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RONALD E. McNAIR
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ACHIEVEMENT PROGRAM

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<h1 align="center">Who is Ronald Ervin McNair?</h1>

Ronald E. McNair, the second African American to fly in space, was born on October 12, 1950 in Lake City, South Carolina. He attended North Carolina A&T State University where he graduated Magna Cum Laude with a B.S. degree in physics in 1971. McNair then enrolled in the prestigious Massachusetts Institute of Technology. In 1976, at the age of 26, he earned his Ph.D. in physics. McNair soon became a recognized expert in laser physics while working as a staff physicist with Hughes Research Laboratory. He was selected by NASA for the space shuttle program in 1978 and was mission specialist aboard the 1984 flight of the USS Challenger space shuttle.

After his death in the USS Challenger space shuttle accident in January 1986, members of Congress provided funding for the Ronald E. McNair Post-Baccalaureate Achievement Program. The goal is to encourage low-income, first generation students, as well as students who are traditionally under-represented in graduate schools, to expand their opportunities by pursuing doctoral studies.

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GEORGIA SOUTHERN
U N I V E R S I T Y

October 20, 2003

The Georgia Southern University Ronald E. McNair Post-baccalaureate Achievement Program is pleased to present its fourth issue of the *McNair Research Journal*. This journal is a compilation of articles produced by the 2002 cohort of McNair Scholars during the Fourth Annual Summer Research Institute held May 19-July 8, 2003. This scholarly work was completed with the assistance of a group of highly capable faculty mentors from Georgia Southern University and The Georgia Institute of Technology. This *Journal* is designed to provide future doctoral students with a forum to publish their work. We are extremely proud of all the McNair Scholars for their academic acumen and their thirst for learning.

The McNair staff and scholars are indebted to the numerous individuals who shared in shaping the direction of the program since its inception at Georgia Southern University in 1998. First, to Mrs. Mary Woods, Assistant Director of the McNair Program for her leadership and nurturing spirit; Secondly, to Dr. Linda M. Bleicken, Vice President, for Student Affairs and Enrollment Management, for her untiring energy and encouragement. Thanks to Dr. Cordelia Douzenis-Zinskie, Associate Professor, Curriculum, Foundations and Research and Ms. Mildred Pate, Associate Professor, Writing and Linguistics, for their editorial support; and the faculty mentors and the McNair Advisory Council members for their dedication and support over the past year. Also, special thanks to Dr. Charles Hardy, Acting Dean of The College of Graduate Studies and Dr. John Diebolt, Associate Dean of Graduate Studies for their efforts. Our appreciation goes to Mr. Christopher Johnson, Graduate Assistant for the McNair Program, for his work in organizing the journal. Finally, a special thanks to the Educational Opportunity Programs staff for their support and encouragement during this past year.

You are invited to comment or make suggestions that may help to improve future issues of the *McNair Research Journal*. Direct any inquires to Ms. Sue Hawks-Foster at (912) 681-5458 or via email at sfoster@gasou.edu. **This document is funded by U.S. Department of Education Grant No. P217A030098.**

Sincerely yours,

Ms. Sue Hawks-Foster
Director, Educational Opportunity Programs

Summer 2003 McNair Scholars

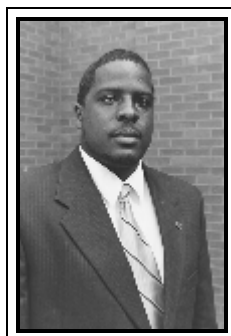Quail Arnold

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Quail T. Arnold, McNair Scholar

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Abstract

This research investigates charter schools and issues concerning charter schools in general with a focus on charter schools in the State of Georgia. Although charter schools have been in existence for a decade, there are still many misconceptions regarding the concept of charter schools. This review serves as empirical research to answer misconceptions about charter schools. Because charter schools are a hot topic in education today, it is important to know the history of this educational program and why it has become an alternative to public education since its conception. This research is not a comprehensive review of literature, although it will examine various state-wide studies and other research regarding charter schools.

Key words: charter schools, Georgia charter schools, school choice

Understanding Charter Schools: An Alternative Education Program for Students

It is no secret that many parents believe the public education school system is neither challenging nor preparing its students for future academic success. However, until this past decade, parents could only form groups to complain about their problems; now they have the option of public school choice. Prior to school choice, "solutions were offered in various forms – inter-district open enrollment, magnet and alternative schools, and publicly funded vouchers for private schools" (Lin, 2001, p. 166). Initially, when parents had a problem with a public school, they would send their child to a private school, but since the era of school choice, parents have a new alternative: charter schools. According to a report administered by the Georgia School Board Association, "charter schools have been one of the most popular components of the school choice movement throughout the country" (Harben & Hartley Law Firm, 2003, p. 4).

Charter schools are at the center of education today, but many are still confused as to their origin and their purpose.

Little research and mixed findings exist concerning the progress of charter schools, because charter schools are a new education program. However, during a study when some "founders were asked why they started their charter schools, they said the most important reasons were 'to realize an educational vision, to have autonomy and to serve a special [student] population' "(Manno, Finn, Jr., Bierlein, & Vanourek, 1998, p.493). So, if all it takes is a difference of opinion to start charter schools, then it comes as no surprise that charter schools are becoming the norm for public education, or are they? Before society will be able to make lasting opinions concerning charter schools, it is important to discover the many facets that build the foundation for charter schools, such as governing boards, funding, teachers and administration. Hence, this research was carried out with the aforementioned elements in mind. This study will increase charter school awareness nationally and in the State of Georgia. Therefore the purpose of this study is to examine what charter schools are and why they have become an alternative to public education.

Definitions

When considering charter schools as a subject, it is important to understand the terminology that is associated with the movement. For the purpose of this research, charter, charter school and charter petitioner are defined according to the definitions given by the State of Georgia and www.uscharterschools.org.

Because charters are the foundation of charter schools, it is important to examine this definition on a state level as well as on a national level. According to the U.S. Charter Schools Overview [USCS.O] (2003, p. 1), a charter is "a performance contract

detailing the school's mission, program, goals, students served, methods of assessment, and ways to measure success. Most charters are granted from 3-5 years."

The national charter school website explains that charter laws and definitions vary from state to state, so for the state definition of charter, this study will use definition of the State of Georgia:

Charter – *a performance-based contract between a local board and a charter petitioner, the terms of which are approved by the local board and by the state board in the case of a local charter school, or between the state board and a charter petitioner, the terms of which are approved by the state board in the case of a state chartered special school.* (Charter School Definitions [CSD], 2002, p. 1)

Since the purpose of this study is to examine what charter schools are, then obtaining the definition from the national website is paramount. On the national website, charter schools are defined as "nonsectarian public schools of choice that operate with freedom from many of the regulations that apply to traditional public schools" (USCS.O, 2003, p. 1).

In the previously referenced State of Georgia definition of a charter, there was mention of a charter petitioner. The definition on the following page explains the term in detail.

Charter petitioner – *a local school, private individual, private organization, or state or public entity that submits a petition for a charter. The term "charter petitioner" does not include home study programs or schools, sectarian schools, religious schools, private for profit schools, private educational institutions not established, operated or governed-by the State of Georgia or existing private schools.* (CSD, 2002, p. 1)

Types of Charter Schools

Along with knowing the terminology of charter schools, it is important to know the different types of charter schools. The four different types of charter schools are start-up, LEA

start-up, conversion and state charter schools. A start-up charter school is "a charter school that did not exist as a local school prior to becoming a charter school" (CSD, 2002, p. 2).

The second type of charter school is similar to the start-up charter school but the LEA or the Local Education Authority starts this charter school. According to the Georgia Charter Schools Association (2002, p. 2), the LEA is the local "school board".
Unlike the start-up charter school and the LEA start-up, a conversion charter school "existed as a local school prior to becoming a charter school" (CSD, 2002, p. 1).

