Little in the way of research on textbooks exists according to Besser, Stone, &

Nan (1999). Yet, they are a staple of education at the university. Issitt (2004) argued that “as a teaching aid and as part of the learning experience, they are practically ubiquitous” (p. 683). What has been found in the studies is that textbooks are extensively utilized as they are an integral part of teaching and learning condition (Besser, et al, Issitt). University professors generally require at least one textbook for their courses, sometimes multiple texts are listed on the course syllabus and students invest large sums of money to purchase these texts. Professors often use the textbook as a road map for their course. Course content is often built around the textbook; furthermore, textbooks provide guidance to the student on the subject matter reports Besser, et al. The expectation is that students will use the text to learn as it generally improves the quality of education (Besser, et al).

The college level textbook according to Whitten (1975) came into its own during the twentieth century when the opportunity for children other than those of elite parentage to earn a college degree. Textbooks became a practicality says Whitten, as more students enrolled in universities, instructors, especially those teaching introductory courses, found it convenient to assign one core text which contained the major concepts and facts pertinent to the course. In 1975, a national study on college textbooks indicated that 46% of faculty interviewed agreed that most students have difficulty learning the course material without a structured course including a textbook (Whitten).

Literature regarding textbook selection, asserts Landrum and Hormel (2002), is largely advisory; however, the process is affected by textbook attributes, principles that would impact student learning, publisher practices, and instructor experience (p. 248).

These researchers report that of the methods utilized to select textbooks individual instructor selection was most common, followed by consensus or committee vote. In the U.S. today, instructors select course textbooks and students purchase those textbooks for relatively similar generic reasons: enhance learning, course navigation, and to clarify subject matter (Fitzpatrick & McConnell, 2009). In their investigation of college textbook choice and reading comprehension, Durwin and Sherman (2008) argue that professors should consider the students' background, course type, course objectives, and chapter organization when selecting the course textbook – as text selection is “integral to student learning” (p. 28).

Mules (2011) asserts that textbooks have for some time been a fundamental vehicle for disseminating knowledge and as such wielded tremendous influence. Traditionally, writes Khutorskoi (2006) a textbook fulfills two basic functions: (1) as a source of information to be learned, a source that provides content in a form that is accessible to the students and is stipulated by the educational standard; (2) it serves as a tool of learning, by means of which the educational process, is organized (p. 81).

Whitten (1975) reported that any textbook that varies significantly from the general consensus will not sell very well; this constraint on innovation – new theory, ideas, and views – frustrates both publishers and authors. It is, however, possible to include a limited number of pioneering ideas as long as the majority of the textbook is relatively conventional.

Textbooks communicate ideas and concepts; they serve as a basis of information to be learned as well as a source of reference. The assumption made from textbooks is that the ideas and concepts presented should be considered essential; therefore,

enhancing students' learning. Fitzpatrick & McConnell (2009) report that professors view textbooks as a key component of the "delivery/acquisition system" (p. 2).

Stambaugh and Trank (2010) report about 55% of college students perceive textbooks as the source of their course knowledge. Stambaugh and Trank further stated that "... textbooks are not simply collected accounts of discrete "findings." They present a coherent, thematically integrated view of a discipline and are part of a stable, highly standardized and widely disseminated disciplinary pedagogy" (p. 664).

Of late, a great deal of emphasis has been placed on the coverage of ethics in university management textbooks in wake of the of the collapse of several major U.S. business largely due to the unethical behaviors by senior management – WorldCom, Enron, and the Wall Street banking fiasco (Geiger, 2010). In his study on the coverage of ethics in college business management courses Geiger found a growth in the coverage through the 2000s. In a content analysis of five texts from different publishers for the years 2002-2003 and 2010-2011 Geiger found minimal ethics coverage in 2002-2003, however, ethics content doubled by 2010-2011. Geiger argues that ethics education should 1) impact students' ability to cognitively attend to moral issues and 2) assist students in their ability to effectively face ethical dilemmas in the future. The logical progression for students to understand ethical dilemmas in the work world would start in public schools with reinforcement at the university level.

The textbook in the university setting has an important role in that it connects learning to what has been taught – the written text (visual) to the lecture (auditory). It was reported that textbooks are widely used to promote learning of course material, to make a connection (Besser et al., 1999; Fitzpatrick & McConnell, 2009; Issitt, 2004).

As put forward by Issitt, on one hand textbooks are often disparaged; however, the “reality of their universal use cannot be denied” (p. 693). A textbook that conveys the information essential to students’ regardless of their background knowledge in the material is the defining marker when selecting a text (Durwin & Sherman, 2008).

Conclusion

Elias, et al. (2007) point out that schools have a responsibility to prepare students to be future participating members of the nation; while the school is not solely responsible for this mission, it also cannot “wait for other responsible agents to act” (p. 177). Like Elias, et al., le Sage and de Ruyter (2008) assert that the state is also a responsible party in morally educating its youth. Oladipo (2009) wrote that it is “high time” all the different agents came together to work as a team in teaching/reinforcing character education and stopped trying to pass responsibility to another party (p. 156). In 1950, Thayer wrote that the school in its two-fold role of agent for the community and teacher of the young is charged with educating students in moral values that “is one with the acquisition of disciplined ways of thinking, feeling, and acting that have as their objective raising the standard of our living together” (p. 369). Anderson, (2000), Romanowski (2005) and Cooley (2008) point out that without support from parents any character education program is at a disadvantage. While this is true, being at a disadvantage is not an absolute, the school and the teacher may still positively influence the child through implementation of a character education infused curriculum.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Approach each new problem not with a view of finding what you hope will be there, but to get the truth, the realities that must be grappled with. You may not like what you find. In that case you are entitled to try to change it. But do not deceive yourself as to what you do find to be the facts of the situation.

-Bernard Baruch

Baruch was not referring to research specifically; however, what he has to say aligns to conducting a research study. The preferred finding in this study would be to discover character education well addressed upon completion of the textbook analyses. However, this research was not undertaken with the desired end result in mind. The findings are what they are and as Baruch argued, one should be alert to facts presented – such is the case with the research at hand; the absence of findings is actually a finding of importance.

Introduction

Broadly speaking, this study analyzed the extent to which introduction to education textbooks addressed character education. In view of the overall societal interest for the public educational arena to graduate socially competent, civic-minded and ethical problem-solvers, it benefits teacher education programs to be knowledgeable about the extent to which character education is included in introductory education textbooks.

The specific research questions addressed in this study were as follows:

1. To what extent did introduction to education textbooks explain character education?
2. To what extent did introduction to education textbooks address the history of character education?
3. To what extent did introductory education textbooks address the divergent viewpoints regarding character education?
4. To what extent did introduction to education textbooks address state and federal legislation regarding character education?

Content Analysis as Research Methods Selection

Various research methods were considered when initially designing this study. According to the U.S. General Accounting Office (GAO) (1996), content analysis is a systematic method that can assist researchers in learning more about the issues they examine. Content analysis is a research technique that concerns itself with communications and as Krippendorff and Bock (2009) assert, the analytical interests in communications date back to the beginning of writing. As a research technique, content analysis derived its methods from cryptography, the classification of library books, biblical concordances, and standard guides to legal precedents (Neuendorf, 2002). Content analysis has a long history of use in diverse arenas according to Elo and Kyngäs (2007), Hsieh and Shannon (2005), Krippendorff, (2013), Neuendorf (2002), Schreier (2012) Smith, (2000), Yu, Jannasch-Pennell, & DiGangi (2011), and Zhang and Wildemuth, (2009).

Content analysis was chosen as the preferred research method for a number of reasons. Content analysis is an extensively utilized analytical method in a variety of

research applications (Krippendorff, 2013; Neuendorf, 2002; Schreier, 2011; Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009); it was inexpensive and unobtrusive, as it did not require the preparation of questionnaires or the consent of participants (GAO, 1996; Webb, Campbell, Schwartz, & Sechrest; 1966). The non-reactivity benefit of analyzing content materials makes its use appealing if “one wants to compensate for the reactivity which riddles the interview and the questionnaire” (Webb, et al, p. 53). As presented by the GAO, research in which existing documentation will be the data source has the advantage of being a stable target for examination, thus allowing the data to be reviewed whenever and as often as needed. Reger and Pfarrer (2007) assert that content analysis lends itself to longitudinal research because of the availability of information such as textbooks. Given that any errors identified as the study proceeds can be corrected, posit Reger & Pfarrer, content analysis as research methodology is considered safe. While content analysis is a flexible research method, there are no simple data analysis guidelines, making it both interesting and challenging to the analyst (Elo & Kyngäs, 2007).

Defining Content Analysis

Content analysis is systematic and provides the researcher an objective description of the elements within the text under investigation. Definitions of content analysis are offered by a number of scholars. Content analysis, according to Babbie (2013), may be utilized with almost any form of communication; content analysis being defined as “the study of human communications, such as books, websites, paintings, and the law” (p.330). The GAO defined content analysis as a “systematic research method for analyzing textual information in a standardized way that allows evaluators

to make inferences about the information” (1996, p. 6). Krippendorff (2013) defined content analysis as a systematic technique “for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use” (p.24). Stemler (2001), articulated that what makes content analysis particularly “rich and meaningful” is the “coding and categorizing of the data” (para.1). According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005) content analysis is a research method that evaluates the “content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns” (p.1278). Smith (2000) asserted that while labor intensive, content analysis can obtain data that may not be obtained by fixed-response methods; content analysis, Smith continued is used to extract and reduce a large body of qualitative information “to a smaller and more manageable form of representation” (p. 314). Neuendorf (2002) defined content analysis as a systematic, objective, quantitative analysis of message characteristics that relies on the scientific method. Lastly, Kassirjian (1977) simply defined content analysis as “the study of the message itself, and not the communicator or the audience” (p. 8).

Elo and Kyngäs (2007) reported that content analysis is well suited to either qualitative or quantitative data, allowing that qualitative content analysis provides researchers an understanding of “reality in a subjective but scientific manner” (p. 308). Neuendorf (2002) stated that content analysis is quantitative in nature; however, she also spoke of its use as a qualitative research method. Krippendorff (2013) argued that “reading is fundamentally a qualitative process, even when it results in numerical accounts” (p. 26). In fact, a number of researchers have indicated that qualitative content analysis is an excellent research methodology. Qualitative content analysis,

according to Schreier (2012), “is a method for systematically describing the meaning of qualitative material by classifying material as instances of the categories of a coding frame” (p.1).

The view of content analysis as an extensively employed qualitative research technique is expressed by Hsieh and Shannon (2005). As opposed to using a random selection approach, in qualitative content analysis samples are purposively chosen and can therefore inform the research questions under examination (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009). When summarizing and recounting significant aspects of a study, Schreier (2012) asserted that qualitative content analysis is a robust method, and by sharing some qualitative and quantitative characteristics, content analysis can be viewed as a research method unto itself.

History of Content Analysis

Content analysis was applied in the 1600s to analyze newspaper content by the Church in its worry over the spread of non-religious matter (Krippendorff, 2013). Publication of a hymnal entitled *Songs of Zion* in Sweden during the mid-1600s is reportedly the first well-documented use of content analysis (Krippendorff; Dovring, 2009). A controversy erupted within the State Church of Sweden over the theological effects of various religious themes contained in the hymns. Both sides of the controversy, the State Church of Sweden and literary scholars, engaged in the measurement of how often certain values and ideas were mentioned and the way they were treated within the hymns (Dovring). Most likely, according to Krippendorff, the first quantitative newspaper analysis was conducted in 1893 when researchers attempted to answer the rhetorical question “Do newspapers now give the news?” (p.12).

However, an even earlier account was documented by Babbie (2013) who noted that content analysis was the method employed by Ida Wells in her 1891 study of newspaper accounts of the lynching of African American men.

With the growth of the newspaper industry in the early part of the twentieth century, a number of qualitative newspaper analysis studies were conducted to measure subject matter categories in volumes of print. The attempt in doing this type of content analysis was to find the truth about news print through scientifically analyzing the medium (Krippendorff, 2013). For example, in 1910, Byron Mathews conducted a content analysis of over 13,000 news items under 177 listings. He found more articles pertaining to crime and lawlessness than to wholesome living (Krippendorff & Brock, 2009, p. 15). Of the 732 articles he found under one listing, 12 related to ethical matters, the remainder to “inane society life” (p. 15). Later in the twentieth century the research technique of content analysis was expanded to include analysis of radio, movies, and television.

The 1920s saw content analysis used in researching the power of the moving picture (Neuendorf, 2002). Reported as one of the landmark studies in mass communication in the 1930s, the Payne Fund Studies employed content analysis to analyze the content of major motion picture themes (Neuendorf, 2002). Five hundred films over three separate years 1920, 1925, and 1930 were analyzed through written reviews, for a total of fifteen hundred films (Fiske & Handel, 1946).

In the 1930s and 1940s the second phase in the intellectual growth of content analysis occurred when interest developed in the fields of sociology and psychology (Krippendorff, 2013). The early 1940s witnessed content analysis applied to research

concerning Nazi propaganda. In the midst of World War II the British Political Warfare Executive systematically analyzed radio broadcasts made in 1943 from Axis powers. This analysis was thought to be the most skillful undertaken at the time (George, 1956, 2009). Through analysis of Nazi propaganda, inferences were drawn regarding a secret air weapon eight months prior to the first “buzz bomb;” it is reported that predictions that were made from the analysis of Nazi propaganda were reasonably accurate (George, 1956, 2009). After World War II the use of content analysis expanded to numerous disciplines (Krippendorff, 2013; Neuendorf, 2002). Berelson’s *Content Analysis in Communication Research* published in 1952 codified content analysis (Krippendorff).

Educational research in the 1940s initially used content analysis to analyze the readability of texts; however, its use in the educational field has expanded since that time (Schreier, 2012). The Education Resource Information Center (ERIC), according to Neuendorf (2002), is the “world’s largest source of education related literature and information” (p. 42). Using the search terms “content analysis” and “text analysis” for the library online index and abstract searches, Neuendorf found 6,022 hits with ERIC and 5,832 for ProQuest Digital Dissertations for the years 1966 to 1999. It is clear that content analysis, quantitative and qualitative, is a growing research methodology.

Use of Content Analysis

Content analysis has been used for theory development, applied research, exploratory research, and can also be used for inference or description. Smith (2000) contends that most people are familiar with the concept of content analysis even if they are unfamiliar with the term; as an illustration Smith used a 1996 *New York Times*

report in which an analysis of the vocabulary of an unsigned Elizabethan funeral song suggested the work was authored by Shakespeare. A personality portrait of Richard Nixon as a high achiever, high in affiliation and intimacy, and average in power motivation was validated by Wilson and Carlson (1988) through content analysis of books by and about Nixon and memoirs of aids close to Nixon during his presidency. Hilary Rodham Clinton's move from First Lady to Senate candidate garnered a substantial amount of negative press as presented by Scharrer (2002) after content analyzing 342 news stories from November, 1999 to February, 2000. Scharrer found a maximum of 14 negative comments per story with 4.3% of the sampled news articles attacking her "role conflict" because Clinton is seen as shunning the traditional role of the first lady: "Mrs. Clinton is turning her back ... on the very great honor that the American people bestowed upon her when they made her husband president" (p. 404).

Spanning decades, the process of content analysis has been utilized to investigate the context of textbooks in several disciplines at the K-12 and university levels. Examples of content analyzed textbooks include:

- Mules (2011) evaluated the changing materiality of three sample pedagogical texts over a 16 year period through content analysis.
- An evaluation to ascertain the accuracy and depth of coverage of Maslow's human needs theory in psychology texts was conducted through content analysis by Wininger & Norman (2010).
- A content analysis of major textbooks and online resources to determine key topics identified in the Delphi study was conducted by Kon, Schilling, Heitman, Steneck, & DuBois (2011).

- Tani (2004) employed content analysis to evaluate geographical education for Finnish children.
- Rhineberger (2006) analyzed introductory criminal justice and criminology textbooks to determine the coverage of research methods and research ethics.
- In 2008, Standish employed content analysis to reveal the extent to which primary and secondary geographic education is shaped by textbook content.
- Macgillivray and Jennings (2008) explored how lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgendered topics are presented in education textbooks.
- In 1979, Skoog examined the topic of evolution in secondary school biology textbooks between the years 1900 and 1977.
- Ghazi, Shahzada, Kahn, Shabbir, & Shah (2011) published a content analysis of textbooks of social and Pakistan studies on religious tolerance in Pakistan.
- In 1948 Blanchet analyzed the topics found in textbooks for use in survey courses in the natural sciences.

Content analysis enjoys a long history in the field of research in a number of varied disciplines. Kolbe and Burnett (1991) stated that content analysis is a significant research method with potential for contribution to theory development.

Research Approach

As is well-established, there are essentially two types of research – quantitative and qualitative. This study was a descriptive content analysis with characteristics of both qualitative and quantitative research; for example, the conversion of coded units to percentages.

While conclusions drawn from this type of analysis are limited to the study

according to Krippendorff (2013) and Neuendorf (2002), descriptive analysis is a valued research method. Neuendorf adds that these “analyses are attractive in their clarity and parsimony” (p.53). Descriptive content analysis can be considered the groundwork for qualitative investigation; the baseline for future analytic work can be developed from descriptive data (Saldaña, 2009).

Elo and Kyngäs (2005) reported that the use of inductive content analysis is being appropriate when there are no other studies addressing the phenomenon. This study was inductive in nature aligning with Elo and Kyngäs and Schreier’s (2012) description of inductive content analysis. As previously noted, Potter and Levine-Donnerstein (1999) have reported that atheoretical content analysis can be productive when using descriptive, inductive content analysis. As no clear theoretical perspective supported this study and previous studies involving character education content contained in introduction to education textbooks were not located, this study was appropriate for inductive content analysis.

Text characteristics in content analysis have been viewed as either manifest or latent. Neuendorf (2002) defined manifest content as that which is “physically present and countable” (p. 23). A similar definition is offered by Rourke, Anders, Garrison, & Archer (2001) whereby they describe manifest content as that which is located on the surface and is observable without difficulty. Rourke, et al., in quoting Berelson and Holsti, reported that the “requirements of scientific objectivity dictated that coding be restricted to manifest content” (p. 14). Krippendorff (personal communication, 2012) wrote that the distinction between manifest and latent are no longer taken seriously in the field. This study consisted of predominately manifest content with latent content

limited to the contextual unit.

Reliability and Validity

While content analysis has distinct advantages, as with any research method, there are potential concerns. Content analysis has a subjective component, making it possible for different researchers to arrive at different conclusions (Babbie, 2013; GAO, 1996; Krippendorff, 2013; Neuendorf, 2002; Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).

Reliability is generally framed by the idea that any significant results found in a research study must be able to be replicated; validity, in general terms, speaks to the utilization of the scientific process throughout the research. Trochim (2005) defines validity as the “the best available approximation of the truth of a given proposition, inference, or conclusion” (p. 16). According to Krippendorff (2013), a reliable procedure should in replication, regardless of the conditions of the application, yield the same results. Artstein and Poesio (2008) have pointed out that reliability is a prerequisite for validity of the coding scheme (p. 557).

In content analysis inter-coder reliability is considered a critical component and has been the subject of numerous discussions (Ahuvia, 2001; Artstein & Poesio, 2008; Freelon, 2010; Gravois, Rosenfield, & Greenberg, 1992; Hayes & Krippendorff, 2007; Krippendorff, 2013; Lombard, Snyder-Dutch, & Bracken, 2002, 2010; Neuendorf, 2002; Scott, 1955; and Taylor & Watkinson, 2007). Researchers differ in their opinions of appropriate indices for use with content analysis. Lombard, et al, Taylor and Watkinson, and Krippendorff are among content analysts who have reported that the use of percent-agreement correlation coefficients such as Pearson’s r , Cronbach’s α , and Spearman’s ρ are misleading and inappropriate indices for use in content

analysis, as they were not designed for this type of research. Scott (1955), however, reports that the use of Pearson's r is appropriate for data that is ordinal in nature. Lombard, et al (2010) reported that Chi Square should not be utilized for reliability in content analysis. While Cohn's $kappa$, Scott's pi and Perreault's pi were designed for use with content analysis, several researchers have indicated that employing these indices could be problematic with certain sets of data (Arstein & Poesio, 2008; Hayes & Krippendorff, 2007; Krippendorff, 2013; and Taylor &Watkinson, 2007). Other researchers have also indicated a disagreement with the use of kappa in content analysis. Hagelin (1999) and Potter and Levine-Donnerstein (1999) reported that use of kappa in content analysis as overly conservative, especially with multiple categories, therefore ineffective. In speaking to Cohen's kappa, Hagelin maintained that while giving a precise estimate of chance agreement, "factors such as the number of observations, the number of categories, and the distribution of the data" can influence the values in such a manner as to create difficulty in interpretation (p. 314). Brennan and Prediger (1981) argued that the methods in which the data are collected, as well as the questions to be answered from the data, should factor into the decision of what index is to be used to measure the significance of agreement; the index should not be chosen out of tradition or convention.

Holsti's method is a variation of the percent agreement index modified for content analysis. Kolbe and Burnett (1991) reported inappropriately low levels of reliability with this index. Smith (2000) suggested the Holsti method to be appropriate as does with Neuendorf (2002); however, Neuendorf has reported limitations with this method.

There is no general consensus of acceptable levels of reliability. Different researchers report varying acceptable reliability levels ranging from .67 to .90. Rourke, et al (2001) and Taylor and Watkinson (2007) report that no single satisfactory index level has been determined for content analysis.

Assumptions

There were three assumptions made concerning this study:

- 1) The subjectivity inherent in content analysis was minimized as the analyzed content was manifest in nature.
- 2) The textbooks were representative of the textbooks selected by teacher education programs on a national level were limited to the samples chosen.
- 3) The content as presented in the textbooks does not represent the author(s) opinion regarding character education.

Procedure

As it is widely understood that objectivity is the trademark of good research, all steps within this procedure were designed by this researcher and carried out with objectivity the foremost standard. *It is important to note that this study was not designed to count of the number of times criteria was referenced concerning the research question. Such a design would simply serve to provide a sum of words. Rather, this research sought to examine the depth and breadth of the content through its presence in the textbook and by the contextual matter surrounding the specified criteria.*

Framework

The framework for this study was a composite of the guidelines offered by Krippendorff (2013), Neuendorf (2002), Schreier, (2012), Smith (2000), and Zhang and

Wildemuth (2009). In various publications, each of the aforementioned researchers supplied methods and procedures that align with scientific methods critical in research; therefore, those procedures and guidelines that were determined to maximize the quality and design of this study were chosen. As a systematic method of research, content analysis is composed of steps; the steps constructing the framework, along with an explanation for each step, follows:

1. Articulate the research questions.

The research questions guiding this study focused on the extent to which character education was presented in introduction to education textbooks. The specific research questions were articulated at the start of this chapter.

The next three steps address the sampling, recording, and contextual units connected to this study. Saldaña (2009) defines codifying as categorizing – creating a systematic arrangement of things. Unitizing, according to Krippendorff (2013), refers to the process of determining the types of units to be used in the analysis. According to Krippendorff there are three types of units in content analysis – sampling, recording, and context or contextual.

2. Define the sampling units.

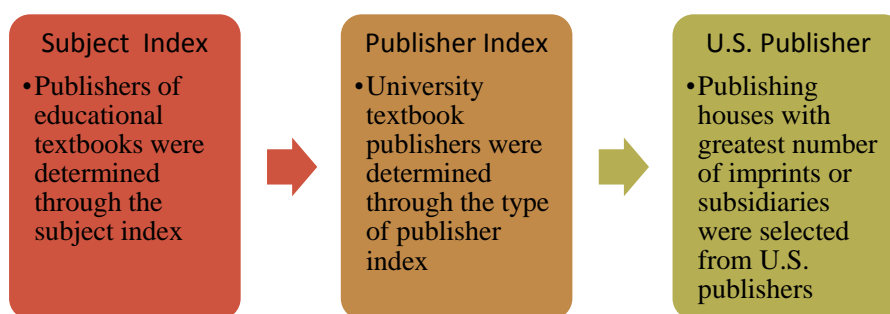
Sampling units must contain all relevant information (Krippendorff, 2013). This condition was met by the purposive selection of introduction to education textbooks selected from the five largest American publishing houses.

The Literary Market Place™ Directory 2011 (LMP) of the American and Canadian book publishing industry was utilized to select the five largest American textbook publishing houses in terms of publications, sales, and earnings. The 2011

directory is the 71st annual publication and contains almost 11,000 entries of publishers, agents, trade services, and international services. Of the total entries, 3,022 are publishers, including Canadian houses and small presses. The publishers listed in the directory reportedly publish an average of three or more books annually.

The directory is published in two volumes. Volume 1, the volume utilized in this study, covers core publishing company information such as book publishers, editorial services, editorial agents, and associations. Volume 2, which contains information on service providers and suppliers to the industry, was not utilized in this study. Entries in the LMP contain the name, address, telephone -telecommunications data, and key personnel of the publishing house, along with brief statistics, descriptive annotations, and the publisher's assigned ISBN prefixes (LMP, 2010).

Publishers are listed in the following order in the LMP: U.S. Publishers, U.S. Publishers–Geographic Index, U.S. Publishers–Type of Publishers Index, and U.S. Publishers–Subject Index. The methodical steps taken to select publishing houses for consideration in this study are shown in the following illustration:



The five largest publishing houses in terms of publications, sales, and earnings were 1) Pearson Education, Inc., 2) Cengage Learning, 3) The McGraw-Hill Companies, 4) Sage Publications, Inc., and 5) John Wiley and Sons, Inc. Independent

verification of the rankings was provided by Jane Casey, an assistant editor with one of the top five publishing houses (personal communication, 2012).

The textbooks used in this study were selected after viewing their publishing house's websites. The criteria for textbook selection were:

- 1) The textbooks are listed as "general introductory" or "foundational," meaning the books are not anthologies, or grade/level specific (For example, Introduction to Elementary Education or Foundations to Reading)
- 2) The textbook was the most current copyright
- 3) Text was written for an American audience

The defined selection of textbooks for this research is consistent with the position presented by Zhang and Wildemuth (2009), as this type of selection addresses the questions under investigation.

Representatives from each of the publishing houses were contacted to request desk copies of the selected textbooks. The representatives from Cengage Learning, McGraw-Hill Education, SAGE Publications, Inc., and John S. Wiley and Sons sent the requested textbooks and provided electronic access to the textbooks used in this study. Pearson Education, Inc. would not send a desk copy; however, they did provide access to the textbooks. According to the representative, Pearson Education, Inc. would only provide a desk copy for course adoption consideration. Textbooks published by Pearson utilized in this study were purchased by the researcher from Amazon.com. Since the largest textbook publishing houses provided the sampling framework, the chosen textbooks were considered by this researcher as representative of the textbooks

selected by university teacher education programs nationally.

3. Obtain sampling units.

Sampling units were obtained through the publishing houses or in the case of Pearson Education, Inc. purchased through Amazon.com.

Textbooks.

An overview of the textbooks selected is presented here to provide a snapshot of the textbook construction and, where provided by the publisher, a short biography on the author or authors.

The first book, *Becoming a Teacher* (2013), published by Pearson Education, Inc., is the 9th Edition of this textbook. This text was authored by Forrest W. Parkay. According to the information presented in the textbook, Dr. Parkay is currently a Professor of Educational Leadership and Higher Education at Washington State University. Prior to Washington State, Dr. Parkay was a Professor of Educational Leadership at the University of Florida and Texas State University; he also taught and served as the Chairperson of the English Department at a public high school on Chicago's South Side. The textbook contained 13 chapters and a total of 534 pages.

The second textbook, *Foundations of American Education* (2013) by L. Dean Webb, Arlene Metha, and K. Forbis Jordan, was published by Pearson Education, Inc. This is the 7th Edition. Aside from the title page that lists an association with Arizona State University for Webb and Metha, no other biographical information concerning the authors was provided. There are a total of 444 pages and 15 chapters in the textbook.

Book three, *Those Who Can, Teach* (2013), was authored by Kevin Ryan and James M. Cooper and published by Cengage Learning. This is the 13th Edition of the

textbook. The textbook has a total of 535 pages with 15 chapters. A reader aligned to the textbook is available and was sent by the representative of Cengage Learning; however, it was not included in the study. Kevin Ryan is associated with Boston University and James M. Cooper is associated with the University of Virginia; no other biographical information concerning the authors is provided.

School: An Introduction to Education (2011) is the fourth book. Published by Cengage Learning, the textbook was authored by Edward S. Ebert II, associated with Coker College and Richard C. Culyer III, also affiliated with Coker College. The 2nd Edition is the most current. No biographical information was provided about the authors. A personal story is offered in the Preface, however, which author the story is about is not indicated. The textbook contains 14 chapters and is 565 pages in length.

Teachers, Schools, and Society - A Brief Introduction to Education (2012) by David Miller Sadker and Karen R. Zittleman was published by The McGraw-Hill Education. This is the 3rd Edition and contains 11 chapters with a total of 457 pages. Biographical information was provided for both authors. David Sadker is professor emeritus at American University in Washington, DC. According to the information provided, he and his late wife Myra are known for their work in gender bias and sexual harassment. David Sadker has received two honorary doctorates and has been extensively published in academic journals and non-academic periodicals, as well as having appeared on a number of radio and TV talk shows such as *The Oprah Winfrey Show*. Dr. Zittleman earned her doctorate at American University. She has taught at the elementary and middle school levels and at American University. Karen Zittleman is the manager for the Myra Sadker Foundation.

The sixth book, *The Act of Teaching* (2012) is the 6th Edition of the textbook published by The McGraw-Hill Companies. The authors are Donald R. Cruickshank, Deborah Bainer Jenkins, and Kim K. Metcalf. The textbook contains 14 chapters with a total of 537 pages. Included in this text is a three unit teaching manual. Biographical information was provided for all three authors. Donald Cruickshank received degrees from the State University College at Buffalo, NY and the University of Rochester. According to the textbook, “after stints” (p. iii) as a teacher and a principal with Rochester schools he began teaching in college. Professor Cruickshank has held a number of educational and non-educational positions nationally and internationally. Dr. Jenkins received her Ph.D. in teacher education from The Ohio State University. She has taught middle and high school science in the U.S. as well as in Asia. Her current teaching and scholarship focus on teacher preparation and supervision. Dr. Kim Metcalf is the Dean of the College of Education at the University of West Georgia. Dr. Metcalf was awarded his Ph.D. in teacher education and educational research from The Ohio State University. He has worked as a classroom teacher and as director of assessment for Monroe County Community Schools; additionally, he has worked with educational agencies nationally and internationally.

Because Teaching Matters - An Introduction to the Profession (2009) was authored by Marleen C. Pugach and was the seventh book used in this study. Published by John Wiley & Sons, this is the 2nd Edition. The textbook contains a total of 495 pages with 12 chapters. Biographical information indicates that Dr. Pugach received her doctoral degree from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. At the time of publication, Dr. Pugach was a Professor of Teacher Education in the Department of

Curriculum and Instruction at the University of Wisconsin – Milwaukee. She has been responsible for preparing teachers to work in elementary and middle school settings in urban districts since 1986.

Authored by Gene E. Hall, Linda F. Quinn, and Donna M. Gollnick, *Introduction to Teaching. Making a Difference in Student Learning* (2014) was the eighth textbook analyzed in this study. This textbook was published by SAGE Publications. This textbook contains a total of 545 pages with 16 chapters. Biographical information was not provided for the authors.

4. Define recording units.

Recording units, also known as units of analysis, should be clear, concise, mutually exclusive, and exhaustive to prohibit individual interpretation; different coders should be able to agree on the material to be coded without question (Artstein & Poesio, 2008; Krippendorff, 2013; Neuendorf, 2002; Saldaña, 2009; Smith, 2000).

It was determined by this researcher that the elements of character specified in §7247 Partnerships in character education program in NCLB would be appropriate to use as the variables in this research. The elements – caring, civic virtue and citizenship, justice and fairness, respect, responsibility, trustworthiness, and giving were determined to encompass the intention of this research (see Figure 1 for elements addressed through character education). It was also believed by the researcher that because NCLB is federal legislation, the elements listed are those traits that legislators associate with good character.

Recording units were also contained in the dictionary of descriptors. Under the guidance of this researcher, the inter-coder reliability team, (presented under Step 6)

judiciously constructed a dictionary of descriptors from the various descriptions and definitions of character education described in Chapter 1. When constructing the dictionary, the semantic nature of language was a serious consideration. The inter-coder reliability team and the dictionary construction process are presented under step 6 – develop a coding manual.

5. Define the contextual units.

Contextual units consisted of the paragraph containing the recording unit. Contextual units define the recording units. These units set the parameters for the amount of textual matter to be analyzed around an identified marker or criteria. Contextual units are fundamentally blocks of text that enable the analyst to qualify the recording units. The contextual units are not counted, may be overlapping, and do not need to be mutually exclusive. For example, the word “stealing” could mean criminal theft or advancing to the next base in baseball depending on its syntax within a sentence (see Figure 2 for sampling, recording and contextual units differentiation).

There were a few exclusions to the contextual units:

- Chapter summaries were not coded unless some part of the summary contained information not previously coded from within the chapter.
- Chapter prefaces were not included as these generally contained “teaser” information on the chapter; if a recording unit was found in the chapter preface, it was noted and returned to only if the information was not provided in the chapter.
- Recording units located in several different paragraphs covering the same topic such as a teaching/education philosophy or the same historical period of time

were only coded once – coding the information more than once would constitute counting words or phrases.

- Contextual units referencing the criteria or markers for a particular category were not coded if they did not fit one of the four frames. (Criteria – markers and frames are discussed under step 6 – develop a coding manual.) Criteria or markers that referenced multicultural education, behavior or classroom management, and/or sex education were not coded. While one could argue that each of these omitted topics fall within the purview of character education, these areas cannot be viewed as strictly character education, and therefore they are not included. Content that spoke to teacher qualities – ethics teachers’ should possess, moral standing of teachers, activities involving ethical or moral decision making on the part of the teacher, etc. were also excluded.

6. Develop a coding manual.

Potter and Levine-Donnerstein (1999) addressed the issue of well-written coding instructions using non-scientific terminology. According to the researchers, the use of scientific verbiage could be problematic for average readers, occasioning unstable results. Attention was given, therefore, to the development of the coding manual to ensure it was written using language easily recognizable to the coders without losing the rigor in the development of the criteria.

Designed around the research questions, the coding manual was essentially a set of explicit instructions as to coding conduct – the guide for the content analysis study. Contained within the coding manual were directions, category identification, recording units, rules for assigning a code, and examples of coding. The coding manual served

two purposes: One, to provide coders explicit instructions on the coding process and protocol for inter-coder reliability training and reliability testing, and two, to serve as a reference throughout the coding process.

After this researcher developed the coding manual, the next step was the creation of the coding protocol, also developed by this researcher. Construction of the coding protocol was driven by the research questions. Development of the coding protocol consisted of a series of steps, ultimately resembling a rubric.

First, each research question represented a frame, thereby creating four frames:

1. Explanation
2. Viewpoints
3. Historical
4. Legislation

Second, criteria or markers⁴ were established specific to the each of the four research questions. Each criteria or marker created a single category. Viewpoints, historical, and legislative frames were created prior to the conception of the explanation frame.

Viewpoints frame consisted of four categories: 1) two viewpoints were present in the contextual unit, 2) viewpoints were mentioned in a general tone; no particular opinion was stated in the contextual unit, 3) one point of view was identified – either pro or con in the contextual unit, and 4) divergent viewpoints was not addressed in the text.

The historical frame was then established with two categories: 1) Yes, the textbook addressed the history of character education in American education, or 2) No,

the textbook did not contain any references to character education in a historical context.

Federal and state legislation made up the legislation frame. In this frame, there were four categories: 1) the textbook contained references to federal legislation, 2) federal legislation was not addressed in the textbook, 3) legislation at the state level was contained in the textbook, and 4) no mention of legislation at the state level was found in the textbook.

The rationale behind creating the explanation frame categories last rested on the complexity of this frame. The criteria or markers that created the categories for the explanation frame necessitated a deeper breadth and scope than analyzing for presence alone. Seven categories ranging from very high to low, as can be seen on the following table, constructed this frame. Moderately low criteria were divided into two levels (a) and (b). The criteria or marker (a) was met by educational philosophies and (b) was met by standards such as InTASC. These levels were created because the verbiage contained in the select philosophies and in certain InTASC standards reflected the elements and/or dictionary descriptors used in this study. For example, the purpose of education according to the progressivism is to create citizens who will be engaged in a democratic republic; schools are viewed as small communities in which teachers and students demonstrate mutual respect. In this passage, the terms democratic and respect are fit the bill. InTASC Standard 2 Student Development (Kaplan & Owings, 2011):

The teacher understands how students learn and develop, and can provide learning opportunities that support their intellectual, social, and personal development. The teacher understands how students construct knowledge;

recognizes how students’ physical, social, cognitive; moral, and emotional development affect learning; and knows how to address these factors when making instructional decisions (p. 22).

In this passage, the terms social, moral, emotional development are the criteria that would be coded.