There is a special type of charter school that is different from both the conversion and the start-up charter because it affiliates and complies directly with the state board of education versus the local board of education. This type of charter school is called a state charter school. Often times, the state charter schools are developed as a result of the start-up charter not being granted by the local school board. State chartered special schools [*sic*] "operate under the terms of a charter between the charter petitioner and the state board" (CSD, 2002, p. 2). If a charter petitioner wants to proceed with the charter then according to the State of Georgia, there is permission granted for the petitioner to apply directly to the state board.

Origin of Charter Schools

Now that the terminology behind the concept of charter schools and the different types of charter schools have been stated, it is important to uncover the mysteries behind charter schools, in particular, the ambiguity concerning their origin. Minnesota passed the first charter school law in 1991, with other states following its lead soon after; however, the concept of charter schools was already in effect prior to Minnesota passing the first charter law. As indicated by Joe Nathan (1998), "educator Ray Budde suggested more than 20 years ago that small groups of teachers be given a 'charter' or contract by their local school board to explore new approaches" (p. 500). Knowing that Budde suggested this idea of charters over 20 years ago, it is now

important to examine his reasoning for the suggestion of charters and how this reasoning is the complete foundation for creating charters today. In the quote above, it states that Budde suggested the charters as a way to enable teachers to explore new approaches to learning, and now some twenty years later, this belief is still the foundation of charter schools. "Advocates argue that freeing schools from red tape will give school administrators and teachers the flexibility to devise effective education programs for students" (Fusarelli, 2002, p.1). This quote serves as the core for most charter school programs.

Laws Concerning Charter Schools

Center for Education Reform Laws

According to the ranking scorecard presented by the Center for Education Reform (CER), there are 39 states along with the District of Columbia that have charter school laws. The Center for Education Reform published their scorecard as of January 2003, and there were 10 criteria that the center used as the basis for their report. As a result of this report, Georgia ranks #25, resulting in a grade of "C" for the state (Center for Education Reform: Charter School Laws Across the States [CER.AS], 2003). Although Georgia had the same grade of "C" in 2002, the state scored lower in 2003 due to the State of Georgia legislation passed concerning charter schools. This ranking and the grade suggest that the state has weak charter laws. If the state is reported to have such a low ranking, it is important to examine the law and its components to determine if the report's ranking is valid.

The CER study uses the following criteria to rank the charter laws. The study analyzes the number of schools that the law permits as well as the amount of multiple chartering authorities and the variety of applicants. When discussing the criteria of multiple chartering authorities, CER stated the following:

"States that permit an unlimited number of entities in addition to or instead of local school boards to authorize charter schools encourage more activity than those that vest authorizing power in a single entity, particularly if that entity is that local school board, or provide an appeals process." *(CER.AS, 2003)*

Other criteria associated with the ranking card are new starts, formal evidence of local support and automatic waiver from laws and regulations. According to CER, the "formal evidence of support" category suggests that "states that permit charter schools to be formed without having to prove specified levels of local support encourage more activity than states that require such demonstrations of support" (CER.AS, 2003). The last four criteria that the CER uses to rank the charter laws are legal/ operational autonomy, guaranteed full funding, fiscal autonomy, and exemption from collective bargaining agreements/ district work rules.

In this section, the terms strong and weak will be used to describe various components of the State of Georgia Charter Law. The definitions of strong and weak will be the same definitions used by the Center for Education Reform. The term strong as stated by the CER means that the "laws foster the development of numerous, genuinely independent charter schools. They ensure there will be a plentiful number of autonomous public schools available to a wide array of children and families" (Center for Education Reform: Charter School Laws Across the States: Ranking Scorecard and Legislative Profiles [CER.RS], 2003, p. 1). For every strong law, there is an opposing weak law that needs to be reformed. According to the CER, "weak laws provide fewer opportunities for charter school development. Legislative language often constrains charter schools, forcing them to fit into existing educational structures" (CER.RS, 2003, p. 1).

Georgia Charter Law

When investigating the definitions of strong and weak charter laws stated by the CER, it is important to note that this organization considers strong laws to be genuinely independent. According to the law established by the State of Georgia, "the State Board of Education shall promulgate rules, regulations, policies, and procedures to govern the contents of a charter petition" (Charter School Act [CSA], 2002, p. 2). In examining the State of Georgia law, this section of the law states that the State Board of Education will have ultimate control over the charter school. When reviewing this section of the law, it is necessary to use the definition provided by the state referring to the term charter. In the State of Georgia definition, it states that the charter indeed is a contract that has to be approved by both the local and state school boards. Also it is important to determine if the state is abiding by the national guidelines for charter schools. According to www.uscharterschools.org, "charter schools are accountable to their sponsor—usually a state or local school board—to produce positive academic results and adhere to the charter contract" (USCS.O, 2003). So with these facts present, it is safe to say that on the surface of the issue, the State of Georgia appears to be in compliance with national guidelines.

The State of Georgia's initial charter school law went into effect in 1993, which is two years after Minnesota passed the first charter school law. Although the law was implemented, there were various stipulations placed on charter school such as:

- Only existing public schools can convert to charter status

- One to three year charter period

- Over two-thirds teacher-support requirement

- Over two-thirds parent-support requirement

- Charter approval by local and state boards is required

- Plan for improvement to meet national and state educational goals.

(Georgia Charter Schools: Statistics at a Glance [GCS.SG], 2003, p. 2)

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Another important fact to note when examining Georgia's charter law is that state legislation has amended this law four times since its initial conception. The Center for Education Reform deems the new wavelengths of legislation as "regulatory fever". CER affirms, "State boards of education, local school boards, and even state Departments of Education are now taking the liberty of interpreting the law and creating new and unnecessary regulations that undermine a charter school's success" (CER.RS, 2003, p. 1). As a result of this fever "charter leaders are fighting to maintain the autonomy that was once their legal right" (CER.RS, 2003, p. 2).

Earlier, it was determined that the State of Georgia Charter School Law appeared to be in compliance with the national guidelines for charter schools' but the question at hand is will Georgia raise its scorecard ranking with its present charter school law? If answering this question using the Charter Schools Act of 1998, which was amended July 1, 2002, the answer is not likely. In the new Georgia law, it states that charter schools are "subject to an annual financial audit in the manner specified in the charter" (CSA, 2002, p. 5). This portion of the law violates the CER criteria of fiscal autonomy, and for this portion of the scorecard, Georgia received two points out of a maximum five points. Not only does Georgia violate the CER criteria in fiscal autonomy but it also violates the criteria for automatic waiver from state and district laws, because the Georgia Charter School law explicitly states that charter schools are "subject to the control and management of the local board of the local school system in which the charter school is located" (CSA, 2002, p. 4). The state did so poorly in this section that it received a zero on the scorecard. Overall, the state of Georgia scored poorly on the scorecard, but it did receive points above three in two areas, which were "number of schools allowed" and "new starts allowed", although the points in these categories were good, they were not enough to give Georgia favor with CER. Georgia's charter school act is quite contradictory in that it puts

constraints on an entity that is supposed to be independent of the bureaucracy of the local and state school boards.

Not only does the Center for Education Reform conduct a study regarding charter schools, but the individual states with charter laws also conduct studies as well. The State of Georgia conducted a study for the 2001-2002 school year to determine the progress of charter schools in the state; the study also set 15 goals and determined how important these goals were to the charter school petitioners.

Although charter schools in Georgia vary in structure, according to the charter school report, they have some common goals, such as academic achievement, which prove to be a top priority for every school in the state. Other goals that the states shared are "parental involvement, innovative assessment procedures, establishment of program evaluation methods and research, and safety/ comfort/ discipline for their students" (Annual Charter School Report [ACSR], 2002, p. 8). These goals are among the top five shared by the charter schools and help to connect the State of Georgia charter schools in some way because each school is different.