TABLE 1: Coding Manual – Protocol Instructions

Frame: Explanation	
Category	Criteria / Marker
Very High	The term “character education” stated in relationship to the education of character
	Character education identified by NCLB element(s)
	Character education linked to education – NOT related to multicultural, behavioral, drug awareness, or sex education
	Teacher (teaching) / learning involved is stated
High	Examples of instructional strategies are present
	Character education identified by NCLB element(s) or descriptor(s)
	Character education linked to education – NOT related to multicultural, behavioral, drug awareness, or sex education
Moderately	Teacher (teaching) involved is stated
	Examples of instructional strategies are present
	Character education identified by NCLB element(s) or descriptor(s)

High	Character education linked to education – NOT related to multicultural, behavioral, drug awareness, or sex education Teacher (teaching) involved is stated
------	---

Moderate	Character education identified by NCLB element(s) or descriptor(s) Character education linked to education – NOT related to multicultural, behavioral, drug awareness, or sex education
----------	--

Moderately	Character education identified by NCLB element(s)
------------	---

Low (a)	descriptor(s) through educational philosophy
---------	--

Moderately	Character education identified by NCLB element(s)
------------	---

Low (b)	Teacher involvement implicitly stated through InTASC
---------	--

Low	Sole relationship to character education identified by NCLB element(s) or descriptor(s) – Not related to multicultural, behavior, drug awareness, or sex education
-----	--

Frame: Viewpoints

D2	Two divergent viewpoints regarding character education clearly delineated
----	---

D1a	Viewpoint mentioned in a general tone; no particular opinion present
-----	--

D1b	One viewpoint present, pro or con
-----	-----------------------------------

D0	Textbook did not address divergent viewpoints
----	---

Frame: Historical

Yes Textbook addressed character education in history of American education

No History of character education not addressed

Frame: Legislation

Yes – F Federal level legislation is present

No Federal level legislation not addressed

Yes – S State level legislation is present

No State level legislation not addressed

The coding manual with examples, dictionary containing the descriptors for each element (recording unit), sample protocol, and final tally sheet are provided as Appendices B through F.

7. Conduct inter-coder reliability.

Inter-coder reliability checks were conducted by the inter-coder reliability team at three separate points during the study – initially, mid-point, and at the end of the study. A number of researchers have reported that while Krippendorff's *alpha* is a versatile and attractive measurement for reliability in content analysis, it is extremely tedious to work out by hand (Krippendorff, 2013; Lombard, et al, 2010; Neuendorf, 2002; Taylor & Watkinson, 2007). Given its high rating, Krippendorff's *alpha* was considered first for measuring reliability using ReCal, an inter-coder reliability Web service. Moreover, there were technical problems with this Website; error messages consistently interrupted the process. After several attempts over three different days, this researcher abandoned ReCal. On her Webpage, Neuendorf (2002) recommended PRAM, another online service; however, the link offered by Neuendorf was broken.

Inter-coder reliability was established using the Holsti method; calculations were conducted by hand. Two areas of concern specified by Schreier (2012) in using this reliability index were addressed: 1) All selections were coded by all four coders – no selection was left un-coded, and 2) it was determined that 17 categories with 2 to 5 levels of criteria per category were sufficient to limit the number of chance agreements.

Inter-coder training.

In addition to this researcher, three educational professionals comprised the inter-coder reliability team. Allison Grae has 22 years of experience in the field of public education – 12 years as a classroom teacher and 10 years as a high school administrator in the public school system. Ms. Grae earned a BS in Education from the University of South Carolina and a MS in School Administration from Gardner-Webb University. Stella Dor has 20 years of experience as a classroom teacher in the public school system. Ms. Dor earned a BS in Social Work from the University of Tennessee and a MAT from the University of North Carolina Charlotte. With 27 years of experience, Danielle Bassett has worked as a classroom teacher, a behavior specialist, and most recently as a high school instructional coach at a Title 1 school. Ms. Bassett earned a BS in Criminal Justice from the University of North Carolina Charlotte, a MS in Education at Georgia College, and a MS in Educational Leadership from Winthrop University.

The degree of similarity in professional and educational history, as well as comparable social sensitivities between the coders and this researcher, met Krippendorff's (2013) condition of similar backgrounds in aiding reliability.

At the initial meeting, Ms. Grae, Ms. Dor, and Ms. Bassett were provided copies of the character education descriptions from Chapter 1. In alignment with Macgillivray and Jennings (2008) assertion that collaborative methodology enhances reliability, the inter-coder reliability team discussed at length the possibility of terms varying in meaning from one individual to another. The inter-coder reliability team developed a dictionary of descriptors through use of mutually agreed upon character descriptions. The dictionary was considered concrete in nature in order to eliminate as much as possible the subjectivity inherently part of content analysis. Consequently, the dictionary that contributed to the criteria used in the categories was considered manifest in nature. Thus, another layer of protection against subjectivity was added. A date was set to meet one week later for coder training.

One week following development of the dictionary of descriptors, the inter-coder reliability team met for training provided by this researcher. Training lasted approximately one hour and consisted of the following steps:

First, the three coders were provided the coding manual and protocol, completed dictionary of descriptors, and two sets of randomly selected pages from the textbook, *American Education Building a Common Foundation* (2011) authored by Leslie Kaplan and William Owings. One set was for training purposes, the second set was for reliability testing. To ensure that all of the coders were coding the same material for reliability testing, this set was comprised of every ninth page of the textbook *American Education Building a Common Foundation*, for a total of 75 selections.

Second, this researcher provided an overview of the coding manual, coding protocol and the selections from the textbook.

Third, the team silently read the coding manual; this researcher then went over the manual paragraph-by-paragraph answering questions as they arose.

Fourth, the same procedure was followed for the coding protocol.

Fifth, the inter-coder reliability team coded four selections as a group with discussion occurring during this process.

The final step involved the team coding two selections independently with discussion following. One team member requested the group code two additional selections independently to reinforce her understanding. The team agreed, the two additional sets were coded and results discussed. At this time, the members of the inter-coder reliability team expressed their understanding of the coding procedure. It was agreed that the team would code the selections over the course of two weeks and would meet again for this researcher to obtain the coded selections.

Inter-coder reliability.

Upon receipt of the coded text from the inter-coder reliability team, this researcher established inter-coder reliability at 90.6% using the Holsti method. Approximately mid-way through the research, the team informally met to spot check reliability of the coded material. No formal percentage was calculated; however, with two disagreements out of 16 selections, reliability was considered to remain at an acceptable rate. Upon completion of the research, inter-coder reliability was established at 90.4% using the Holsti method for six random samples of coded material (see Table 2 for inter-coder reliability).

8. Code the text and assess coding consistency throughout coding process.

This researcher methodically content analyzed each of the eight textbooks. The

analysis of the textbooks was consistent with the research of Macgillivray and Jennings (2008). First, the index and table of contents were examined for references to the recording units. Second, each textbook was analyzed page by page, line by line, to ensure all text and/or graphical representations relevant to the analysis were captured. Electronic access to the textbook provided an opportunity to search the textbooks by recording units to further ensure all possible data was obtained.

Zhang and Widermuth (2009) recommended coding consistency be checked throughout the research process due to human coder fatigue. While periodic checks of this nature were conducted, coding consistency was predominately assessed using the electronic version of the textbooks.

9. Draw conclusions and 10. Narrate results. These final steps in the process were completed and reported in Chapter 4 of this study (see Figure 3 for a visual representation of the process).

Conclusion

This chapter presented the history and use of content analysis in the field of research. Rationale for content analysis as the research method of choice for this study was presented along with the specific methodology in conducting this study. The purpose of the study and the research questions that guided this research were articulated. Detailed attention was given to the steps in the overall process, development of the coding manual and protocol, and training the inter-coder reliability team.

The criteria development and validation process for this research study was executed with the understanding of the importance of the subject matter along with the

goal to capture accurate and reliable data. A cursory review of the obtained results indicated a poor representation of the character education in introduction to education textbooks. The final steps of the process where conclusions are drawn and results are narrated, as previously indicated, are addressed in Chapter 4 of this study.

CHAPTER 4: NARRATION OF RESULTS

You can have people who know every nuance of our policy toward Burma,
but they don't know the name of the public school down the block.

-Danny Harris

Danny Harris, a local activist in Washington, DC was featured in an article in the May 28th, 2012 edition of TIME. The article spoke of the young, college educated, up-and-comers in Washington DC. According to Ferguson (2012) Harris spoke about the crime and decay that surrounded the well-to-do in the nation's capital; he referenced the disequilibrium as signaling "civil detachment" among his peers (p.50). Ferguson reported that half of the 20 counties with the highest median income in the U.S. surround the nation's capital, and amidst the wealth lies extreme poverty – a "maldistribution of wealth" (p. 50). Harris' view of civil detachment is apropos to this study of character education. The article speaks to education in America on several levels: career and financial success for the young up-and-comers – solid academic background and educational success. Less than stellar community involvement and disconnect between those who have and those who do not – failure of the educational system in preparing students for their role as responsible, caring citizens.

Introduction

Chapter 4 presents the results of this research study with accompanying narration. The findings are the result of an intensive content analysis of eight introduction to education textbooks selected from the top five U.S. textbook publishers.

The results answer the four research questions concerning the inclusion of character education in introduction to education textbooks marketed for use in pre-service or alternative-route teacher education programs. The use of visual representations in the form of in-text graphs will aid reader orientation to the findings presented thereby augmenting this written text.

Findings are introduced from a broad overview – index and glossary entries, categories met by textbook and categorical criteria or markers met by textbooks. Findings then narrow to address the findings for each research question. Through narration and illustrations, it was demonstrated that character education was a topic of rare reporting within the selected introduction to education textbooks.

Results

Broad View

There were varied degrees of the inclusion of character education in each of the eight selected textbooks. Some of the textbooks addressed a greater number of the research questions than others; for instance, *Becoming a Teacher* and *Those Who Can, Teach* proffered the most information in regard to the explanation of character education. Rather than provide readers with information, the authors of *The Act of Teaching* referred readers to the Office of Studies in Moral Development in Education at the University of Illinois, Chicago for an overview of moral education and to Nucci (2008) for a “how to” book (p. 104).

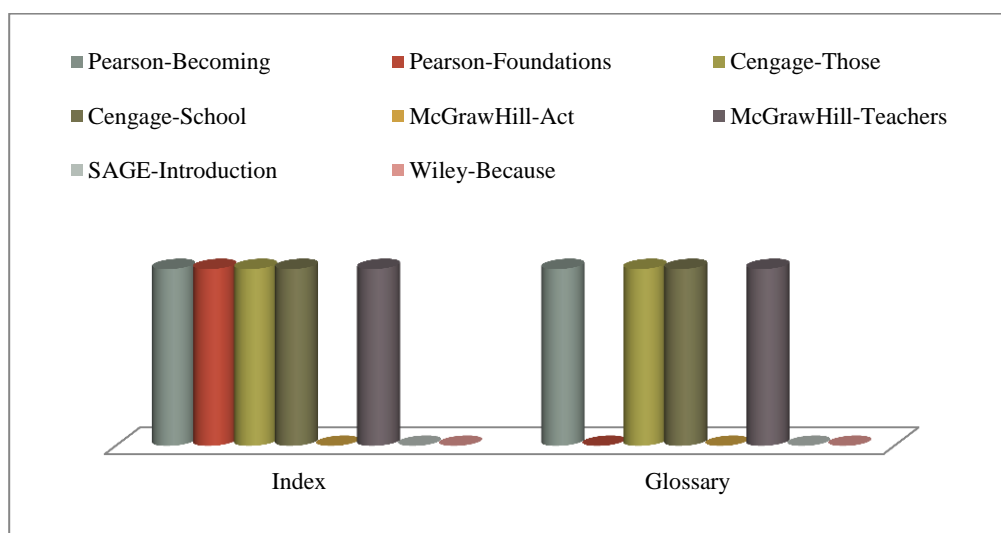
At the start, of data collection the table of contents, index and glossary for each textbook was examined for character education entries. *Those Who Can, Teach* included character education as a subhead in the chapter on school reform. In *Teachers*,

Schools, & Society, moral education – programs that teach right from wrong was listed in the table of contents. The title attached to character education by *Teachers, Schools & Society*, is simplistic and misleading. Additionally, calling character education moral education is problematic as the word “moral” triggers negative reaction to character education. No other textbook listed character education in their tables of content.

Not one of the eight textbooks dedicated a chapter to the subject; and, inclusion of the content that spoke to character education was scattered throughout all of the textbooks. There were notable differences between various publishing houses, as well as between textbooks put out by the same publishing houses. For instance, while seven of the eight textbooks referenced the inclusion of morals and ethics in the history of American education, only three of the eight textbooks narrowly addressed federal legislation and two of eight spoke to state legislation pertaining to character education.

As can be seen in the following index and glossary graph, not all of the textbooks contained these entries. Five of eight textbooks contained entries for character education and half of the textbooks, four of eight, listed character education in the textbooks’ glossaries. A listing for character education was not located in the index nor was one located in the glossary of *Introduction to Teaching*, and *Because Teaching Matters*. *Foundations of Education* did include character education in the index, but it was not listed in the glossary of the text. In the glossary of *The Act of Teaching* (Cruickshank, Jenkins, & Metcalf, 2012) moral education was listed as being “akin to character education, values education, and citizenship education” (p. 522). This was not coded as it was not specifically designated as character education and the definition did not align to the premise of character education. Character education was listed in

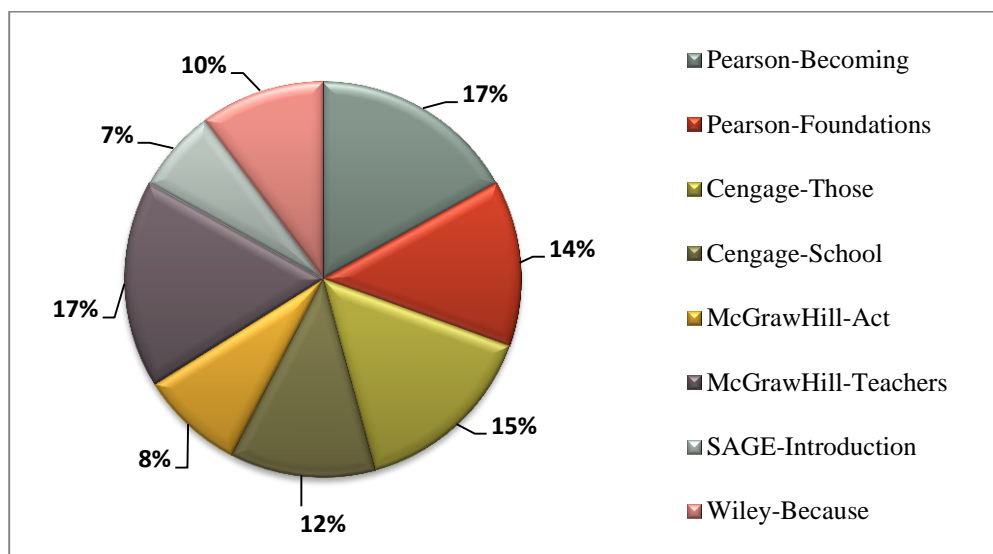
the table of contents under the chapter for school reform for the textbook *Those Who Can, Teach*. While *Teachers, School, and Society* lists character education in the index, in the table of contents character education is not listed but moral education is under the chapter for teaching ethics. The exclusion of a topic in traditional organizational markers (e.g., table of contents, index) in effect diminishes the importance of the subject matter, in this case character education.



Index and Glossary

As the overview of categories graph below demonstrates, there were slight to marked differences in the targeted content among the textbooks analyzed in this study. Seventeen percent of the analyzed content that met criteria came from Pearson's *Becoming a Teacher* and McGraw-Hill's *Teachers, School and Society*. These textbooks each addressed 10 of the 17 categories. There was a discernible difference between the two textbooks published by McGraw Hill. One met the highest number of categories as well as one of the lowest numbers of categories. Five categories or 8% of analyzed content was found in *The Act of Teaching* published by McGraw-Hill and *Because Teaching Matters* by John Wiley & Sons. Pearson's textbook *Foundations of*

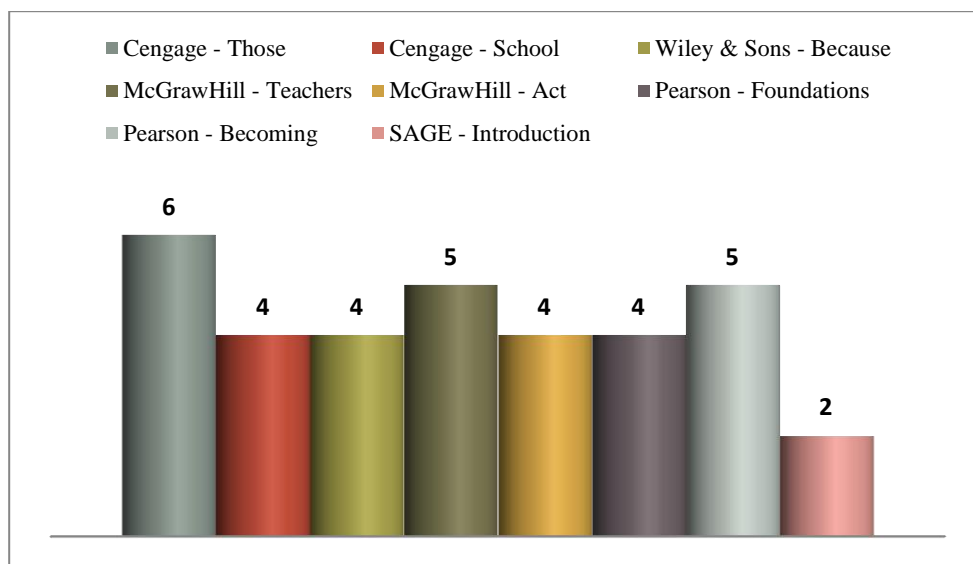
American Education met criteria for eight of the categories, 14% of the analyzed content. Of the 17 total categories, two textbooks published by Cengage Learning – *School An Introduction to Education* and *Those Who Can, Teach* met criteria at 12% and 15% respectively. *Introduction to Teaching*, the textbook published by SAGE, met criteria for four of the 17 categories. Indicative of 7% of the analyzed content, this was the least amount of content analyzed that aligned to the criteria utilized in this study.



Overview of All Categories Meeting Criteria

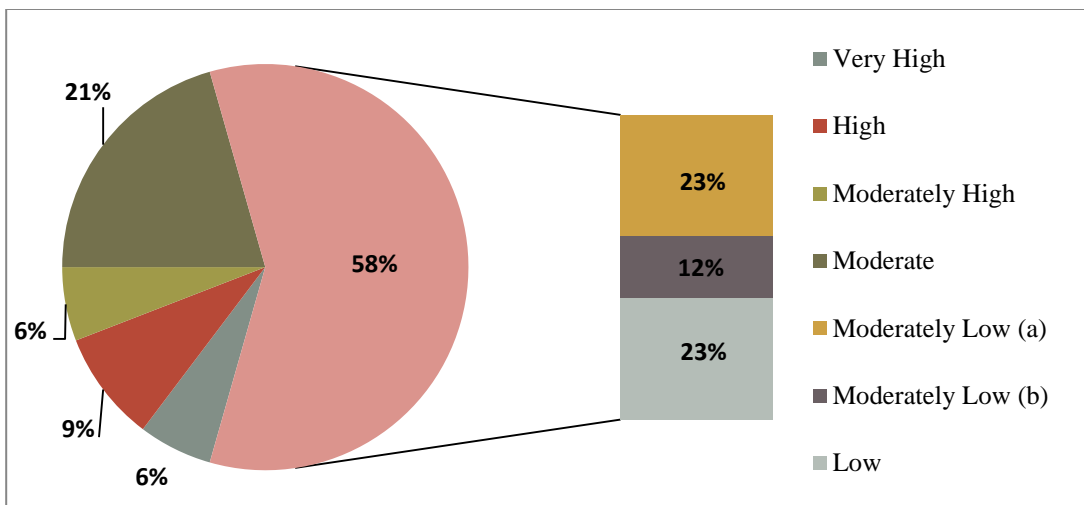
The responses to categories graph below illustrates the results of the content analysis of the extent each of the eight introduction to education textbooks explained character education. Content in *Those Who Can, Teach* (Cengage) aligned to six of the seven categories, 85.7% of this category, while *Teachers, School, and Society* (McGraw-Hill) along with *Becoming a Teacher* (Pearson) spoke to five of the seven categories, or 71.4% of the category in this frame. Each of the following textbooks: *School: An Introduction to Education*, *Foundations of American Education*, *The Act of Teaching*, and *Because Teaching Matters* spoke to four of the seven categories or 57.1% of the category. *Introduction to Teaching* published by SAGE included the least

amount of information for this frame with only two of the seven, 28.5% of the category addressed.



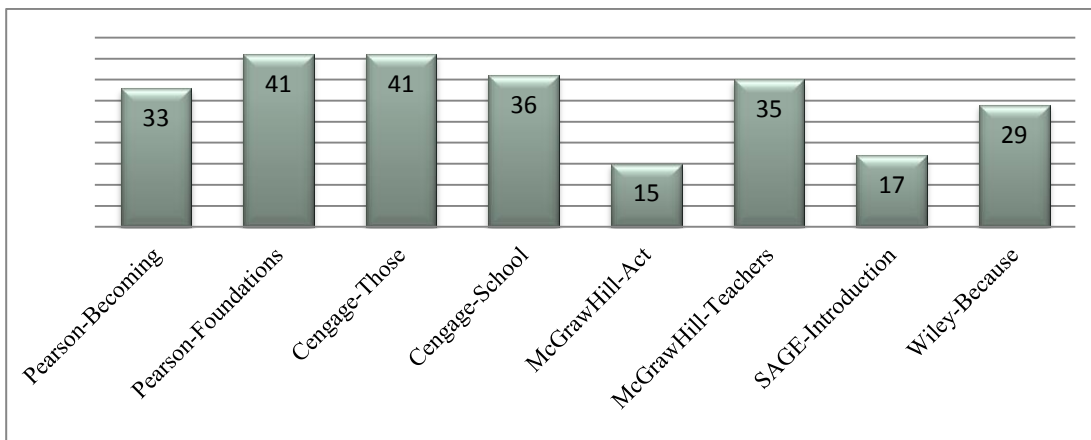
Overview of References to the Seven Categories Explanation Frame

The content meeting criteria graph shown below shows that of the seven levels of explanation indicated on the rubric, 58% presented moderately low to low representation. Moderately low(a) and low criteria was met in all eight textbooks representing 23% for each category. Moderately low (b) was found in four textbooks, which constituted 12% of the analyzed content. As can be seen in the graph below, 6% of the analyzed content was found to have met the higher end of the criteria. This is representative of two textbooks that met the level of criteria designated very high and two textbooks that met the moderately high criteria as defined on the rubric. Three textbooks, or 9%, represented analyzed content that met criteria designated at a high level on the rubric. At 21%, the analyzed content was at the moderate level in seven textbooks.



Content Meeting Criteria Very High to Low

The total coded criteria graph, the last one in this section shows the total number of coded criteria for the four research questions under examination, Pearson’s *Foundations of American Education* and *Those Who Teach* by Cengage each totalled 41 coded markers. Thirty-six markers were coded in *School: An Introduction to Education* by Cengage, *Teachers, Schools, and Society* by McGraw-Hill totalled 35 coded markers, and in *Becoming a Teacher* by Pearson 33 markers were coded. At the lower end, *Because Teaching Matters* by Wiley there were 29 markers were coded, in *Introduction to Teaching* by SAGE found 17 coded markers, and McGraw-Hill’s *The Act of Teaching* located 15 coded markers.



Total Coded Criteria

Narrow View

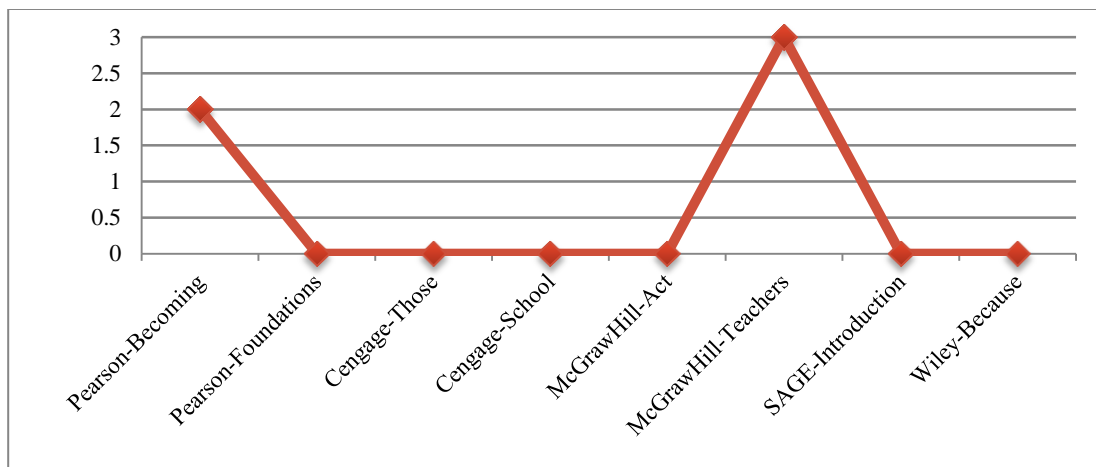
As will be demonstrated, the explanation of character education varied from textbook to textbook and from publisher to publisher. References at the high-level categorical criteria were meager. Most references to explain character education were located at the lower end of the categorical criteria. References to character development in the history of American education, differences in viewpoints concerning character education, and federal and state legislation were sparse in the majority of textbooks.

The four research questions presented in the narrow view follows the same format as the broad view, starting with the first research question.

Research question 1: To what extent do introduction to education textbooks explain character education?

Explaining character education – very high.

“Very High” was the uppermost category on the rubric and could be considered as superior treatment. Criteria included a reference to the term character education, inclusion of one or more of the NCLB elements (e.g., caring, responsibility, respect), character education linked to education (the link could not be related to multicultural, behavioral, drug awareness, or sex education), a clearly identifiable link to teaching and learning, and the provision of instructional strategies. All aforementioned criteria were required; consequently, the criteria must have been present within the contextual unit to garner this level of explanation. As shown on the following graph, two of the eight analyzed textbooks met this level of criteria. Pearson’s *Becoming a Teacher* met this criteria three times and *Teachers, School, and Society* by McGraw-Hill did so twice. The remaining six textbooks did not rise to this level of explanation.

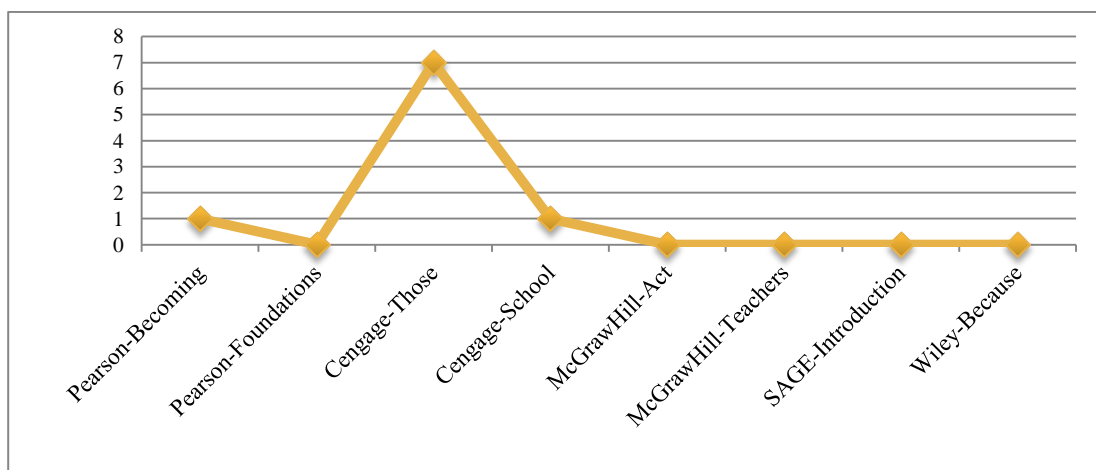


Explaining Character Education Very High

Explaining character education – high.

Three of the eight analyzed textbooks were reflective of the “High” level.

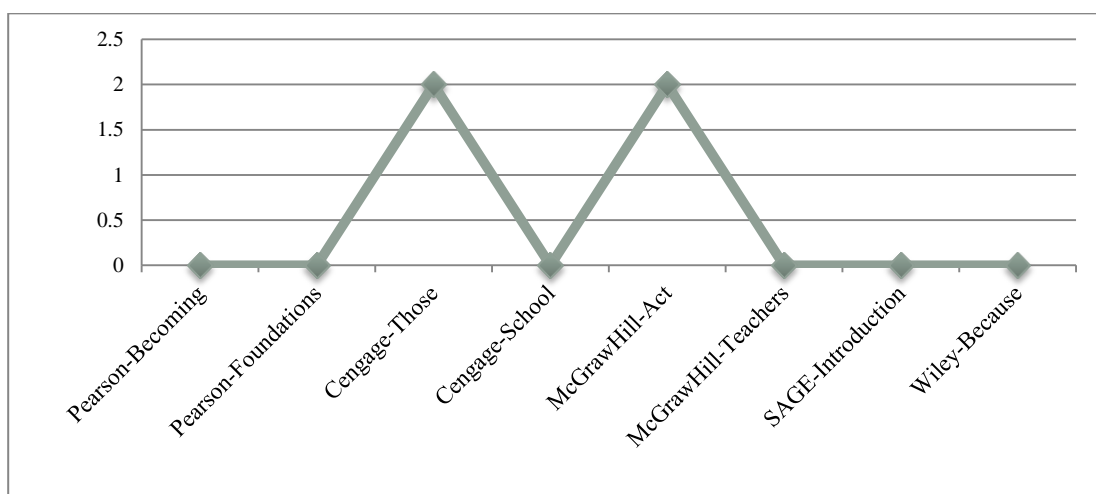
Those Who Can, Teach met this level of criteria seven times, *School: An Introduction to Education* and *Becoming a Teacher* each met this level of criteria once. The remaining five textbooks did not meet this level of explanation. At this level, the contextual unit must have reflected the following criteria: character education identified through NCLB elements and/or dictionary descriptors, character education linked to education (the link could not be related to multicultural, behavioral, drug awareness or sex education) teacher or teaching explicitly or implicitly stated, and sample instructional strategies.



Explaining Character Education High

Explaining character education – moderately high.

As with the rating of very high, two of the eight textbooks met the moderately high criteria and six did not meet this level of explanation. *Those Who Can, Teach* published by Cengage and *The Act of Teaching* published by McGraw-Hill each met this level of criteria twice. At the “Moderately High” level, the required criteria included character education identified by NCLB elements and/or dictionary descriptors, character education linked to education itself (the link could not be related to multicultural, behavioral, drug awareness, or sex education) and teaching or teacher involvement explicitly or implicitly stated.

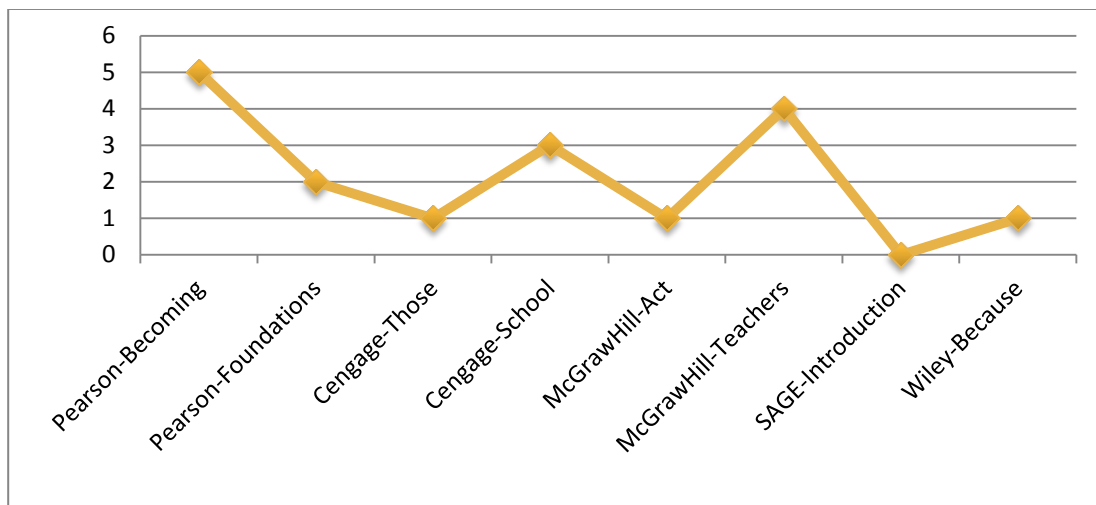


Explaining Character Education Moderately High

Explaining character education – moderate.

Seven of the eight textbooks in this study met the criteria for a moderate level of explaining character education. Moderate level on the rubric required the inclusion of NCLB elements and/or dictionary descriptors to identify character education, along with character education explicitly or implicitly linked to education (the link could not be related to multicultural, behavioral or sex education). *Becoming a Teacher* met this level of criteria through five references to the markers. Pearson’s *Foundations of*

American Education met this criteria level twice. *Those Who Can, Teach*, Cengage, *The Act of Teaching*, McGraw-Hill, and *Because Teaching Matters*, Wiley, each met the criteria one time. *Teachers, Schools and Society* by McGraw-Hill met this level through five occurrences of the required criteria. The textbook, *Introduction to Teaching* published by SAGE did not address this level.



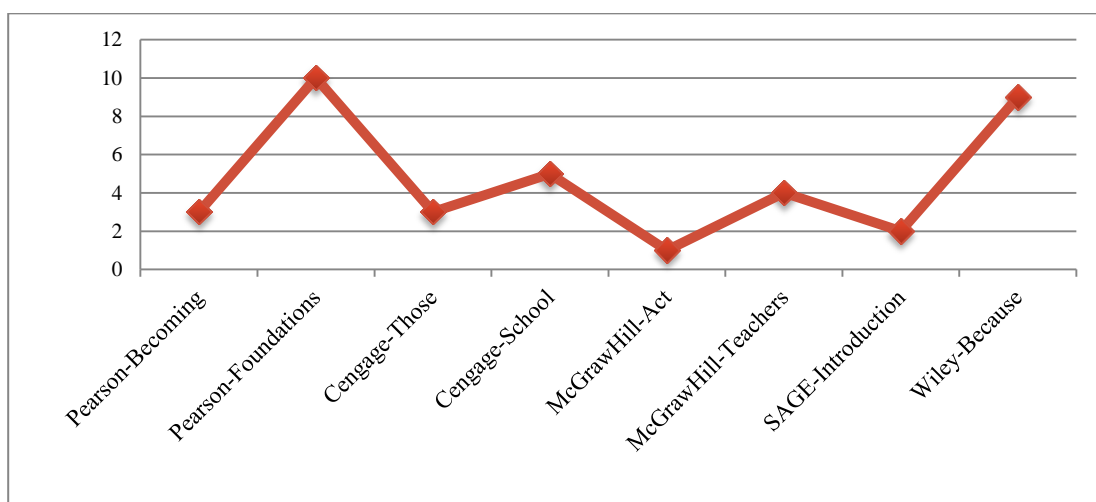
Explaining Character Education Moderate

Explaining character education – moderately low (a).

This level of representation presented in all eight textbooks. This level met criteria more than the previous levels with rubric indicators met between one to ten times. At this level, the rubric called for character education to be identified through NCLB elements and/or dictionary descriptors, and teacher involvement was explicitly and implicitly tied to character education through teaching or educational philosophies. For example, the text may state something like this: *education's purpose according to progressivism is to create engaged citizens for a democratic republic.* With this philosophy, classes are communities in which teachers and students demonstrate respect for one another and work together toward social justice. All textbooks addressed

educational philosophies, some more than others. Each philosophy was included in the data one time; multiple references to the same philosophy were not included in the data.

Foundations of American Education met 10 markers, the greatest number of references at this level. *Because Teaching Matters* exhibited criteria in nine references, five criteria references were found in *School: An Introduction to Education* and four references were found in *Teachers, Schools, and Society*. At the lower end, three criteria presented in *Those Who Can, Teach* and *Becoming a Teacher*, two criteria in *Introduction to Teaching*, and *The Act of Teaching* exhibited one criteria at this level of explanation.



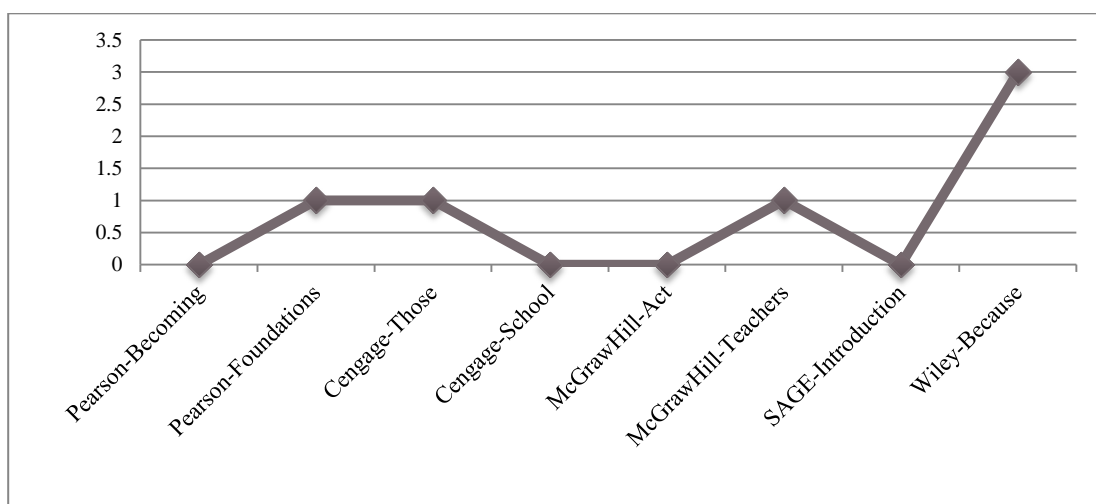
Explaining Character Education Moderately Low (a)

Explaining character education – moderately low (b).