According to the Georgia Department of Education website, as of Fall 2003, the State of Georgia will have 43 charter schools. The state has 19 start-up charter schools, 15 conversion charter schools, 2 state charter schools and 7 LEA charter schools. A significant number of the charter schools are located in the Metropolitan Atlanta Area, 26 to be exact. While Georgia does have a significant number of charter schools, the state still has some revisions to make to its Charter School Law if it wants to be recognized as an effective charter school state. Otherwise, the state will not need charter schools, if the charter schools will be ordered to abide by the same guidelines as regular public schools. However, the state has made some justifiable amendments to the law such as requiring charters to present the charter with a "clarification of funding", since

funding is one of the major concerns of the local school system regarding charter schools (GCS.SG, 2003).

Funding

"Reports suggest that financial, academic and political alterations are taking place in both public and charter schools nationwide in response to increased competition among schools for students and funding" (Delaney & Chandler, 2003, p. 3). Funding is a problem that plagues many charter schools, particularly start-up charter schools, because these schools usually do not have a facility in which to operate. However, "federal funding for the schools has risen noticeably over the past decade . . . and the Bush administration plans to request an additional $100 million for charters" (Harrington-Lueker, 2002, p. 21). Depending upon the type of charter school, either the local school board or the state school board allocates funds to the charter schools, hence the argument that charter schools are taking funds away from the public schools. On the other hand, it is important to remember that charter schools are public schools; therefore, are they taking funds away from other schools or are they providing a better education, resulting in more students enrolling in charter schools? The State of Georgia explains:

A charter school shall be included in the allotment of funds to the local school system in which the charter school is located. The local board and state board shall treat the charter school no less favorably than other local schools in the school district with respect to the provision of funds for instructional and school administration and, where feasible, transportation, food services, and building programs. The amount of money the charter school will receive from the local board will be determined according to the provisions of the Charter Schools Act of 1998. In addition, the charter school will receive federal funds for special education services and for other categorical program services to the extent to which any pupil is in the charter school is eligible to participate. If additional revenues are needed, the charter

school must depend on independent means. *(Charter Schools: Frequently Asked Questions* [CS.FAQ], 2003, p. 2)

There are also grants available for those individuals or organizations interested in starting charter schools. However, "the grants are competitive and limited to availability of federal funds" (CS.FAQ, 2003, p. 2).

Charter School Governance

"Charter schools are governed in a variety of ways [*sic*] ranging from a large council of parents, educators and community partners" (Nathan, 1998, p. 502). This fact explains the idea of large companies and other non-traditional educators managing charter schools. When thinking of schools, it is uncommon to associate them with any organization other than the local school district and the state board of education. However, that is one of the major differences when comparing charter schools to traditional public schools.

Many charter school advocates believe that the idea of having someone other than an administrator or school system running a school brings diversity into the school setting. "In many schools, persons who were responsible for conceptualizing and organizing the school during the charter application process have become board members, taking responsibility for getting the school into operation once its charter has been granted" (McMillen, 2003, p. 6). This idea of people who actually have investments in the school is a good idea because the people then "have a personal as well as a legal stake in seeing that the school opens successfully and realizes its goals" (McMillen, p. 6).

Researcher Stella Cheung "has found that some charters appear to have placed too high a priority on shared decision making that leads to a consensus" (Nathan, 1998, p. 502). The charter school board makes major decisions, particularly regarding the curriculum of the school, and while it is good to have everyone that has investments involved in the education process, if

those involved are not experienced with making major decisions regarding a school, then there could be more trials than triumphs within the school. McDermott, Rothenberg, and Baker (2003) noticed that the administrative team "did not have supervisory experience in full-time school settings" in one of their studies (p.19). The lack of administrative skills proved to create issues for the school throughout the duration of the school year, because "most of their energies were placed into those accountability issues, and this reduced their time with children, teachers, curriculum, and instruction" (McDermott et al., p. 19).

For-profit charter schools ". . . starting a charter school remains a daunting enterprise with payrolls to set up, buildings to find, insurance to buy, teachers to hire, background checks to arrange, and a myriad of other things to do. As a result, for-profit firms have flocked to the market with services and expertise individual charter school founders might not have." (Harrington-Lueker, 2002, p. 25) Due to these for-profit firms taking an interest in running the charter schools, some states have consequently placed restrictions in their laws regarding for-profit firms. For example, Georgia's law states that "a start-up charter school be organized and operated as a non-profit corporation; this does not apply to conversion charter schools" (Harben & Hartley Law Firm, 2003, p. 13). However, some for-profit firms have been major benefactors to the longevity and success of charter schools. One example of how beneficial the for-profit firms are is the Norstan-Sound and Signal Corporation, sponsors of the Guajome Park Academy in Vista, California. "The corporation agreed to finance the school over a five-year period because the school wanted to create a state-of-the-art innovation and technology center" (Manno et al., 1998, p. 496). Although the company has taken somewhat of a risk, partnering with a charter school makes the company appear as a well-rounded corporation that sincerely cares about education and will make major investments into the future.

Conversely, "charter advocates are split on this issue of for-profit involvement" (Nathan, 1998, p. 503). Some researchers "worry that for-profit firms, especially large education management organizations, will take the place of community schools, homogenizing the charter school movement while turning a profit" (Harrington-Lueker, 2002, pp. 25-26). According to Zollers and Ramanathan (1998) "companies find the charter schools formula attractive: a steady flow of public money combined with exemptions from costly government regulations and school board requirements such as collective bargaining" (p. 297). The above-mentioned formula is attractive, but does it have the students' best interest at heart? The answer is complicated because "some for-profit companies deliver excellent products and services" such as business management, finance and team work, whereas others are simply involved in making a profit (Nathan, 1998, p. 503).

One of the largest for-profit companies that has paired with schools is the Edison Schools and Edison Affiliates. The organization was started in 1992 and the first four Edison schools opened in 1995. Edison Affiliates creates the curriculum used by Edison Schools; it also markets this curriculum to other school districts as well in an effort to improve student achievement. "Today Edison manages 136 schools in 22 states and 53 cities, and is ranked among the nation's 50 largest school systems" (The Edison Affiliates [EA], 2003).

Edison Schools is the nation's leading partner in education, partnering with "schools and school districts, focused on raising student achievement through its research-based school design, uniquely aligned assessment systems, interactive professional development, integrated use of technology and other proven program features" (Edison Schools [ES]), 2003. The Edison Schools philosophy is:

Every child should be given exciting educational opportunities and that every child has a tremendous capacity for learning; and that great schools are places that nurture the creative

spirit, prize the beautiful as much as the useful, and inculcate a love of learning. (Edison

Schools: Philosophical Groundings [ES.PG], 2003)

The Edison Schools philosophy is based on ten fundamentals; they are

1. A school organized for every student's success—the organization explains this fundamental based on the idea that: each Edison school consists of small, flexible, schools within schools, called "academies." This organization [academies] ensures that students are better known and more closely attended to by adults. A K-5 school consists of a Primary Academy for students in grades K-2, and an Elementary Academy for grades 3-5. Higher grades are organized into a Junior Academy (grades 6-8), a Senior Academy (grades 9 and 10), and a Collegiate Academy (grades 11 and 12). Within academies students are organized into multigrade houses of 100-180 students each. A team of four to six teachers who stay with the same house of students teaches the students in each house for the duration of their academy experience.   (Edison Schools: Organization [ES.O], 2003)

2. A better use of time—according to the website, Edison schools follow a schedule that makes sense for families today:

   A longer school day — students are in school from 8:00 a.m. until 4:30 p.m.

   A longer school year —198 days — that's about 10 percent more than the average school year.

3. More time for fundamentals and for special subjects like art, music, and world language. (Edison Schools: Ten Fundamentals [ES.TF], 2003)

   For students in grades K-2, Edison's school day is one hour longer than in conventional schools. For students in grades 3-12, the day is two hours longer. Edison's school year is 198

days long, compared with the national average of 180 days. Over the course of a K-12 career, that amounts to an additional four years of schooling. (Edison Schools: Use of Time [ES.UT], 2003)   A rich and challenging curriculum- the organization believes that: a world-class education must also be taught to clear and demanding standards. Accordingly, each field of Edison's curriculum is guided by student academic standards that specify what students must know and be able to do to satisfy the expectations of each academy. (Edison Schools: Challenging Curriculum [ES.CC], 2003)

The curriculum consists of (a) mathematics, (b) reading, (c) history-social science, (d) science, (e) writing, (f) world language, (g) character and ethics, (h) physical fitness and health, (i) music, (j) dance, (k) visual art, (l) drama, and (m) practical arts and skills (ES.CC, 2003).

4. Teaching methods that motivate—Edison Schools have incorporated several strategies into their instruction. Using these modes of instruction, "Edison is committed to vital and diverse instructional strategies that encourage innovation and excitement in teaching and learning" (Edison Schools: School Design [ES.SD], 2003). The organization uses four primary instructional methods which are: "(a) project-based learning, (b) direct instruction, (c) cooperative learning, and (d) differentiated instruction" (Edison Schools: Teaching Methods [ES.TM], 2003).

5. Assessments that provide accountability—Edison justifies this criteria by designing "custom performance assessments to measure student progress toward the more ambitious standards of the curriculum and [*sic*] training teachers to use the curriculum to prepare students for standardized tests" (Edison Schools: School Design Assessments [ES.SDA], 2003). The Edison Schools have six different measures of assessment but there are three distinct methods of assessment, which are (a) state and district tests; (b) benchmark assessments; and (c) structured portfolios, within this criteria there are two separate types of portfolio, they are common

performance assessments and elective assessments. The final three measures of assessment are (d) quarterly learning contract, (e) role of technology, and (f) student achievement data. The aforementioned measures are the visual results of the assessment (Edison Schools: Assessment Accountability [ES.AA], 2003).

6. A professional environment for teachers—This fundamental is interesting because some studies show that teachers are indeed leaving public schools to teach in charter schools. The Edison Schools have four areas of specialization that help develop professionalism within its staff. The four areas are (a) collegial organization, meaning that the organization groups teachers into teams (Edison Schools: Teaching [ES.T], 2003); (b) path career for development, this area develops the hierarchy of four types of teachers: they are the resident teacher, teacher, senior teacher and lead teacher (Edison Schools: Teaching Partnership [ES.TP], 2003). The remaining areas of professional development for teachers are (c) a system that supports educators and (d) ongoing professional development (Edison Schools: Teaching Partnership Schools [ES.TPS], 2003).

In the above-mentioned paragraph, there is mention of the four levels of the teacher. The "resident" teacher is the lowest teacher on the scale. A resident teacher is "a teacher who joins Edison Schools fresh out of a teacher education program. Resident teachers work under the lead teachers and the other teachers on the team to develop their teaching skills and plan long-term goals for professional development" (ES.TP, 2003).

The next level of teachers is the "teacher". The qualifications for a "teacher" position are to be a fully-certified, highly motivated, and successfully hold at least two years of teaching experience. Their responsibilities are (a) designing curricula, (b) mastering instructional strategies, (c) communicating with parents, and (d) working effectively with colleagues" (ES.TP, 2003).

The third teacher in the hierarchy of teachers is the "senior" teacher. The senior teacher demonstrates mastery in the field, versatility in instructional methods, capable classroom management, as well as collegiality, confidence, and initiative. The responsibilities include (a) [*sic*] providing leadership, (b) [*sic*] administering assessments, (c) [*sic*] modeling instruction, (d) [*sic*] communicating with members of the national partnership network, and (e) [*sic*] informing principals of progress in the field. (ES.TP, 2003)

7. Technology for an information age—Edison schools proclaim that "technology is fully integrated with the education program and used to facilitate communication, research, writing, and analysis just as it is used in the real world" (Edison Schools: School Design Technology [ES.SDT], 2003).

8. A partnership with families—Edison schools have several ways of incorporating family life into education. They are: (a) a special narrative report card called the Quarterly Learning Contract, (b) a Family and Student Support Team, (c) Parent Advisory Council, (d) volunteerism, and (e) Edison's vibrant fine arts program brings parents to school the old-fashioned way: to see and hear their children perform (Edison Schools: Partnership/ Families [ES.PF], 2003).

9. Schools tailored to the community—Edison works closely with individual schools to tailor the instructional program to the interests of the community, especially in areas such as state and local history and geography (Edison Schools: School Design Schools [ES.SDS], 2003).

10. The advantages of system and scale—When a school forms a partnership with Edison Schools, it joins a family of schools across the country and expands its resources, both human and material. Every school automatically becomes part of the national system of partnership schools, linked by a common purpose and plan and literally linked through The Common, Edison's electronic network. (Edison Schools: System/ Scale [ES.SS], 2003)

The company's product is spread throughout all regions of the United States, however, most of their schools are in Metropolitan areas or larger cities.

Non-profit Charter Schools. The Knowledge is Power Program (KIPP) is the largest non-profit education management organization that partners with schools. The program for the school is based upon five pillars. They are "(a) high expectations, (b) choice and commitment, (c) more time, (d) power to lead, and (e) focus on results" (KIPP Schools: Pillars [KIPP.P], 2001). This particular program began in 1994 when Mike Feinberg and Dave Levin completed their two-year commitment with Teach For America in Houston Independent School District and launched as a fifth grade program at Garcia Elementary School. Eventually Feinberg and Levin were inspired to expand the program beyond one classroom. The following year, KIPP Academy opened in Houston, and Levin founded KIPP Academy in the South Bronx, New York. (KIPP Schools: History [KIPP.H], 2001)

Upon its opening in 1994, KIPP schools have become popular nationwide. The program's mission is to "[*sic*] provide historically underserved students with the knowledge, skills, and character needed to succeed in top-quality high schools, colleges, and the competitive world beyond" (KIPP Schools: Focus [KIPP.F], 2001). Unlike the Edison Schools, the KIPP schools do not extend throughout high school; as of now, they end at the middle school or eighth grade. The program also offers leadership training "designed to turn strong educators into exemplary school leaders, each capable of starting and leading a new KIPP school" (KIPP Schools: School Leadership [KIPP.SL], 2001). Along with the leadership program, KIPP has several criteria for KIPP schools. They are to "(a) uphold KIPP standards as exemplified by the five pillars, (b) host Fisher Fellows during their residency, (c) participate in reviews of school

programs and data, and (d) pay a modest annual fee" (KIPP Schools: Introduction [KIPP.I], 2001).

Fisher Fellows are those individuals who participate in the KIPP Leadership Program; the program is a three-year program where "year one of the program is a full-time leadership training opportunity called the Fisher Fellowship. Years two and three of the program provide ongoing training and support for the new KIPP School Leaders as they establish their schools" (KIPP.SL, 2001). KIPP operated 15 academies in the 2002-2003 school year; for the 2003-2004 school year, the organization will add 19 schools to its roster. As of August 2003, the school will have four sites in Georgia, all of them located in Atlanta. In addition to Atlanta, many of the other KIPP schools are located in large cities or Metropolitan areas.

Much like the Edison Schools, KIPP schools also have extended school days. The KIPP P.A.T.H. (perseverance, achievement, triumph, honor) Academy in Atlanta begins its school day at 7:30 a.m. and ends at 5:00 p.m., Monday through Thursday and the school day ends at 4:00 p.m. on Fridays. The students also attend school on Saturdays and the session lasts from 9:30 a.m. to 1:00 p.m. Along with this rigorous regular school year, the students are required to attend three weeks of school during the summer. The school also contends that they have a "rigorous college preparatory curriculum", although for the 2002-2003 school year there were only fifth graders at the school (PATH Academy [PATH], 2003). The school will continue to phase in grades each additional school year until the school teaches through grade eight.