This level of explanation required character education to be identified through NCLB elements and teacher involvement stated explicitly or implicitly through standards such as the core teaching standards of the Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC). All eight textbooks referenced these standards; however, only two of the eight textbooks, *Becoming a Teacher* and *Foundations of American Education*, used the actual verbiage of the standards as listed in the *InTASC*

Model Core Teaching Standards: A Resource for State Dialogue (2011). The paraphrasing used in *Those Who Can, Teach* was close to the standards. *Because Teaching Matters* and *School: An Introduction to Education* took liberties in paraphrasing the standards. Standards reported in *Teachers, Schools, and Society* were completely different from the InTASC standards to include this title – *Principles* instead of *Standards*. Cruickshank, et.al. (2012) referred readers to the Educational Testing Service study guide publication *Principles of Learning and Teaching*, as the Praxis II™ exam is “closely aligned with state InTASC Standards” (Front Cover). *Introduction to Teaching* by Sage simply listed an abbreviated title of each standard on the front and back covers of the textbook.

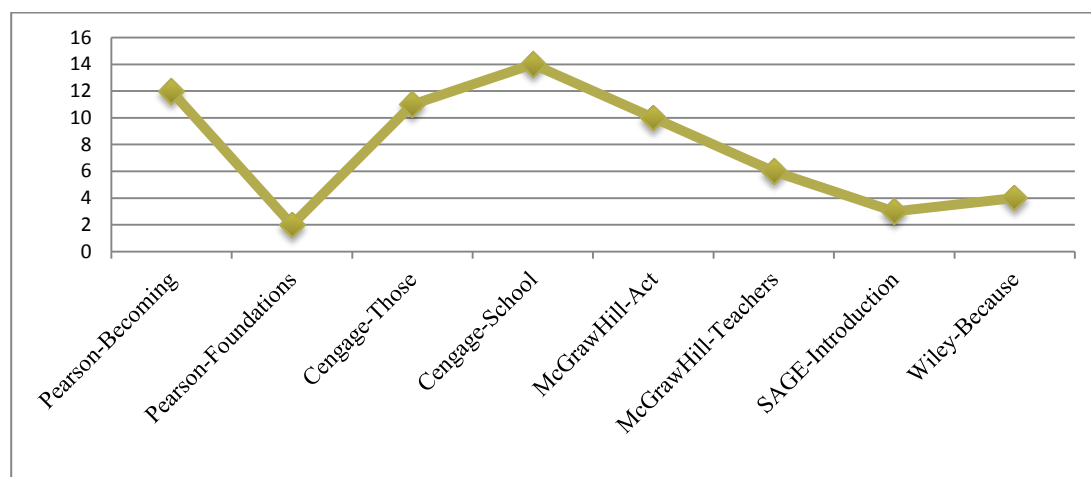
Three of the eight textbooks, *Foundations of American Education*, *Those Who Can, Teach*, and *Teachers, Schools, and Society* each met criteria once for this level. *Because Teaching Matters* met criteria at this level three times. This indicates that only half, or four of the eight textbooks analyzed, contained references to InTASC.



Explaining Character Education Moderately Low (b)

Explaining character education – low.

All eight textbooks met criteria at a low level of explanation. At this level, the sole relationship to character education distinguished itself through a reference to a NCLB element and/or dictionary descriptor not related to multicultural, behavioral, or sex education. The greatest number of references was at this low level. With 14, *School: An Introduction to Education* presented the greatest number of markers that met criteria. *Becoming a Teacher* met criteria with 12 references, *Those Who Can, Teach* with 11 references, and *The Act of Teaching* met criteria with 10 references. *Foundations of Education*, *Introduction to Teaching*, *Because Teaching Matters*, and *Teachers, Schools, and Society* met criteria with two, three, four, and six references respectively.



Explaining Character Education Low

Summary of findings for the first research question.

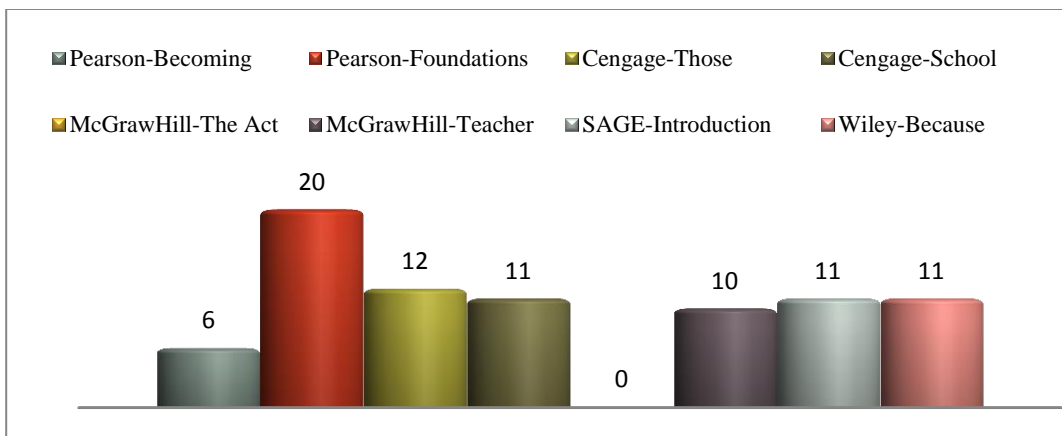
As previously discussed, the explanatory presence of character education in textbooks was determined through rubric style categories developed and validated to ensure the capture of the same requisite criteria throughout the analyses.

Based on the presented findings, this researcher ascertained that the explanation of character education was poorly presented in the analyzed textbooks. With only two of the seven categories of criteria addressed by all the textbooks, the extent of coverage was meager. Overall, explanations of character education discovered in the analysis failed to describe character education at a level that would provide pre-service teachers with a comprehensive working knowledge of character education.

Research question 2: To what extent do introduction to education textbooks explain historical references?

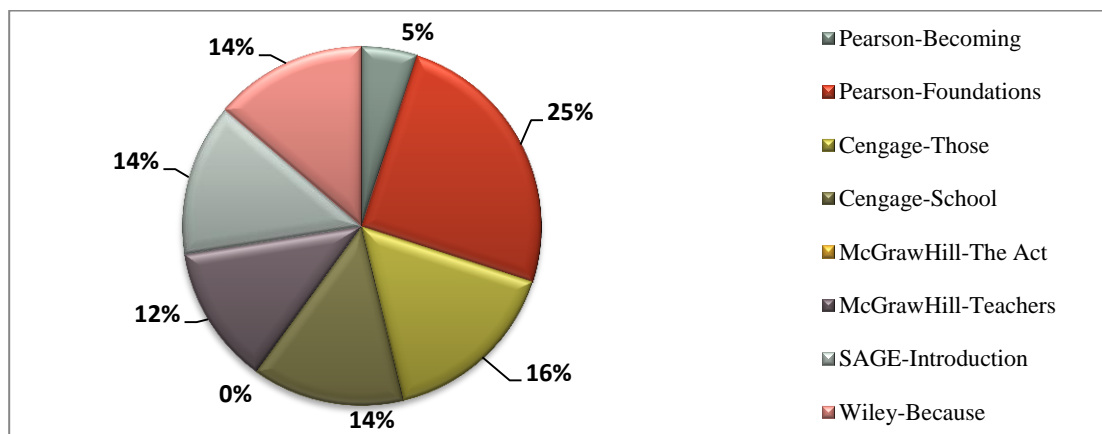
The inclusion of character development – morals and ethics – in the history of American education has been largely documented (Davis, 2003; Dill, 2007; Greenawalt, 1996; Howard, Berkowitz & Schaeffer, 2004; Laud, 1997; Lockwood, 2009; McClellan, 1999; Mulkey, 1997). Criteria developed and validated for the purpose of investigating historical references to character development excluded multiple references to content addressing the same area. For example, *McGuffey's Readers* mentioned in three locations was treated as one historical reference.

Historical references comprised the most frequently addressed frame. As shown on the graphical illustration, of the eight textbooks only one, *The Act of Teaching* published by McGraw-Hill, did not include any mention of the history of character education throughout antiquity, and more importantly, the role of character development in the history of American education.



Number of References Historical Frame

Some textbooks covered the topic more extensively than others, as the following pie chart clearly depicts. *Foundations of American Education* contained 20 references, or approximately 25% of the overall references to the role of morals and ethics in character development since the inception of American education. Conversely, *The Act of Teaching* was silent with zero historical references. With 12 historical markers, *Those Who Teach* represented 16% of the references. *School: An Introduction to Education, Introduction to Teaching*, and *Because Teaching Matters* each presented 11 references or 14%. *Teachers, Schools, and Society* reflected 12% with 11 historical references. *Becoming a Teacher* presented six references for 5% of historical references to character development.



Over-all References to Historical Frame

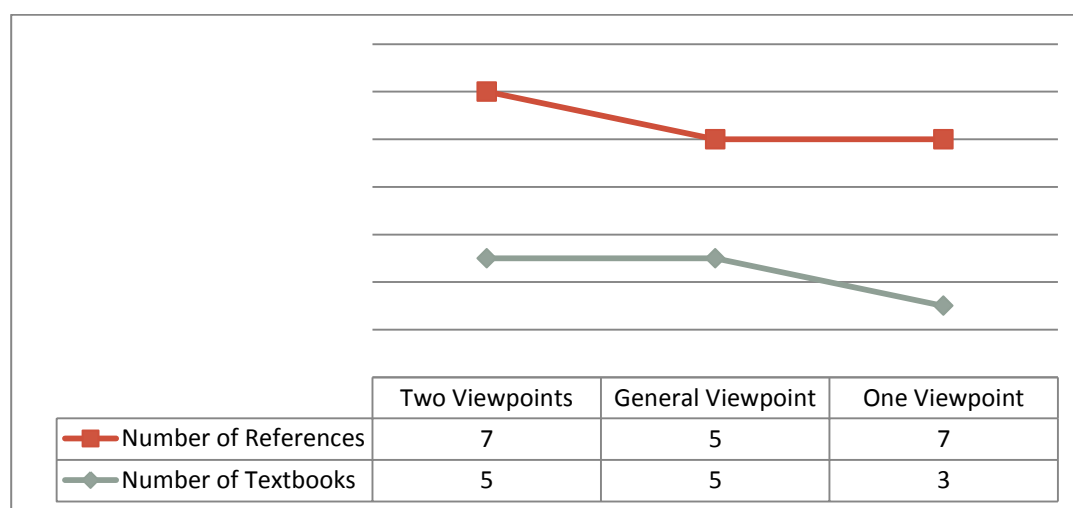
Summary of findings for the second research question. A casual review of the historical frame to character development in the history of American education as presented may lead one to conclude the topic was addressed relatively well, especially when compared to the explanations frame of character education. While historical references were higher than other categories in the three other frames, overall coverage should still be considered low when compared to the amount of research available covering this topic.

There were numerous references to historical figures (e.g., Locke, Mann, Jefferson, Dewey) and their respective roles in the history of American education. For the majority of these textbooks, much of the information concerning the historical role of morals and ethics in American education was limited to references in *McGuffey's Readers*, the Northwest Ordinance in 1785, and the 1918 *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* issued by the National Education Association. Yet, despite the extensive coverage of the role of character development in the history of American education in the literature, the sample textbooks provided sparse information.

Research question 3: To what extent do introduction to education textbooks explain divergent viewpoints?

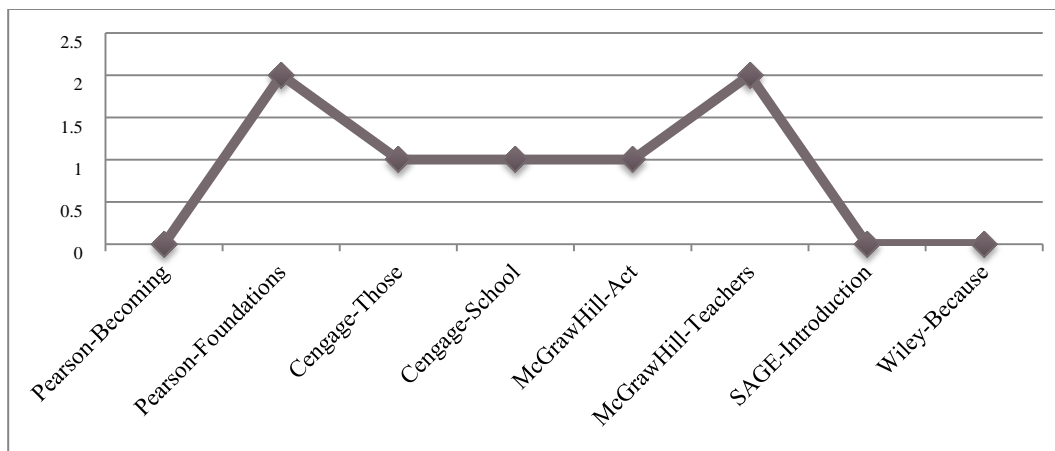
Researchers, parents, politicians, and educational professionals, to name a few, have in the past and continue at present to debate the merits of character education. An analysis of the content from the divergent viewpoints frame encompassed the following areas: 1) Opposing viewpoints with attention to both sides of the argument, 2) generalized statements with no clear perspective – either pro or con, and 3) content that addressed a single position.

An overview of the number of textbooks that addressed the viewpoints either endorsing or opposing character education in the public school is shown below. While each of the viewpoints is presented individually further along, the overview presents the diversity found within the textbooks in regard to this research question. Seven references to both sides of the argument was found in five textbooks, five generalized comments, meaning the textbooks simply nodded to the existence of a debate, was located in five textbooks, and three textbooks contained seven references to one side of the debate.



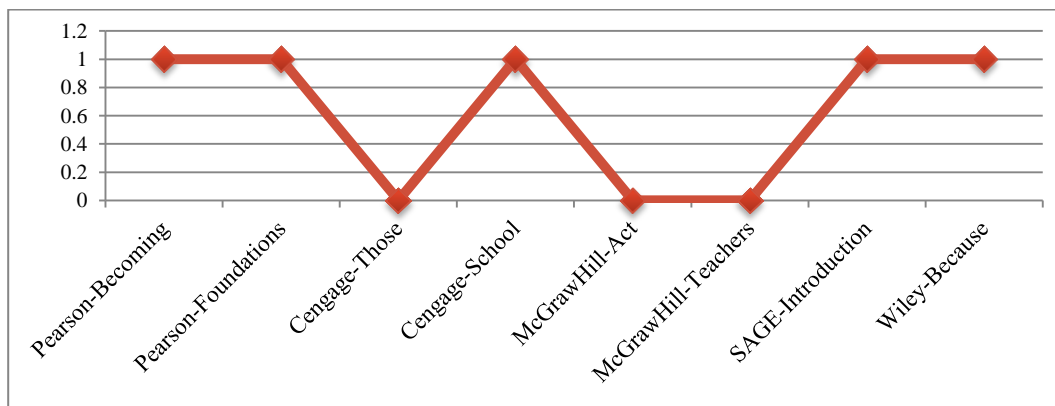
Overview of References to Divergent Viewpoints

Five of the eight textbooks analyzed presented both sides of the character education debate. *Foundations of Education* and *Teachers, Schools, and Society* each provided both sides of the perspective twice. *Those Who Can, Teach, School: An Introduction to Education*, and *The Act of Teaching* all included one reference to both sides of the conflicting views. *Becoming a Teacher*, *Introduction to Teaching*, and *Because Teaching Matters* were silent on the debate.



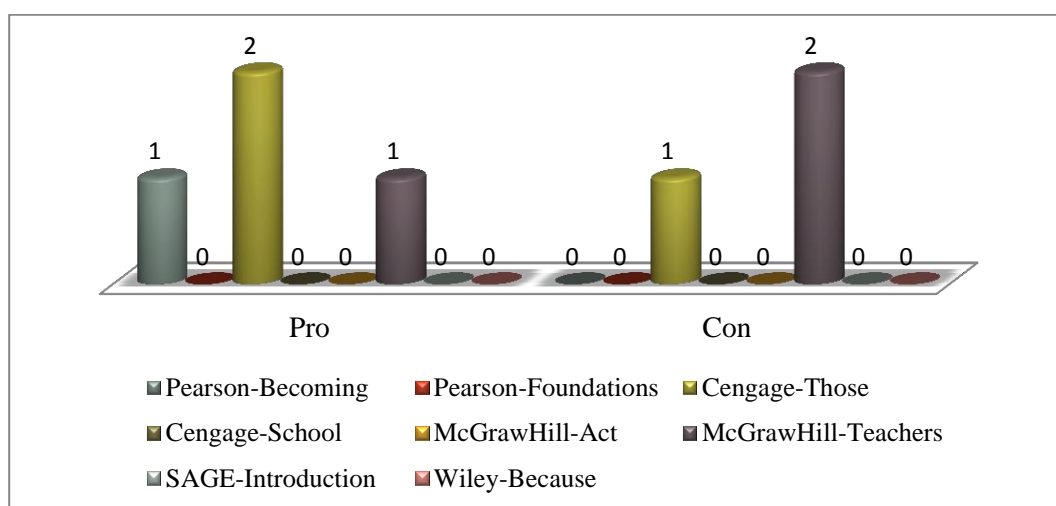
Viewpoints Frame – Both Sides

Five of the eight textbooks, *Becoming a Teacher*, *Foundations of Education*, *School: An Introduction to Education*, *Introduction to Teaching*, and *Because Teaching Matters*, as can be seen in the following graph, included one general mention to the debate surrounding character education. No particular position was indicated in these textbooks, the content generally reported something along the lines of *a general debate surrounds the topic*. As previously discussed, a discrepancy existed between textbooks published by the same publisher. Pearson and Cengage both had one textbook that spoke to the topic at least one time, and one textbook that did not mention the topic. Both textbooks published by McGraw-Hill, *The Act of Teaching* and *Teachers, Schools, and Society*, did not include any mention of the varying perspectives.



Viewpoints Frame – General Mention

Only three of the eight textbooks referenced single, directed views on the debate over character education. This level of reference to the topic was typical for the data found in this research. *Becoming a Teacher*, a Pearson publication, *Those Who Can, Teach*, a Cengage publication and *Teachers, Schools, and Society*, a McGraw-Hill publication, each presented three references to the topic. Interestingly the references were mirror opposites – *Those Who Can, Teach* referenced two constructive and one critical view and *Teachers, Schools, and Society* included one favorable constructive and two critical views.