Differences Between Charter Schools and Traditional Public Schools

According to the State of Georgia, "a traditional public school is organized according to federal laws, state school laws, State Board of Education rules, and local board of education policies, [whereas] a charter school is organized according to federal

laws and the terms of the charter" (CS.FAQ, 2003, p. 1). Earlier, it was stated that each charter school has a different charter; therefore each charter school is different.

Along with the traditional public schools, there are other types of schools under the traditional public school umbrella; they are the magnet school and the theme school. It is common knowledge that magnet schools have certain criteria for admissions, and this fact in itself differs from the charter school. The other type of public school is relatively new and that is the theme school. This type of school is similar to the charter school that it elicits parent volunteer hours. However this type of school "focuses on the instructional model and the focus is on the instructional strategy implemented at the school [while] the charter school concept is an organization model, the focus is on how the school is organized, governed and managed" (CS.FAQ, 2003, p. 1).

Student Achievement

Overall, there is still mixed information concerning the achievement of students in charter schools versus that of students in traditional public schools; however, the State of Georgia published a charter school report for the 2001-2002 school year. The study concluded that for that particular school year, students attending charter schools performed better on standardized tests than those attending traditional public schools. Georgia schools administer the Criterion-Referenced Competency Test (CRCT), the Middle Grades Writing Assessment (MGWA), and the Georgia High School Graduation Test (GHGST) annually. A yearly report published the "Percentage of Students in Charter Schools and the State Scoring 'Meets' or 'Exceeds the Standard' in accordance with these tests and the test results show that students in charter schools generally perform better on these tests (ACSR, 2002, pp. 13, 15, 17).

In keeping with the idea of student achievement, several states have published reports on charter schools; however, the conclusion remains the same throughout the states, that is "academic accountability remains one of the biggest challenges bedeviling states with charter schools" (Harrington-Lueker, 2002, p. 23). Although the state reports were not able to give conclusive measurement of achievement, some authors did note that "in the 2000-2001 school year [New Mexico] charter schools operating in communities with test scores historically below the norm continue to have a majority of students scoring below the norm" (Casey, Anderson, Yelverton, & Wedeen, 2002, p. 520). On the other hand, it is important to mention that the New Mexico state reports suggest that "charter schools are using alternative forms of assessment . . . that can contribute significant information about student learning" (Casey et al., 2002, p. 520).

The area of student achievement has always plagued school systems, even before the school choice movement. Overall, studies show that charter schools have not been established long enough to complete an accurate finding on whether student achievement is different in the charter schools. Although charter school reports are not convincing in the student achievement department, many studies have found that teachers "typically have high satisfaction ratings" (Bulkley & Fisler, 2003, p. 14).

Teachers

Certified vs. non-certified. It has been rumored, "charter schools are much more likely than traditional public schools to employ teachers who lack state certification" (Finn, Jr., & Kanstoroom, 2002, p. 61). However, this rumor is not valid when referring to the state of New Mexico. According to research on charter schools in New Mexico, "charter schools, by and large, are well staffed with experienced, certified teachers" (Casey et al., 2002, p. 520). One study queried charter principals about their teacher hiring methods, and one principal quoted "what I need is people who are highly intelligent, prestigious college background, articulate; they

like kids. They know what it means to work on a team. They are visionaries of a sort . . . Certification is a guarantee of nothing to me" (Finn, Jr. & Kanstoroom, 2002, p. 60). Charter school principals generally have the freedom to hire whomever they feel will be suitable for their school environment, similar to traditional public schools. However, to work as a teacher in traditional public schools, the teacher has to pass the certification exams administered by the state. Studies are showing now that "teachers appear to be seeking out the charter schools [because] they allow for greater professional autonomy" (Casey et al., 2002, p. 520).

Autonomy vs. state regulations. Traditional public school teachers often complain "that they are being held under a thumb" (Finn, Jr. & Kanstoroom , 2002, p. 60). This statement could be interpreted to mean that they are being tied down by state guidelines and regulations regarding what they teach and their implementation of the subject matter. It is also true that state regulations have forced many traditional public school teachers out of the classroom into charter school classrooms and have sent many new teachers directly to charter school classrooms instead of the traditional public school classroom. A study was conducted asking teachers why they chose charter schools; "the top reasons were educational philosophy, wanting a good school, like-minded colleagues, good administrators and class size" (Manno et al., 1998, p. 493). Although these reasons are enough to make any teacher change employment, when an idea or situation appears to be "too good to be true," it often is. Many teachers enjoy charter schools; studies show that some teachers, however, "found teaching there to be an overwhelming experience" (Bulkely & Fisler, 2002, p. 14). The teaching experience can be overwhelming because "the schools also make substantial demands on teacher's time and energy that may be difficult to keep up with over many years" (Wells et al., 1998, p. 309). According to a study conducted by Jeanne Fox (2002), "sometimes the autonomy the teachers experienced led to a sense of isolation, because of a lack of support in developing the proposed educational

programs" (p. 527). Along with this finding, Fox (2002) also noted that one of the teachers in the interview believed "there was no difference between the level of autonomy she experienced in the community-charter school and the level she experienced in her previous public school" (pp. 526-527).

Overall, it is difficult to determine the effectiveness of autonomy within charter schools due to many restrictions placed on them by outside sources, such as the school districts and local education authorities. Most charter school teachers are happy with their autonomy; however, it is important to remember that if the novice teachers have only seen one side of the spectrum, then they really do not know how the other side works. Also, studies show that the experienced teachers "employ techniques that they used before coming to these schools" (Wells et al., 1998, p. 309). So, are the teachers and the schools truly experiencing autonomy or are they teaching in an exclusive traditional public school?

Conclusion

As a result of this research, there has been more insight into the charter school movement nationally, and within the State of Georgia. The verdict is still out regarding the impact of charter schools and if they have been indeed helpful to public education, however, results nationally, as well as in the State of Georgia, show that charter schools are indeed making an improvement in public education. On the other hand, not all charter schools have lived up to their creeds. According to a study conducted in 2000 by Haughton and Carr-Chellman (2003), Georgia closed one of its then 39 charter schools and rejected 10 proposals for charter schools. The top three reasons listed for charter school closures and rejections were "general mismanagement, funding/financial/ fiscal impact on SD [school district] and low enrollment" (Haughton & Carr-Chellman, 2003, p. 5).

Although there is minimal research concerning the lasting outcome of charter schools, some researchers believe that charter schools have at least "five lessons to offer American education"(Manno et al., 1998, p. 489). The five lessons that Manno et al. believe "especially promising" are

1. **Consumer-oriented institutions**—Because charter schools respond to frustrations, demands and dreams that the regular system – for whatever reason – is not satisfying, they are consumer-oriented. Keeping key clients and constituents satisfied is a characteristic of most successful institutions, but it hasn't always been true of public schools. The realization that customers are the primary stakeholders is perhaps the most important place to start.

2. **Diverse institutions**—The schools are created to fit the needs of families and students – not those of system planners, state and local regulations, or union contracts. The freedom of charter schools to be different has left many of them better able to respond to the changing nature of family and community life.

3. **Accountable, results-oriented institution**—Charter schools focus on what children learn and how well they learn it—not on compliance with rules and procedures. This accountability for results requires that charter schools set clear academic standards for what they expect students to know and be able to do and exhibit performance standards that define acceptable levels of mastery.

4. **Professional institutions**—Those who work in the new public schools should be treated as professionals. This means deregulating the schools and freeing them from bureaucratic control and micromanagement. It means allowing individual schools, educators, and parents wide latitude and much autonomy in decision making about

such issues as teaching loads and methods, staff selection and compensation, resource allocation, and calendars and schedules.