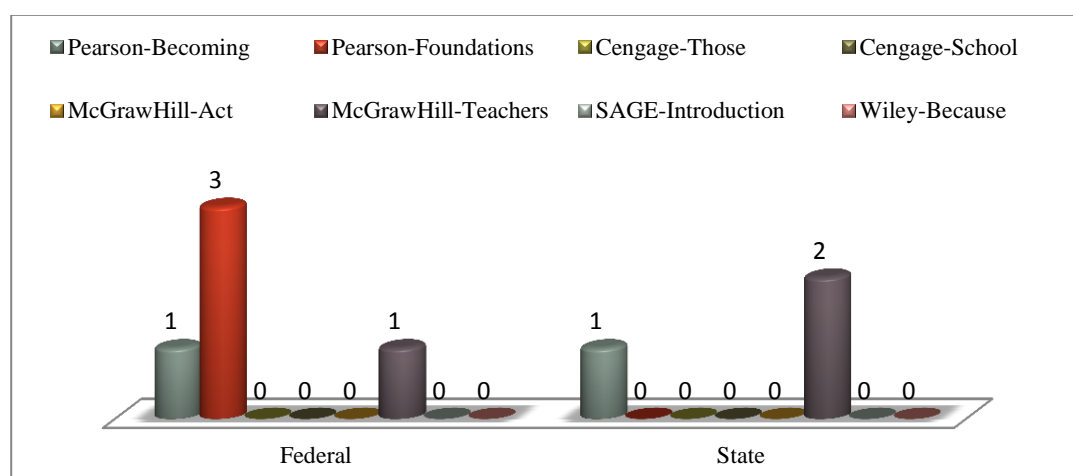
Viewpoints Frame – One View

Summary of findings for the third research question. Analysis of the textbooks indicated scant coverage of the divergent viewpoints in three categories that spoke to textbook coverage of the topic. No more than two references to this frame were contained in any of the eight textbooks examined. One text published by Pearson, *Becoming a Teacher*, included a full page on a comprehensive approach to character education from the Center for the 4th and 5th Rs, but did not address the controversy surrounding character education. Claims as to the effectiveness of character education in raising academic achievement and lowering school violence have been at once

embraced and disputed. Given this dichotomy in thought, it would make sense that coverage of this topic be included in textbooks marketed for the use in teacher education programs.

Research question 4: To what extent did introduction to education textbooks address state and federal legislation regarding character education?

Approximately three-quarters of the sampled textbooks did not reference either federal or state legislation concerning character education. Three of the eight textbooks, 37.5%, referenced state and federal legislation concerning character education, *Foundations of American Education*, *Teachers, Schools, and Society* and *Becoming a Teacher*. *Teachers, Schools, and Society* included information on the federal grants most states received to implement character education programs, as well as noting that a number of states have enacted legislation that requires schools to implement character education programs. *Foundations in American Education* referenced NCLB, Educate America Act, and the Federal Service Act. Two of eight textbooks, 25%, met criteria for state legislation, *Teachers, Schools, and Society* and *Becoming a Teacher*.



References to Legislative Frame

Summary of findings for the fourth research question. NCLB, although expired, is still federal education law and speaks to character education. Thirty-six states have either legislatively mandated or encouraged character education programs with another seven states supportive of character education without legislative involvement (CEP, n.d.). With law in place to promote character education in schools, it is reasonable to expect introduction to education textbooks to address this topic. This was not the case as the textbooks were largely mute. Cruickshank, et al (2012) in *The Act of Teaching* spoke to the “educational goals set by state governors and the first President George Bush in 1990 for America to attain by 2000” (p. 176). Included was the goal for students to be “prepared for responsible citizenship” (p. 176). This was not coded, as the inclusion of this law was to show readers how poorly the law was written as the general nature of the objective makes it nearly impossible to measure something like being prepared to act as a responsible citizen.

Conclusion

Overall, the results for the introduction to education textbooks analyzed for this study indicated a poor representation of character education. The textbooks *Those Who Can, Teach* (Cengage), *Becoming a Teacher* (Pearson), and *Teachers, Schools, Society* (McGraw-Hill) addressed character education more than others did, but even that coverage was, for the most part, marginal. *Those Who Can, Teach* covered the topic more extensively than the others; however, character education was shown in the table of contents under the section heading *What Out to Be the Elements of Educational Reform*. This sends the message the character education is an intervention; to be viewed through the lens of school reform as opposed to student character development.

Character education was not listed in the index in three textbooks. Just at half or, four of eight, textbook glossaries contained a definition of character education. The glossary in one textbook defined moral education, stating it was akin to character education. This distorts character education, and use of the word morals feeds the dispute concerning the place of character education in the public school system.

None of the eight textbooks analyzed contained any degree of information sufficient to the task of educating future teachers. Failure to incorporate student development of morals, ethics, and character in the introduction to education textbook could be considered a disservice to not only pre-service teachers, but to teacher education programs as well. While the research points toward a definite lack of adequate character education coverage in introduction to education programs, there are ways to remedy the situation. This will be the focus of discussion in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The most important human endeavor is the striving for morality in our actions. Our inner balance and even our very existence depend on it. Only morality in our actions can give beauty and dignity to life. To make this a living force and bring it to clear consciousness is perhaps the foremost task of education.

-Albert Einstein

The most significant aspect of education, according to the quote attributed to Einstein, is to bring morality to life. He goes so far as to say that the existence of humanity is dependent upon the morality of humanity. Dramatic? Perhaps. However, remember that Einstein lived during a period of time students today only read about or watch on visual media. It was at this time when one man rose to power and morality disappeared; with its disappearance, millions were murdered. Burleigh (2000) referred to this as the abdication of morality by an advanced industrial society. Consequently, it is imperative students learn, develop, and value good character as morality is part-and-parcel of character. There is little doubt that public schools today have become the primary socialization agents of the students within its classrooms. The role of teacher education programs is critical; these programs provide the knowledge and guidance to individuals who will one day have their own classrooms. Pre-service and alternative route teachers depend on teacher education programs to teach them how to educate and guide the development of the child, adolescent, and teenager seated before them. Without exposure to the craft of character education, teacher education programs place

new teachers at risk for failure, and failure in the arena of character development is something society as a whole cannot afford. The ramifications are many and costly.

Introduction

Character education has been part of the school curriculum, in some form or fashion, since the colonial period. Through the years it has evolved from strictly biblical teachings to citizenship education, but has nonetheless remained under the purview of the public school. While a hiatus from character education was seen in the 1950s through the 1970s, there has been an ongoing call for its return since the 1980s.

This chapter begins with a discussion of the findings of the research on character education conducted for this study. Each research question is presented individually with a summary of the findings for that question, which is grounded in the data presented in Chapter 4. It will then move to a review of the significance of this research as presented in Chapter 1 and aligns the findings to the significance. The hidden curriculum, a topic that emerged throughout the study, is then discussed in terms of its impact on character education. Next the implications for future research will be addressed, with recommendations for the field following. A final reflection will close this chapter.

Research Questions Discussed

Through a concentrated examination of eight introduction to education textbooks secured from the five largest American publishing houses, this study sought to determine the extent to which the selected textbooks addressed character education. There was inconsistency in the findings to the questions themselves and the findings between the textbooks by publisher. The following breakdown of the research

questions adds to the analysis presented in Chapter 4.

Research Questions Reviewed

To what extent did introduction to education textbooks explain character education? The findings of the analysis conducted on the selected textbooks found that the majority of the explanations, 50%, fell within the moderate to low categories with the highest number of references, 37.5%, found in the low and moderately low categories. Only two of the eight textbooks reflected content that met the criteria for very high. At this level of explanation, the sampled textbooks would not provide pre-service or alternative route teachers sufficient understanding of character education to knowledgeably teach character education with any degree of comfort and ease.

To what extent did introduction to education textbooks address the history of character education? As indicated in Chapter 4, the historical references to character education far out-weighted any other reference. Of the eight textbooks, 87.5% provided six or more references, *Foundations of American Education* provided the majority with 20 references. There was only one textbook, *The Act of Teaching* that did not contain a reference to character education in the history of American education. The findings of this study found the representation of character education in the history of American education as narrow and limited. Although far more coverage was provided to the historical background of character education when compared with the other frames in this study, to effectively maximize their knowledge of character education, they must know the history of the topic.

To what extent did introductory education textbooks address the divergent viewpoints regarding character education? The references contained in the analyzed

textbooks were quite limited in number. Five textbooks were found to have either one or two references for the category where both sides of the argument were presented. One generalized reference to the debate was found in five textbooks, and three textbooks contained content that referenced either for or against teaching character education in the public school. The lack of quality coverage of the viewpoints dividing those who want character education taught in the schools and those who feel the public school is not the place, not only does little to prepare future teachers to intelligently participate in any type of discussion on the topic but also prohibits critical analysis and reflection on the debate. This is especially troublesome when the state mandates its inclusion in the curriculum.

To what extent did introduction to education textbooks address state and federal legislation regarding character education? Even though approximately 71% of states in the U.S. either mandate or encourage teaching character education through legislation, this study found a poor representation of character education in the textbooks selected for analysis. One textbook briefly mentioned that some states mandate character education; however, it did not indicate which states legislatively mandate teaching character education. No mention was made of those states who encourage teaching character education through legislation. Millions of dollars in the form of grants have been given to states to implement character education programs; this alone should trigger some commentary in introduction to education textbooks regarding character education.

The findings of the last two research questions, divergent viewpoints and legislation regarding character education, provided the least number of references.

Given the movement to incorporate social emotional learning in President Obama's revisions to NCLB and the open and ongoing debate found in print and electronic media (i.e., the Internet), it was surprising these two areas were so scantily addressed.

The representation of character education found in the sample textbooks was narrow in scope and of mediocre quality. These findings are problematic as the degree of character education currently presented in the textbooks may be reflective of the overall exposure pre-service or alternative route teachers receive in their training. Unless the teacher education program in which the pre-service or alternative education teacher is enrolled has character education as a line item on the class syllabus, it would seem unlikely that this topic would be addressed since the textbooks provide limited information. This assumption is grounded in reports of the scarcity of character education in teacher education programs offered by Berkowitz (1998), Howard (2005), Jones, Ryan, & Bohlin (1999), Revell & Arthur (2007), Wakefield (1997), and Wiley (n.d.).

Significance of the Study Revisited

When this study was in the proposal stage, I felt that the results would be significant on several levels. At its conclusion, the study did in fact prove my assumption to be true. As this research was not bounded by geographic location, the findings can align to what Merriam (1995) refers to as "reader generalizability" (p. 58). The results found in this study can be applied to any teacher education program because teacher education programs, like most all university level programs, use textbooks.

The findings of this study enhance the current body of literature referencing character education in teacher education programs. Prior to this study, the treatment of

character education in introduction to education textbooks could not be located.

Publishers will gain critical information from this study overall, and specifically in relation to states that currently have legislation mandating or encouraging character education be taught in the public schools. Publishing a comprehensive introduction to education textbook complete with in-depth coverage of character education allows professors in colleges of education to focus on the enhancement of this topic.

Professors of teacher education will find the results helpful in textbook selection as it will bring character education to the forefront of teacher education programs. Further, use of this study's findings can be helpful in strategically designing teacher education curriculum. Textbooks that include character education within their covers add to teacher candidates' knowledge base; that in turn translates into better teaching practices when they enter their own classrooms. Colleges of education would also be in a position to save districts money if they graduate teachers who are well versed in the language of character education because they will not need commercially developed character education programs.

References were made throughout the first two chapters to the violence so prevalent in our society. During the course of this study, two tragedies in particular illuminated that statement. The first was the wholesale murder of elementary school children and the teachers who protected them. The second was the murder of a young honors student in Chicago. This tragedy brought to light the fact that in the 366 days of 2012 there were 506 murder victims in Chicago – nearly double the number of days in the year (CNN Staff, 2013). While not devaluing all other instances of violence in our

society, these two occurrences emphasize the need for schools to look at more than academics in our schools.

Then there is the problem with bullying – this has garnered national attention. It must be stated that bullying is not just student on student. There have been reports of students bullying and assaulting teachers. A YouTube video that received a lot of attention in April, 2008 was of a student in Baltimore’s Reginald F. Lewis High School. The student is shown beating a teacher while the other students in the class captured the assault on cell phone video and then posted it on YouTube. In addition to the assault, the students’ laughter and cheers are heard in the background; no one tried to stop it and only one student called for assistance – they simply watched it happen.

(<http://www.worldstarhiphop.com/videos/video.php?v=wshhuEfTMF15R7Fw0G9j>)

More recently in Charlotte, North Carolina, a local news team investigated bullying of teachers in schools. Their report indicates the problem is widespread; teachers reported being choked, threatened, and were fearful of their students.

(<http://www.wsoctv.com/news/news/local/9-investigates-teachers-getting-bullied-local-scho/nWNfb/#cmComments>). These incidents show that the need for character education has reached the critical stage.

Schools and those who teach the students within their walls must take an active leadership role in the education and development of the nation’s youth in all aspects of character – including the teaching of respect, acceptance, and the value of human life. This education begins with the teachers’ own education.

Emergent: Not Looking But Finding

Hidden Curriculum

Several of the textbooks analyzed for this study suggested that character education is taught through the hidden curriculum. While this was not part of the initial proposal or under consideration prior to conducting the research, I believe it is well worth addressing in this chapter. Armstrong and Spandagou (2010) define hidden curriculum as the actual experiences of students and teachers in the school setting. Most education professionals would agree that the hidden curriculum is not truly hidden and does impact the students in multiple ways. The newly certified teacher may not be aware of the hidden curriculum, and especially not its association with character education.

Many educators would say that the hidden curriculum implicitly teaches students a number of behaviors, some positive and some negative. There are valuable lessons learned – punctuality, work ethic, completing assignments, respect for authority – all traits most students will carry into their respective careers. Some lessons learned depend on what students view around them – socializing with others, views of themselves and others – if what they see is respect, acceptance, and the value of human dignity, most students will learn these traits. If, on the other hand, students see teachers or school staff belittling others and treating some differently than others, then they will learn little. Students continuously monitor how teachers and others on the school staff treat each other, as well as how they treat students. In his study of teachers' and students' views of character education, Romanowski (2003) reported students hearing teachers talk about or down to students as well as their colleagues – this is hidden

curriculum. Students learn what they see and for this and reasons like it, teacher education programs are duty bound to facilitate pre-service and alternative route teachers' own development of character education, in addition to learning how to teach it.

Implications for Future Research

Considering teacher education programs as the primary agent responsible for imparting all expectations associated with the professional teacher is hardly arguable. Teacher candidates become teachers with their own classrooms. Teachers have the greatest of responsibilities – to guide the development of the nation's young.

Teachers whose preparation has readied them to teach content knowledge carry into their classroom the tools to guide that instruction. When the knowledge base to understand the concept of character education is not part of the teacher's tool chest, he or she lacks valuable resources. Students leave the classroom rich in academics, poor in the understanding of character and how their character drives not only their individual lives, but also their care for and involvement with their communities, which extends to the whole of American society. You'll recall from the opening of Chapter 4 that the young career professionals in Washington, DC who were well versed in foreign policy for an obscure third-world country did not know the name of the public school down the street; this is a prime example of poor community citizenship.

What of the young teacher wannabees straight out of high school? What if they were never taught character education, if the hidden curriculum in the schools they attended was one similar to the school referenced by Romanowski (2003)? How would they themselves teach character education? Not every child has a proper role model,

thus these teacher candidates have no schema from which to draw and must depend on their teacher education program to guide them. Possibilities for future research include the following:

- As this research is the first that looked into the coverage of character education in introduction to education textbooks, further research into this area is warranted.
- Looking beyond introduction to education textbooks to the teacher education program itself, what textbooks utilized in other courses would benefit from the inclusion of character education within the textbook? How would inclusion of character education in other textbooks improve learning and teaching for teacher students on this topic?
- A study of the methods utilized by college of education faculty to choose textbook may be of value, especially to textbook publishers. For example, faculty could be asked what they consider when examining textbooks – do they read the textbook in its entirety, look at the table of contents, the index, visuals, insets, how the textbook is organized overall? Do they utilize the questions in the book or develop their own? Are ancillary materials important? Do they look for media references? Is the research listed in the textbook an important feature?
- Research into teacher education programs' inclusion of character education is essential. What does character education look like in teacher education program nationally, regionally, or in the program's own state? How is the topic approached?

- Teacher education programs may want to survey their graduates on their experiences with character education. Are they teaching character education? If so, how is character education being taught? What are their thoughts on character education for students in colleges of education? What recommendations would they make for teaching character education in the teacher education program – single course, integration into all courses? (Aligns to recommendations for the field.)
- This study focused on introduction to education textbooks marketed for teacher education programs. Administrative support is equally important in successful implementation of character education. It would be beneficial to analyze introduction to school leadership textbooks to gain an understanding of the presentation of character education in these textbooks.

Recommendations for the Field

Professors

Schools in states that have legislatively mandated or encouraged character education do not have a choice; they must teach character education – it is the law. Teachers, therefore, must be provided the same type of knowledge base in this arena as they are for academic content areas. They must understand and be comfortable with the concept, as well as learn the strategies needed to seamlessly incorporate character education into their lessons. Providing this level of knowledge falls to teacher education programs. To quote Wakefield (1997), “Failure to teach character education methods may be indicative of a breach in professional ethics” (p. 10). I should think

that no college of education would want to consider their program in that light. With this in mind, I recommend:

- Teacher education programs should become active voices as to the need for comprehensive coverage of character education in, at the very least, introduction to education textbooks.
- Teacher education programs should have one course designated as character education. For those teacher education programs located in states where the law either mandates or encourages character education, the programs should be aligned to the state statute. The design of the course should incorporate teacher ethics, as well as strategies to employ to effectively handle compromising situations that may arise in the course of a teacher's professional career.
- Colleges of education should investigate ways to integrate character education in most, if not all, of the courses offered within their programs. In this way, teacher candidates will learn valuable information as well as having strategies modeled. In other words, teacher education faculty is doing what they are asking their teacher candidates to do. This would be particularly helpful in courses where the topic of character education is limited in exposure.
- Pre-service or alternative route teachers should be encouraged to engage in student-centered character education research, thereby increasing their understanding of character education. Using the four frames investigated in this research study, teacher candidates could delve deeper into the topic for critical analysis and reflection. One step further would have the teacher candidates

present their findings through such things as a poster presentation open to the public, parent-teacher organizations, or local school districts.

- Teacher graduates of the teacher education program could be invited to an informal panel discussion on character education. Is character education taught at their respective schools? If so, how? What are their thoughts on their own training in the area of character education? (Aligns to recommendations for research.)
- Teacher education programs may want to consider collaborating with local educational agencies to provide professional development on an annual basis. Professional development such as this allows for growth of both the teacher education program as well as growth of individual teacher candidates. This would also provide an opportunity for community development.
- For those universities that have a teacher education program and a criminology or criminal justice program, these departments may want to consider collaborating to assist the juvenile justice system in developing a character development program. Each of these university departments has a wealth of knowledge and expertise in their respective fields. Working in tandem affords the opportunity to build better programs for youth in need.
- Juvenile justice agencies should incorporate a character development program for those youth on probation; the juvenile court system should consider working with the school system to enhance services to youth. Character development programs have the flexibility of being constructed as individual programs for youth, as family programs, or a combination.

Publishers

Character education has been widely researched. Hundreds of books, commercial programs and professional development opportunities exist, yet where it is most needed, it is not found. Publishing houses should make a concerted effort to ensure character education is included in introduction to education textbooks. This is especially true in states where the teachers are legally bound to teach this.

Additionally, publishers should make it a practice to reject material submitted for inclusion in textbooks that is derogatory in nature. This is the polar opposite of the basic premise of character education. Publishers should also be keenly aware of what is presented as fact. These areas are seen in the following stories taken from two textbooks, both of which were published by Pearson Educational, Inc. and used in this study:

- *Foundations of American Education* (2012) authored by Webb, Metha, & Jordan presents a section designated as “Ask Yourself Do I Want to Be a Teacher?” (p. 6). There are a series of questions in this section. The first question asks for reasons the reader has for wanting to teach. Included with the question are several suggestions, one of which reads: “... because you need a job and working as a teacher is more respectable than working as a cab driver or salesperson?” (p. 6)

It is difficult to teach respect then turn around and belittle certain occupations. I would be willing to suggest with some degree of certainty that someone, in some teacher education program in the U.S. has a relative, friend, or perhaps the student

himself or herself who has worked in retail or has driven a taxi. Additionally, this type of verbiage sets a negative tone toward non-professional avenues of employment.

- *Becoming a Teacher* (2012) authored by Parkay, references the Columbine High School tragedy, stating that it “brought the problems of bullying schools to the forefront” (p. 95). Dr. Parkay also refers to the boys as member of the Trench Coat Mafia.

The implication is that the shooters in Columbine were bullied. After 10 years of research, Dave Cullen (2010) presented substantial evidence to debunk these ideas. Cullen and the Jefferson County Sheriff’s Department have stated there is no truth to the story of the Trench Coat Mafia. Neither boy was bullied; it was actually the reverse in the case of Eric Harris. The Columbine High School shooting was horrific. It was the first time media was on scene while the event was unfolding. Fact was mixed with stories; the situation was chaotic, parents looking for children, children looking for parents, law enforcement looking for shooters. Words were misinterpreted, some grossly so. When including stories such as Columbine, publishers need to check the facts of the story before the textbook goes to print. Relying on what ‘everybody knows’ is not necessarily the same as relying on the facts. Additionally, including this type of information simply furthers a myth without providing useful information to teacher candidates.

- *Becoming a Teacher* also included a story of a teacher who asks his students what they saw as they walked around the school campus. Confused by the question, the teacher suggests the students look around. “Who is always cleaning the trash and filth that the students carelessly leave behind after lunch?”

And now think who is in the office making decisions about your education?"

The teacher continues by saying the students understood the meaning behind his questions as it "was clear to the boys as they saw men who looked like them cleaning the campus." The teacher spoke of a former student who recounted the day in geometry class and remembered his words: "There are two kinds of people in this world: those who own the building and those who clean it. Your education will determine who you become." Since the student was now in college, the teacher stated "I guess those seeds we plant can sometimes take root and eventually build the foundation of our students' character."

The question becomes, what type of character did he help form? This teacher believed he had developed the foundation of his students' character by devaluing non-professional, or manual labor. Where is the respect, the value of honest work? How dignified was this teacher? These are stories presented to teacher candidates; yet, it is difficult to see or understand their value. What, exactly, will the teacher candidate take away from these stories?

These types of verbiage sends mixed signals for the teacher candidate to decipher. Treat everyone with respect or be respectful toward everyone with "professional" status? Including these types of messages in textbooks utilized in teacher education programs, in essence, say to the teacher candidate that it is permissible to talk down particular occupations if it gets your point across. Devaluing types of employment, and by extension the people who perform these jobs, is the very opposite of what teacher candidates should be learning. It is contradictory to the overall concept of character education. Teacher candidates will one day walk into their own

classrooms; classrooms that may very well be populated with students whose parents, guardians, family members, or family friends who are gainfully employed, but not in fields considered as professional. Respect is not contingent on the color of a workers collar.

Final Reflection

It was made clear at the inception of this study that my interest was not in a count of terms, rather the focus was on scope and depth of the analyzed content. Scope and depth were presented in an insufficient manner by the textbook authors and publishing houses, thus limiting learning potential and failing to provide teacher candidates education programs an opportunity to develop a comprehensive understanding of character education.

Teacher involvement in guiding and developing their students' character occurs at several levels. For some students it is enhancing the skills taught at home and places of worship. For others it is teaching and guiding a student's character development if there is no other significant adult invested in the child outside of the school. As previously indicated, schools are more often than not the last bastion of hope.

As with any teaching and learning, before teachers can enhance a skill set, the teacher must first be taught the particular skill; character development falls into this area, just as academic content does. Outside of school, some students have no significant adult in their lives to develop, even at the base level, the character of the child. In some cases, obligations such as work, sometimes at two and three jobs, or physical and/or mental illness preclude an adult's involvement in developing their child's character. The desire for their child or children to grow in all areas is there; the

time or condition is not. Consider these illustrations:

Joey was, again, removed from the classroom. The infraction was minor; he did not have a pencil so the teacher removed him from class. Leaving, he employed rather loudly a few choice words to impart his feelings for the teacher and school in general. That added to the ire of the teacher and the principal, as “no child of mine would utter those words.” A meeting with the parent was scheduled for 1 pm the next day. The mother said she would be there. At 1:30 the staff left the conference room and returned to their respective positions. A comment made by one teacher as he was leaving was something along the lines of the parent not being interested enough in the child to show up; other educational professionals in the room supported his remarks. At 1:50 the mother arrived flushed, sweating, and limping. She apologized for being late. She did not want her son to miss any more school; she wanted him to be “more than what he is growing up in.” It turned out that the mother worked two jobs, cleaning office buildings at night and houses during the day. She had to ride four different buses and then walk one-half mile to the school, as the last bus stop came no closer. It was 90 degrees outside.

In others, the adult responsible for raising the child is unavailable because their own wants and desires trump those of raising their child.

Ellie had everything, or so the school staff and most of the students surmised. Ellie owned handbags in middle school that many adults cannot afford. Her homework was always neatly completed. She did well academically; teachers loved having Ellie in the class as her test scores at the end of the year were always among the top scores of the school. Ellie, however, could be “difficult” as she was demanding, saw her wants and wishes as primary to any other student. Ellie demanded to be first at everything; if she was not, she pouted. It was “easier” to let her have her way; she could be, after all, so charming, and the other students were so in awe of her. Ellie’s homework was completed by the after-school tutor employed to “give Ellie an edge over the other students. She was going to Harvard.” Ellie was picked-up most every day by the housekeeper as her parents were “on holiday” much of the school year.

Or, an addiction overrides caring for the child.

Although considered a “bright” student academically, Frank would copy work he found on the Internet. He did not think that was such a big deal. He had no friends to speak of and was uncertain of how to interact with his peers. His idea of problem solving was to “get in someone’s face” to settle an issues. Frank’s mother, a crack addict, was shot in the face in front of him when he was six. For Frank, it was a succession of foster homes, 17 by the time he was a freshman in high school.

Every day was the same. George would get off the bus, go to the cafeteria to eat, go to his locker in the middle school he attended. Then he would go to the classroom where he promptly put his head down and went to sleep. Every day the teacher would try “all the tricks” to get George to stay awake. Every day she failed. When awake, George was friendly, but he didn’t really have any friends to speak of. It was six months into the school year before it was learned why George slept every first period of the day. Daddy was addicted to alcohol, and when he drank he liked to shoot his gun. Every night George would take his younger sister under the porch to sleep, but George didn’t sleep, he watched over his sister instead.

Then there are the neglected, abused or abandoned children – what of these children – who but the teacher will help them grow their character?

Marley was known throughout her middle school for having no social skills whatsoever. Teachers did not want her in their classrooms, students shunned her, and office staff dreaded her arrival in the morning. Marley was loud, interrupted conversations, and would cram food into her mouth at lunch causing other students to leave the table where she sat. Marley would move with them, which generally elicited rather nasty comments by the students. Marley lived with her father. The Court placed her with him when it severed the mother’s parental rights. Rights were terminated after it was discovered that while her mother and uncle like to “fondle” Marley, they did not like to feed her. She was grossly malnourished when removed from the mother. The father, a long haul trucker, would drug Marley early in the evening so that he could “make his runs.” He liked driving at night.

At 10 years of age, Tyler was small in stature with wide green eyes and a dazzling smile, when he smiled. Occasionally, he would turn in homework he had balled up in his pocket. Tyler was angry more days than he wasn’t. He trusted a very limited number of people, sharing was a foreign concept to him. No one wanted to work in group activities with Tyler, the other students really did not know how to deal with him. Did I mention he was angry quite a bit of the time? When Tyler was eight, his mother took him to social services and with his hand still in hers, told Juanita at social services that she didn’t “want the little bastard any more, he looks like his father,” turned and walked out of his life.

These six stories are my stories, real children with their names changed, genders sometimes reversed. These children desperately needed guidance in growing their character, in seeing their own value. Where else but the school will these children learn these skills?

The lack of quality consideration and limited appearance of character education in introduction to education textbooks is problematic. If the topic is not addressed elsewhere in a teacher education program, this may be a factor in the failure to provide pre-service or alternative route teachers with the tools they will require to effectively develop students as future citizens and by extension the furtherance of a just society.

Character education has been viewed as a virtuous endeavor, an expectation that the school should solve societal problems, a means of raising academic achievement, or the means through which a continuum of behaviors are corrected to build a safe academic environment. Glanzer (1996) made a strong argument for character education when he stated that those with solid moral character will ultimately be the change agents working to “transform unjust systems.” (p. 435). Teaching students the value of good character, as Einstein stated, is teaching students to give beauty and dignity to life. In the end, it is quite simply growing the character of the nation’s future.

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TABLE 2: Intercoder Reliability

Holsti method: $PA_0 = 2A / (n_a + n_b)$ where

PA_0 refers to “proportion agreement, observed”

A refers to the # of agreements between 2 coders

n_a and n_b refers to the # of units coded by coders a and b, respectively

Percentages were the same for coders a&b; c&d; consequently, it was not necessary to average the two percentages.

First inter-coder reliability: 90.6%

Number of observed agreements between coders: 68

Number of units coded by coders A & B and C & D respectively: 75

$$2(68) / (75 + 75) = 90.6\%$$

Second inter-coder reliability percentage: 90.4%

Number of observed agreements between coders: 38

Number of units coded by coders A & B and C & D Respectively: 42

$$2(38) / (42 + 42) = 90.4\%$$

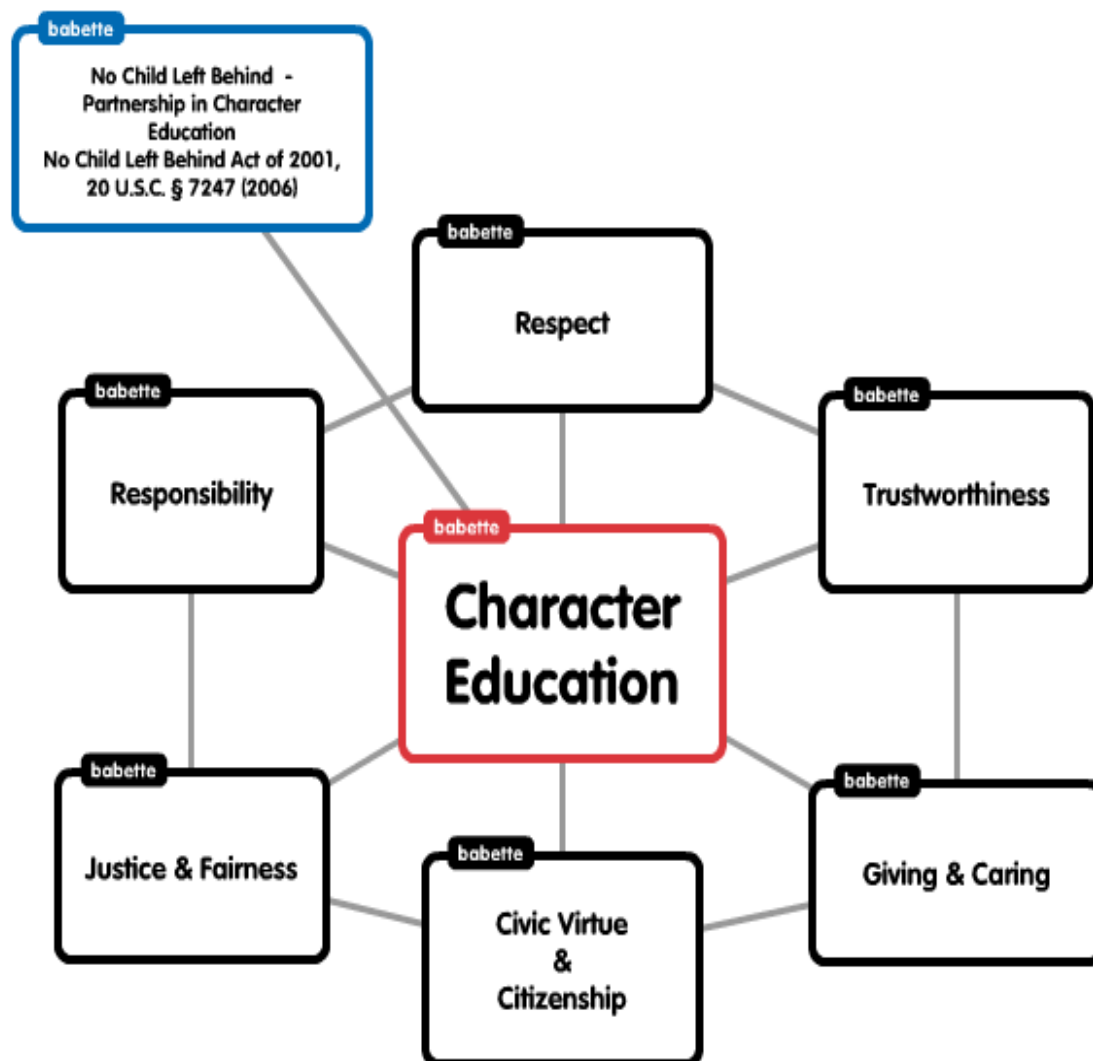


FIGURE 1: Elements Addressed Through Character Education

Kaplan, L.S. & Owings, W.A. (2011). *American education. Building a common foundation*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth [an imprint of Cengage Learning]⁵