5. **Voluntary, mediating institutions**—In virtually every instance, charter schools are small— even intimate — places where everyone knows the names and faces of everyone else. Moreover, these schools have clear, focused missions that they pursue without distractions. They are anchored in their communities more firmly than schools created by bureaucracies. (Manno et al., 1998, pp. 497-498)

Along with the aforementioned suggestions, this report also examined studies regarding teacher autonomy in charter schools, the differences between charter schools and traditional public schools and charter school governance. One major idea that was prevalent during the research was the idea of the school as a community. Many charter schools require parental volunteer hours along with required membership in the Parent Teacher Association (PTA). These stipulations evoke the community that most charter school petitioners and parents are looking for within the traditional public school. "At least two-thirds of the parents rated [*sic*] charter schools superior to their children's previous schools with regard to class size, school size, attention from teachers, quality of instruction and curriculum" (Bulkley & Fisler, 2002, p. 13).

Due to the community-type environment of charter schools, the parents and members of the community that are involved with the charter schools often are guaranteed more of a say in the daily governance of the charter school. Sometimes, parents and the community have a larger input regarding such matters as the staff and the curriculum. Earlier, there was mention of the Edison Schools and how different this school system is in comparison to traditional public schools; however, while reviewing the Edison Schools curriculum' there were not any significant differences in the early childhood programs of their curriculum and that of a theme school curriculum within public schools. The only noticeable difference is the emphasis in fine arts;

however, as the student progresses in grade level at the Edison Schools, the emphasis on fine arts decreases.

On the other hand, most major school districts have schools that are structured towards fine arts, such as singing, acting or dancing. There are several performing arts schools in the State of Georgia, and there is a selective admissions process into the school, which may be the major difference between the fine arts in charter schools and public schools. With the idea of fine arts in charter schools in mind, it is important to wonder if the students benefit from the fine arts segment of their curriculum? Yes, it has been proven that student learning styles vary and that the method of instruction is important when teaching, but if a child is not interested in the fine arts, is it fair to coerce this mode of instruction on the child versus enrolling the child into a fine arts program, where the child will benefit totally from the experience?

Along with having a different curriculum, many charter schools claim that their mission is to reach under-privileged students and to improve academic achievement. However, according to the State of Georgia, "students from lower socioeconomic families (i.e., students who receive free or reduced price lunch) were underrepresented in the state's charter schools in the first two years" (ACSR, 2002, p. 4) and while viewing the graphic representation of the data collected, although the numbers have risen, students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds are still underrepresented in charter schools in the State of Georgia. Also, while doing this study, it became apparent that a vast majority of charter schools are located in Metropolitan or large cities, such as San Antonio, Houston, Los Angeles and Atlanta. If charter schools are indeed located in major cities that have substantial standards of living, then are they suggesting that students in rural areas do not need the additional help or is there not enough money within the school system for the companies to profit? Although some charter schools are not operated by

for-profit companies, it is ironic that most charter schools are in areas where there is a substantially decent standard of living.

Another observation while doing this research was is the idea of smaller classroom sizes in charter schools. Charter schools "tend to be small . . . about 62% of charter schools have fewer than 200 students" (Manno et al., 1998, p. 494). As a result of smaller classroom sizes, the teacher has more time to devote attention to the students who are in need of extra help, thereby increasing their chances of improvement on standardized tests. So is the answer to public schooling smaller classrooms? Many seem to believe so; the State of Georgia adopted a law as of August 2001 mandating that schools have a certain number of students per classroom. For example in kindergarten classrooms, the minimum number of students is 15 and the maximum number of students is 18, with a paraprofessional in the classroom as well (Class Size Rules: State of Georgia [CSR.SG], p. 4). The State of Georgia has also mandated that schools be in compliance with this law by the 2004-2005 school year.

Overall, there are still many ambiguities regarding the impact of the charter school movement. Some researchers believe that charter schools will indeed cause a national education reform. Meanwhile, it has been noted that some states are beginning to amend their education laws in order to meet the standards of the charter schools. The State of Georgia passed the *A Plus Education Reform Act of 2000* in an effort to rectify issues concerning public education within the state. If states with charter laws continue to amend their laws concerning public education, will there be a need for charter schools? The answer to this question is not an easy one; however, once charter schools develop tenure within the public education system, further research will be able to determine their value and necessity.

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The Reality of Adverse Racism

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Abstract

This study investigates the prevalence of aversive racism in today's American society towards African-Americans. Aversive racism is an unconscious prejudice towards some type of racial or ethnic group. This paper is a literature review of the various studies that have been done on the issue so far. Researching the probability of a high rate of aversive racism in our society could help a great deal with showing a need for minority programs, and affirmative action. The studies to be reviewed are from across the country, and have had various results in proving and disproving aversive racism. This paper will weigh the results of various studies.

The Reality of Aversive Racism

Modern racism in America has made a change from the stereotype of the historical blatant racist, although this blatant breed does still exist in diminished numbers. It is now politically incorrect to be prejudiced, and Americans are making more of a conscious effort to maintain an unprejudiced exterior. Despite these changes in what is socially acceptable, racism still exists in subtle ways that affect all minorities, and even the majority. The main form of this subtle type of prejudice is aversive racism which is a characteristic that most races posses on some level. During research the focus was placed on aversive racism in Caucasian Americans because they are the majority and affect the minorities in a significant way. Most aversive racists do not believe they are racist or prejudice in any way. They most often have deep-seated beliefs that stem from societal influence. The three psychological processes believed to contribute to aversive racism are social categorization, desire for power and sociocultural influences (Dovidio, 1993). All of these influence individuals who are prejudiced though they do not recognize it themselves. Social categorization is a process which categorizes others into

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groups, typically by looks. This automatically leads to bias, especially in the case of racial categorization. Satisfying basic needs for power and control is natural for survival. One way to maintain control or power is to keep competing groups down. Sociocultural influence is the unconscious adoption of societal values. Each of these processes is normal, but the important thing is to be aware that they can cause bias. The purpose of this paper is to present the findings of various studies that gauge the possibility of aversive racism in the American population. By compiling the results of these studies and reviewing different journal articles, the probability of the existence of aversive racism can be either supported or denied. This concept is important because although there is a vast improvement in Caucasian's expressed racial attitudes, there are still gaps, in many instances increasing in the past 30 years between African-Americans and White-Americans in levels of infant mortality, life expectancy, employment, income, and poverty (Dovidio 93). It is quite possible that aversive racism has played a big part in these gaps, even though many doubt the existence in this type of racism because it is not the blatant bigotry of the past. The existence of aversive racism is also thought to be untrue because of the end of the segregationist movement and because of the dramatic improvement in whites' expressed racial attitude. In some instances the opposition is correct in stating that expressed racial attitudes have improved a great deal, for example ninety-seven percent of White Americans in a nation wide Gallup Poll said that they think Blacks and Whites deserve equal employment opportunities. Seventy-six percent said they explicitly support equal opportunity programs. They agreed that "affirmative-action programs that help blacks and other minorities get ahead should be supported." In 1933 seventy-five percent of Whites surveyed described Blacks as lazy, but in 1990 a similar survey showed that only four percent of Whites held that same opinion.

So it seems that the racial situation in America is much improved, and perhaps affirmative action is no longer needed. But there is still a problem. People don't always so what they say or support what they supposedly believe. Right now there is a large resistance to affirmative action, although when people check answers on a survey they say they support it. Eighty percent of Whites oppose giving preference to a Black worker over a White worker who has equal ability; furthermore, of those twenty percent of whites who do report that they support equalizing treatment of minorities in theory, only a third support specific programs that reflect this mentality. Only one third of the twenty percent of Whites who do support affirmative action actively support some type of equalizing program. This shows that there is a serious pattern of discrepancy between what people say and what people do. These statistics support the aversive racism theory because White Americans say they are feeling one way and probably believe they are open minded, but when it comes to actually creating an equal playing field, they baulk. Not only do they fail to support it, but they oppose it. Without facing this subtle discrimination, there will be no way to rectify the situation. If people continue to believe that prejudice is no longer a problem just because it is not obvious anymore, then they fail to see the need for programs like affirmative action. This has already begun to happen in certain states like California, which ended affirmative action. Soon after, other states made the same decision, and the job-hiring rate of minorities fell. Because people see racism as a problem of the past and see no fault in themselves, they fail to see the continuing need for the various programs set up to balance the discrepancy between the races. Aversive racism is something every race and culture is subject to, but the focus of this research is on White Americans because they are the majority in American society and, as a result, hold the power. Their actions and mentality deeply affect all of the other races in this nation, and since this is the case, the motivation for their actions should be scrutinized.

Expressions of Prejudice Among College Students Over Three Assessments, conducted by Timothy B. Smith and Richard N. Roberts was published in the College Student Journal in June of 1997. The purpose of this study was to measure aversive racism in White middle class college students over a forty-two month period. A total of 1,236 White college students from Utah State University were assessed. The first assessment took place in October of 1992 with 368 participants; the second took place in March of 1994 with 426 participants, and the third took place in March of 1996 with 442 participants. All of the subjects were similar in family backgrounds and educational levels. The first step in the study was to give all of them the Modern Racism Scale, which in the past displayed reliability. After all three groups were tested over the forty-two month period, the scores were compared to see if there was a rise in aversive racism. There was a slight increase in subtle racism shown in this study, but it was concluded that the increase was so slight that it was practically insignificant and didn't prove that with time this subtle racism has increased.

Assessment	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	Effect Size [*]
October, 1992	15.73	4.67	--
March, 1994	16.32	4.82	.16
March, 1996	16.65	4.89	.20

* = These effect sizes were computed by taking the difference of the means (from the first assessment), then dividing this number by the standard deviation of scores at the first assessment.

This study had a large pool of students. The problem is that the forty-two month period of time was not sufficient for the goal of gauging a significant change in the amount of aversive racism as time passes. The time period was not even the full four years it takes a college student to finish an undergraduate degree. The study titled, "Aversive Racism and Selection Decisions: 1989 and 1999" spanned an entire decade, sufficient to measure variation in decisions based on

aversive racism. A disadvantage to this study is that it had a much smaller group, although the study seemed to have a great deal more detail. For instance a variety of surveys were used to gauge the participants' ability to use good judgment in assessing an applicants' value as a worker.

"Inventing Racism" by G.E. Zuriff in a 2002 issue of <u>Public Interest</u> makes it clear that the modern racism theory of aversive racism is completely fabricated, as the title implies. He targets the modern racism scale, pointing out some of the questions asked. For instance "Blacks have it better than they ever had it before." The person taking the test is supposed to score this statement on a scale of one to five, to how much they either agree or disagree. This statement suggests a certain dislike for blacks by the manner in which it is worded, but is not actually an invalid for what it is measuring. In actuality, it is fair to say that Blacks have made great advances and have more rights than ever before. Along with targeting the scale Zuriff is stating that it is unfair to judge whether someone is prejudice based on whether their political views do or do not fall in line with programs benevolent to minorities. For instance, it is not reasonable to assume that someone opposes affirmative action they are prejudiced. They just don't believe in affirmative action.

In the study Expressions of Prejudice Among College Students Over Three Assessments the results seem ambiguous, probably in part because they did go deeply into their study. The results neither supported nor disproved the aversive racist theory because there was little variation. They used someone else's scale, administered it and compared the results. Not enough time elapsed for them to see a significant change. They only looked for an increase in aversive racism over time as opposed to the presence of aversive racism. The theory of modern racism does not stipulate that it increases with time, only that it exists. In the past they did not need to test for subtle racism because the majority of it was blatant, and there was no question

that it existed. The question is has blatant racism diminished or has it just taken new form. Zuriff made valid points as to why the modern racism scale is invalid. The manner in which the questions were asked did seem negative towards Blacks, but at the same time, the actual meaning of the statement was not necessarily negative, and could be, in fact, true. With the value of the modern racism scale being questioned, how valid is the entire study that was conducted by Smith and Roberts, who based their entire study on that scale? Then again the validity of that study is irrelevant because they failed to prove anything. Zuriff's argument against the modern racism scale seems correct, there are fallacies in this method of measuring modern racism in individuals. However, the fact that the scale may be faulty does not change the high possibility that aversive racism exists. He has made good points disputing the scale, but he has not disproved the existence of subtle forms of racism.

In the Psychological Science journal John F. Dovidio and Samuel L. Gaertner published a research article called "Aversive Racism and Selection Decisions: 1989 and 1999." In the study 194 White students from a Northeastern liberal arts college participated during the 1988-89 academic year and during the 1998-99 academic year. The purpose of this study was to see how prevalent aversive racism is and to gauge a difference over the time period. They were administered, along with other surveys and questionnaires assessing their racial attitudes. Three racial attitude questions were asked at both testing periods, and a significant decrease in self-reported expressions of prejudice occurred across the ten-year period. In the next part of the study, they had the participants read a short description of a campus program to evaluate possible candidates for positions in this program. There were three types of candidates applying for this job, (strong, ambiguous and clearly weak.) The participants were asked to rate these applicants before they knew their race, so that the ability of the participants to differentiate between the abilities of the applicants was clear. Once this was accomplished, the participants were given

different applicants to evaluate and recommend, and at this point they were aware of the race of the applicants. All of the strong candidates got high recommendations regardless of color. When ambiguous candidates were White, they received recommendations similar to those with strong characteristics, and the Black candidates received recommendations closer to the weak side.

In this article by Dovidio and Gaertner, the strong and weak applicants each got similar numbers of recommendations regardless of race, but when the ambiguous applicants were recommended, there was a big gap between the White and Black applicants. The Whites got much better recommendations, and the Blacks got poor recommendations, and the blacks got poor recommendations, although their qualifications were the same. In a situation when Blacks did not have impeccable qualifications to gain acceptance, they lost the support of the purposed egalitarian students that did not recommend them, while the White ambiguous candidates got the benefit of the doubt. In the 1988-89 part of the study there was a much higher amount of self-reported racism. Although there was this difference, there is little variation in the results of the study when looking at the chart. Blatant prejudice is reduced in the second part of the study, but the large gap between ambiguous applicants actually increased to some extent. Regardless of the fact that people in the study say they are not racist, their actions remain the same.

"The Subtlety of Racism" by John Dovidio in an April 1993 <u>Training and Development</u> lists many examples of gaps in lifestyle between Whites and Blacks. He makes a point to define modern racism and point out that it is not simply a Black-White issue. In this article he also describes some psychological studies he has conducted to find out how Whites feel on a subconscious level. Words and symbols were flashed in front of White individuals, and they associated these words and images with either good or bad. This subliminal procedure resulted in the conclusion that white subjects had more positive associations with Whites than with

Blacks, and subconsciously they had more negative associations with Blacks as opposed to Whites.

Aversive racism happens on a subconscious level caused by the three psychological processes. He aversive racism theory seems to be supported because the research done by Dovidio and Gaertner seem more thorough, and the results more compelling. Zuriff does have an excellent point about the modern racism scale, but that scale was not used in the study by Dovidio and Gaertner. Aversive racism does not apply to Whites alone. It is a problem in every culture, but America is a world power and it sets a standard for the world. The subtle prejudice of White Americans is important because every President we've ever had has been White, and the majority of the House of Representatives is White, and the majority of the academic world is White. All of the power lies in the hands of the White majority, so it is important to recognize the biases created by society at work on them.

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Where Did the Water Go?
An Experimental Look into the Light Path of a Mirage.

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine the index of refraction of the air above the surface of a highway on a hot summer day by tracing the path of the light rays that cause road mirages in the summer. Road mirages are caused by the bending of light that travels from an upper layer of cool air through a lower layer of warm air. The index of refraction of air (the speed of light in vacuum divided by the speed of light in air) just above the hot road way will increase as a function of height. A laser beam shined in a direction opposite the road-mirage ray highlighted the path of this ray. The path of this laser beam was then traced by finding the coordinates of the laser spot at different points along this path. The index of refraction as a function of height above the roadway was found by imposing the condition that the path taken by a light ray between two fixed points is the one that takes the least time.