Sampling Unit

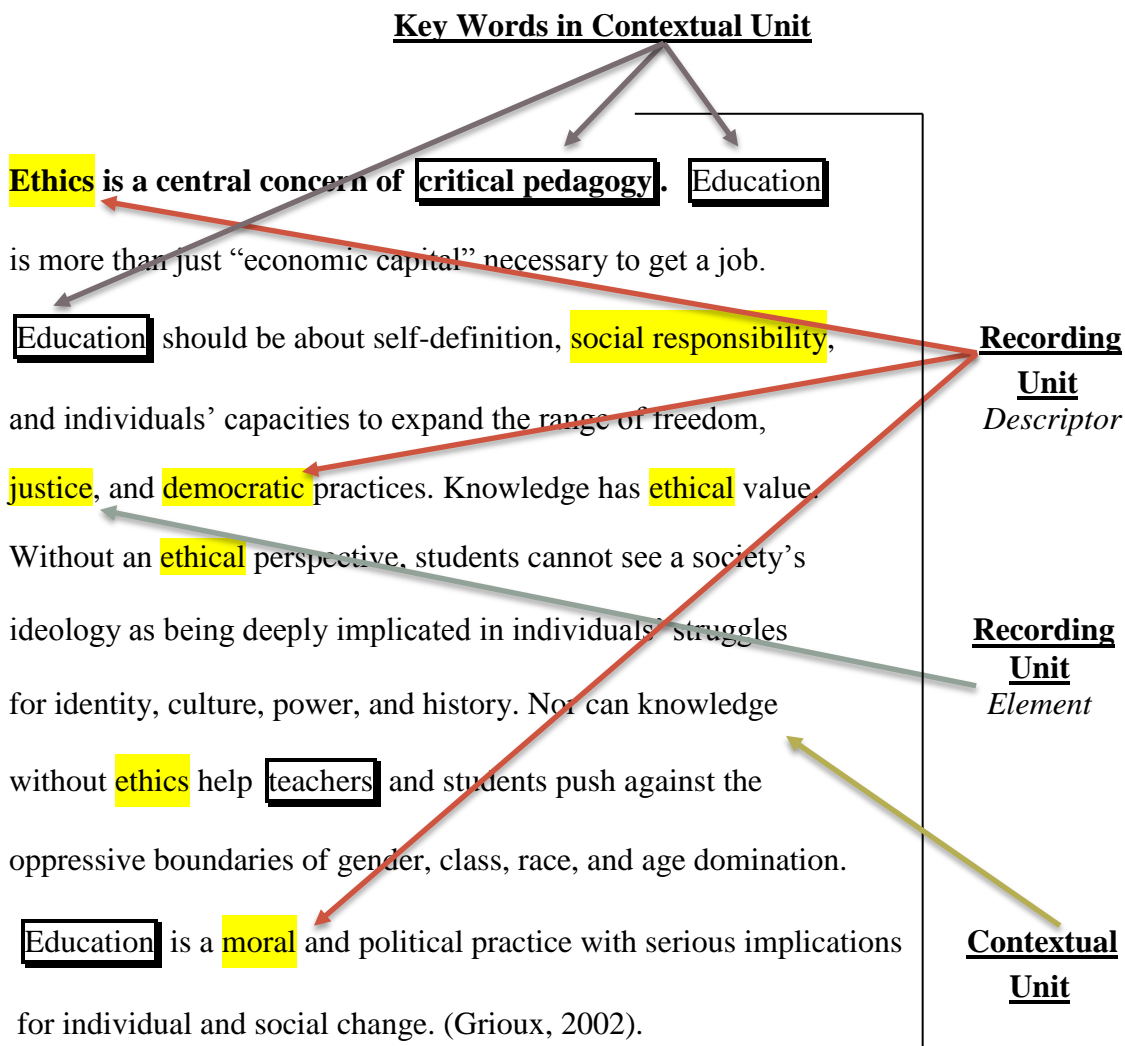


FIGURE 2: Differentiation Between Units: Sampling, Recording, and Contextual

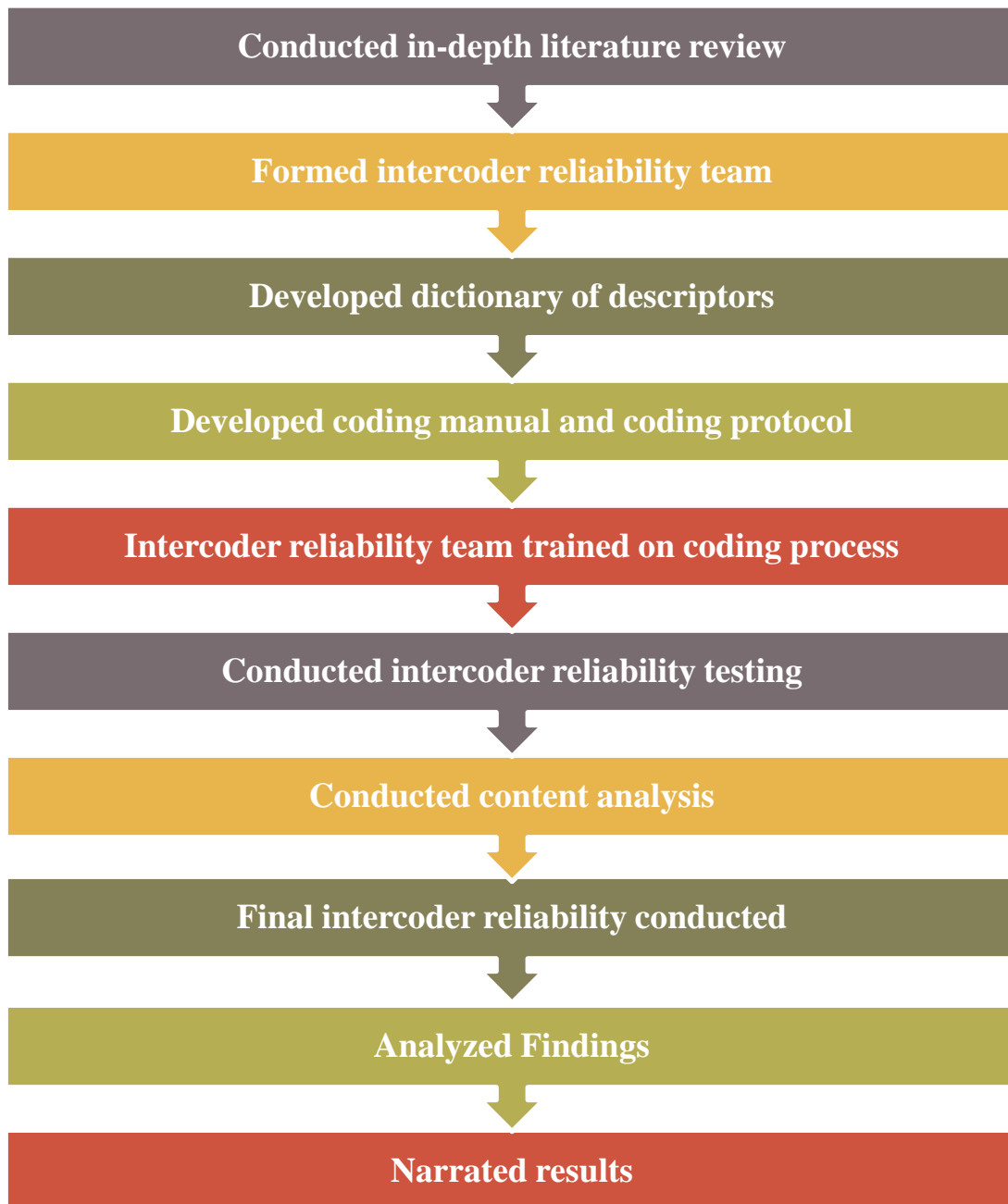


FIGURE 3: Analysis Process

APPENDIX A: DICTIONARY OF TERMS

Alternative route teacher – college graduate, non-education major pursuing teacher certification individual working toward initial teacher certification.

Categories – the rules for assigning data segments to categories – the rules utilized to code material in this study (Schreier, 2012). For this study there were 17 total categories located in four frames.

Character education – is a learning process that enables students and adults in a school community to understand, care about and act on core ethical values such as respect, justice, civic virtue and citizenship, and responsibility for self and others. Upon such core values attitudes and actions are formed that are the hallmark of safe, healthy and informed communities that serve as the foundation of our society (U.S. DoE, n.d.)

Characteristics – social and emotional aspects and value components that comprise character education – respect, responsibility, giving & caring, fairness, justice, trustworthiness, civic virtue, citizenship, morals, ethics, values, integrity, honesty, empathy, social justice, civility, politeness, understanding, compassion, kindness, tolerance, virtue, problem solving, teamwork, conflict resolution, sharing, human rights, social justice, cultural awareness & appreciation (DeRoche & Williams, 2001; Lickona, 1991, 2004; Schwartz, 2008b; Walker, 2002).

Coding manual – the guide for the content analysis study; contains directions, identifies categories, and recording units, rubric, definitions, rules for assigning a code, and examples of coding.

Content analysis – a systematic research method for analyzing textual matter in a consistent manner (Krippendorff, 2013).

Contextual unit – sets the parameters for the amount of textual matter to be consulted in regard to the recording unit (Krippendorff, 2013). For this study, the contextual unit was the paragraph containing the recording unit.

Criteria – an element or dictionary descriptor used as a recording unit. For example, an element of NCLB was respect – the word respect became criteria for coding if it was located within a contextual unit associated with character education. See Marker.

Descriptors – (dictionary of) traits of character used in addition to the NCLB elements. Examples: civic behavior, civility, honesty, morals, ethics, tolerance

Elements – attributes of character as stipulated by NCLB: respect, caring, responsibility, justice, fairness, giving, citizenship, trustworthiness, civic virtue

Frame – a shortened title given to each of the four research questions thereby creating the frame of reference for the research question

Introduction to education textbook – textbooks listed and marketed by the publisher as an introduction to education text for individuals in a teacher education program working toward initial teacher certification.

Marker – an element or dictionary descriptor used as a recording unit. For example, an element of NCLB was respect – the word respect became a marker for coding if it was located within a contextual unit associated with character education. See Criteria.

Protocol – (coding) instrument used for data recording

Teacher candidate – individual who is enrolled in but has not graduated from a university education program; the individual is working toward graduation and initial

teacher certification.

Recording unit – refers to the basic unit of text to be classified (Krippendorff, 2013; Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).

Sampling unit – units that are distinguishable for selective inclusion in an analysis (Krippendorff, 2013). The textbooks were the sampling unit for this study.

APPENDIX B: CODING MANUAL – CODING INSTRUCTIONS

**Introduction to Education Textbooks
Coding Manual**

The goal is to code the content of introduction to education textbook(s) for references to character education⁶. The over-arching research question under consideration asks – what is the extent of character education coverage in these textbooks.

This study is *not* a count of the number of times ‘character education’ is mentioned; rather, to what extent and scope does the author(s) of the textbook speak to character education. Would a reasonable person understand the information relates to character education?

There are four frames of reference aligning to the research questions: explanation, viewpoints, historical, and legislative. The explanation frame is the most involved frame.

Exclusions: There are only a few, but they are important.

Chapter summaries are not included – UNLESS – the information contained in the summary is different from what was in the chapter. For example, within the chapter the topic of character education was never mentioned directly – but in the summary it is; depending on the contextual unit this information may be coded. *This would be rare.*

Information contained in *chapter prefaces are not coded* as the information contained in these sections are little more than “teasers” for the upcoming chapter. The exception here would be a factoid directly related to character education *that is not contained* within the chapter.

Teacher ethics – if the text speaks to morals, values, or some other recording unit – but – they are speaking to the qualities teachers themselves should possess – this is not character education. Say, for example, the text states “Teachers are legally and morally obligated to report child abuse.” – Yes, they are; however, the reference to morally here refers to teacher responsibilities, not character education. Suppose you find reflection questions or end-of-chapter questions regarding ethical decision-making or problem solving – would you code this? No; again, questions such as

these are for the teacher-student – not character education.

If recording units are located in several different paragraphs covering the same topic such as education or teaching philosophies – this is coded only once. This is not new or different information.

Explanation frame

Character education is explained in the following ways:

- 1) elements and descriptors
- 2) linked / tied to education
- 3) involvement of teachers (teaching)
- 4) instructional strategies

The elements are traits associated with good character listed in NCLB §7247 - Partnership in character education program: caring, civic virtue & citizenship, justice & fairness, respect, responsibility, trustworthiness, giving.

Descriptors are contained in the dictionary. The dictionary comprises additional traits of character reported by researchers in Chapter One of the study (for example, Berkowitz & Bier, 2007; Schwartz, 2008). In short, the term ‘character education’, elements, and /or descriptors are criteria or markers (known as the recording units) that reference character education.

So you found the recording unit, now what? *Contextual Units*. Contextual units define the recording units. These units set the parameters of the textual matter for analysis. *For this study, the contextual unit is the paragraph in which the recording unit is located.* Keep in mind that there could be more than one recording unit within a paragraph.

Is there an element or descriptor that sounds like this may be it – be sure the author(s) is not speaking to multicultural education, behavior⁷, drug awareness, or sex education. If the author is speaking to any of these areas do NOT code, these areas are unique to themselves; they are not speaking to character education.

Exception: If the textbook links one of these areas to character education then you would code. For example, in a paragraph speaking to sex education you find the following sentence – “The hallmark of an effective character education program addresses respecting one’s self enough to refrain from using drugs.” *This would be coded* – the code would be “low” as it is only one sentence, but it does speak to character education. Up next - the low category.

The last explanation category on the rubric is “Low”. The coding instructions read “*Sole relationship to character education is identified by NCLB element(s) OR descriptor(s) – NOT related to Multicultural, Behavior(s), Drug Awareness, or Sex Education*”. A recording unit is present; yet, it does not meet the criteria for the other categories – teacher involvement, instructional strategies, etc. For example: “Students should be respectful toward each other” OR “As an agent of the state, it is important that schools educate the character of today’s youth.”

When coding the frame of reference should align to the reasonable person test – would a reasonable person see an association to character education through the recording units in the contextual unit? Stated another way, do you code a single paragraph because it has a recording unit? Why mention it? Because it is referencing character education in relationship to education and/or an element(s) or descriptor(s) associated with character. Most importantly, it speaks to the research question – to what extent...

Divergent Viewpoint Frame

Viewpoints frame has four categories:

- 1) two viewpoints were present in the contextual unit
- 2) viewpoint(s) were mentioned in a general tone; no particular opinion (pro or con) was stated in the contextual unit
- 3) one point of view was identified – either pro or con in the contextual unit
- 4) no reference to divergent viewpoints in the text

Historical Frame

The historical frame has two categories:

- 1) Yes, the textbook addresses the history of character education in American education
- 2) No, the textbook does not contain any references to character education in a historical context

Legislative Frame

Federal and state legislation make up the legislation frame. In this frame, there are four relatively straight forward categories:

- 1) the textbook contains references to federal legislation
- 2) federal legislation not addressed in the textbook

- 3) legislation at the state level is referenced in the textbook
- 4) no mention of legislation at the state level found in the textbook

Keep this manual and the attached examples close by; when unsure refer to this manual.

Berkowitz, M.W. & Bier, M.C. (2007). What works in character education. *Journal of Research in Character Education*, 5, 29-48.

Schwartz, M. (2008). *Effective character education. A guidebook for future educators*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Companies.

APPENDIX C: CODING MANUAL – PROTOCOL INSTRUCTIONS

CODING MANUAL	
Frame: Explanation	
Category Code	Example
Criteria – Marker	
Very High	
<p>The term “character education” stated in relationship to the education of character</p> <p>Character education identified by NCLB element(s)</p> <p>Character education linked to education – NOT related to multicultural, behavioral, drug awareness, or sex education</p> <p>Teacher (teaching) involved is stated</p> <p>Examples of instructional strategies are present</p>	<p><u>Schools</u> are being asked to deal with societal problems; a way of honoring this request while at the same time providing beneficial knowledge to its students is to <u>incorporate character education</u>. <u>Teaching traits</u> such as <u>respect</u>, <u>responsibility</u>, and <u>patriotism</u> educates the whole student. For example, <u>genetics, global warming or any policy issue</u> would be appropriate for thoughtful <u>debate and research</u> whereby the <u>student</u> critically and carefully reasons the ramifications of the issue under discussion.</p>
High	
<p>Character education identified by NCLB element(s) or descriptor(s)</p> <p>Character education linked to education – NOT related to multicultural, behavioral, drug awareness, or sex education</p> <p>Teacher (teaching) involved is stated</p> <p>Examples of instructional strategies are present</p>	<p>Creating <u>moral awareness</u> in students requires more than memorizing terms. Development of students’ <u>moral knowledge</u> encompasses creation of <u>moral awareness</u>, development of <u>moral reasoning</u> and <u>providing students the opportunity to engage in social problem solving</u>. <u>For example, in discussing John Brown’s retaliatory raid against proslavery – the teacher could ask the students if they thought retaliatory justice was ever justified</u>. Schwartz (2008)</p>
<u>Highlight</u> = School / Education / Teaching	<u>Highlight</u> = Criteria – Marker

Frame: Explanation	
Category Code	Example
Criteria – Marker	
Moderately High	
<p>Character education identified by NCLB element(s) or descriptor(s)</p> <p>Character education linked to education – NOT related to multicultural, behavioral, drug awareness, or sex education</p> <p>Teacher (teaching) involved is stated</p>	<p>A popular program <u>chosen by many districts</u> as a means of <u>teaching moral education</u> is the <u>program <i>Character Counts</i></u>. The program focuses on six “pillars of character” – <u>trustworthiness, respect, responsibility, fairness, caring, and citizenship</u>.</p>
Moderate	
<p>Character education identified by NCLB element(s) or descriptor(s)</p> <p>Character education linked to education – NOT related to multicultural, behavioral, drug awareness, or sex education</p>	<p><u>Teachers should work for social justice</u>. <u>Teachers can help students</u> critique the status quo and unequal power relations and work for <u>social justice</u> in their society</p>
Moderately Low (a)	
<p>Character education identified by NCLB element(s) OR descriptor(s)</p> <p>Character education identified by NCLB element(s) or descriptor(s) through educational philosophy</p>	<p>Education’s purpose, <u>according to <i>progressivism</i></u>, is to <u>create engaged citizens for a democratic</u> republic. Schools create small communities which <u>students and teachers show respect</u> for one another and work together in mutually beneficial ways.</p>
<u>Highlight</u> = School / Education / Teaching	<u>Highlight</u> = Criteria – Marker

Frame: Explanation	
Category Code	Example
Criteria – Marker	
Moderately Low (b)	
<p>Character education identified by NCLB element(s) OR descriptor(s)</p> <p>Teacher involvement is stated through InTASC standards</p>	<p>InTASC Standard 2: The teacher understands how students learn and develop, and can provide learning opportunities that support their intellectual, social, and personal development. The teacher understands how students construct knowledge; recognizes how students' physical, social, cognitive; moral, and emotional development affects learning; and knows how to address these factors when making instructional decisions</p>
Low	
<p>Sole relationship to character education identified by NCLB element(s) or descriptor(s) – Not related to multicultural, behavior, drug awareness, or sex education</p>	<p>A discussion of character education, development can be easily become value laden; even so, certain characteristics are considered positive by almost everyone, including honesty, fairness, and citizenship.</p> <p><i>Your Introduction to Education 2nd Ed. Sara Powell. (2012 p. 64). Pearson Education, Inc.</i></p>
<p>Highlight = School / Education / Teaching Highlight = Criteria – Marker</p>	
Frame: Viewpoints	
D2	
<p>Two divergent viewpoints regarding character education are clearly delineated</p>	<p><u>Both of the arguments presented</u> below would be present in one paragraph or in one section with an obvious connection.</p>

Frame: Viewpoints	
Category Code	Example
Criteria – Marker	
D1a <hr/> Speaks to controversy, does not provide views for either side – General mention	The <u>controversy surrounding character education in the public school</u> system has been ongoing for decades.
D1b <hr/> Either opposition to or proponents for character education is clearly rendered	The <u>school</u> , as an agent for society, <u>has a responsibility to help students develop moral and ethical characters.</u> <u>Character education is taught in the home</u> – this is values teaching and whose values are taught?
D0 <hr/> Textbook did not address divergent views	Textbook did not address viewpoints in any form.
Highlight = Criteria – Marker	
Frame: Historical	
Yes <hr/> Historical	Ancient Greece/Colonia period/1918/Horace Mann 1800s/1950s/McGuffey Readers
No <hr/> Historical	Textbook did not address character education history

Frame: Legislative	
Category Code	Example
Criteria – Marker	
Yes <hr/> Federal Legislation	Reference to legislative actions regarding character education. For example: reference to NCLB.
No <hr/> Federal Legislation	Textbook made no reference to federal legislation.
Yes <hr/> State Legislation	Reference to legislative actions regarding character education. For example: state statutes
No <hr/> State Legislation	Textbook made no reference to state legislation.

APPENDIX D: CODING PROTOCOL

Coding Protocol												
Book Title:												
FRAME: EXPLANATION												
Very High												
High												
Moderately High												
Moderate												
Moderately Low												
Moderately Low												
Low												

Notes:

FRAME: VIEWPOINTS												
D2 – Two Viewpoints												
D1a – General Mention												
D1b – One Viewpoint [Pro/Con]												
No												
FRAME: HISTORICAL												
Yes	Historical											
No												
FRAME: LEGISLATIVE												
Yes	Federal Legislation											
No												
Yes	State Legislation											
No												

Notes:

APPENDIX E: DICTIONARY OF DESCRIPTORS

Dictionary of Descriptors			
Character Education: Values Clarification, Value Education; Values Education, Moral Education			
Elements	Descriptors	Elements	Descriptors
Caring	Compassion / Compassionate Empathy – Empathetic Thoughtful Understanding	Citizenship	Civic behavior / minded Democracy Democratic Social development Social responsibility
Giving	Kindness Share – Sharing	Justice & Fairness	Sense of fairness Sense of justice
Respect	Admiration / Esteem Civility Dignity Polite – Politeness	Responsibility	Problem-solving Responsible behavior Responsible decision making
Trustworthiness	Honesty Integrity Trust	Notes:	
Descriptors		Descriptors	
Ethical	Ethic(s) Ethical awareness Ethical behavior Ethical reasoning / decision making	Human Rights	Cultural appreciation Cultural awareness Social Justice
Moral	Moral(s) Moral awareness Moral behavior Moral reasoning / decision making	Other	Conflict resolution Teamwork Tolerance Values Virtue

FOOTNOTES

¹ Weapon is defined as gun, knife, or club.

² The dark figure of crime is a term employed to describe the amount of crime that is unreported or undiscovered.

³ McDonaldization refers to the process by which the principles – efficiency, calculability, predictability, and control – of the fast-food restaurant are coming to dominate sectors of American society (Hudd, 2004).

⁴ The terms criteria and marker are used interchangeably throughout the remainder of this document.

⁵ From page 193 of the above referenced *American Education, The Critical Theory Philosophy of Education*

⁶ Character education may be referred to as Values Clarification, Values Education, and Moral Education

⁷ Behavior incorporates classroom management