Introduction

There are a variety of mirages but all mirages are a refractive phenomenon where the image of a distant object is distorted and displaced to appear in an alternate position from the original position. Therefore a mirage has scientific merit for study and should not be dismissed. A misconception should be instantly eradicated and that is that a mirage is not an illusion. The proof comes in the physical evidence that can be provided through a photograph (Figure 1).

Figure 1: This figure shows the mirage through which the measured light ray traveled. Note the image of the oncoming vehicle "reflected" by the mirage giving the illusion of standing water on the road.

There are three kinds of mirages, which are important to mention [1]. The first is the Fata Morgana (Fairy Morgan when translated from Italian), which is the most complex form of mirage [2]. Classically, it is responsible for people seeing magical castles in the sky and other people walking on water. Next is the Superior mirage where the image is reflected above the object. A classic example of this is the image of a boat at sea floating over the water – possibly even an explanation of the Flying Dutchman [3]. Last and most importantly for this study is the Inferior mirage. This kind of mirage is where the image is formed below the object almost like looking into a mirror. A classic case is the road mirage, which is directly what this study will use and follow [4].
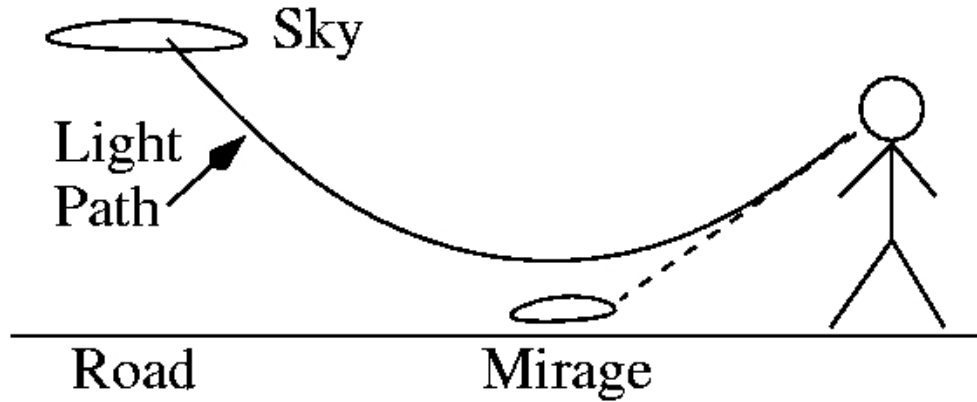
Figure 2: This picture shows how light from the sky on a hot summer day is bent by the heated air just above the road's surface. The solid line indicates the actual path of the light ray and the dotted line shows where the image appears to the observer.

Theory

Part of this study involves mapping out the path that the light ray takes through the mirage; therefore, a couple of important scientific principles should be introduced and clarified. Fermat's Principle [5] states that light will traverse the path that requires the least amount of time between two fixed points. In electricity this is sometimes referred to as the path of least resistance. From this principle comes Snell's Law [5] which gives the change in direction a light ray undergoes when passing from medium 1 (the incident medium) to medium 2 (the refracted medium). If θ_1 is the angle that the incident ray makes with a line perpendicular to the interface between media (called the "normal") and θ_2 is the angle the refracted ray makes with the same line, then

$$n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2,$$

where n_1 and n_2 are the indexes of refraction of the two media.

As light passes from one medium to another not only does its speed change, but also it bends. The amount that it bends and the direction from the normal all depends on the index

values from the adjacent media. With a road mirage, for example, the surface of a road can become hot enough so that the air will have different density layers, meaning that these layers will have different indexes. The closer to the ground the hotter the air, the less dense it becomes and the more energetic the air particles will be. This occurs when the light ray, which would normally hit the surface, will actually bend away and send the resulting information for someone else to see. It should also be noted that the density layers of the air aren't static but are very dynamic, though for general purposes are assumed static for maintaining a simpler and easier model to work with.

Experiment

A camera tripod mounted with binoculars and a green laser, rope, and a screen (Figures 3 & 4) were used to aim the laser beam and to determine the path of the light ray. With the binoculars, the mirage could be sited and the green laser light was kept in view. The laser and the binoculars were aligned so that they moved together. A second person laid out the rope, which was used to determine the horizontal distance from the laser pointer to a point on the laser beam path. To give an appreciation of the distances involved, the laser light started off as a pinprick and ended up the size of a cantaloupe. A piece of foam board was used as a screen to locate the laser spot as it traveled along its path.

Figure 3: This device, consisting of a camera tripod with binoculars and laser points mounted on top, was used to aim and stabilize the light ray.

Figure 4: Two candidate pieces of equipment were used to determine the horizontal coordinate of points along the light path. The bottom device, a Global Positioning System receiver proved to be much less accurate than the rope shown on top.
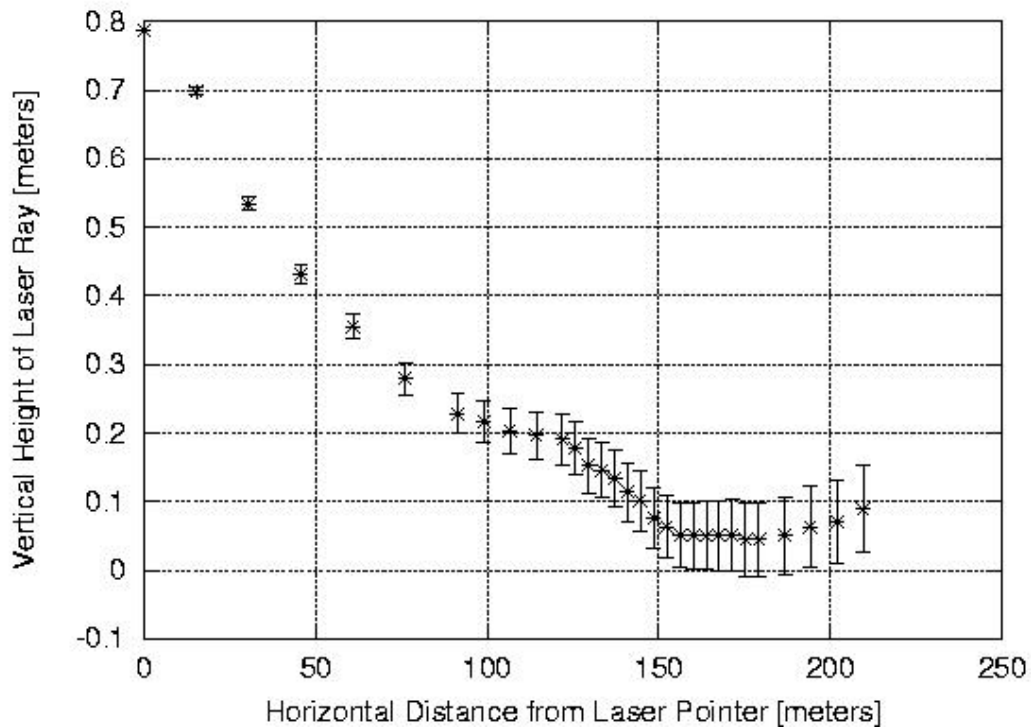
Figure 5: This graph displays the coordinates of points along the path of the laser beam. The origin of coordinates lies on the ground directly below the laser pointer. The vertical bars depicts the size of the laser spot at each point.

Results

The first graph labeled as Figure 5 shows vertical and horizontal coordinates of points along the path of the light ray; it also is the physical data that was collected. The path of the ray is parabolic except for a bump between 100 and 150 meters. This was not expected and after careful thought was determined to be a natural phenomenon based on the smoothness of the road.
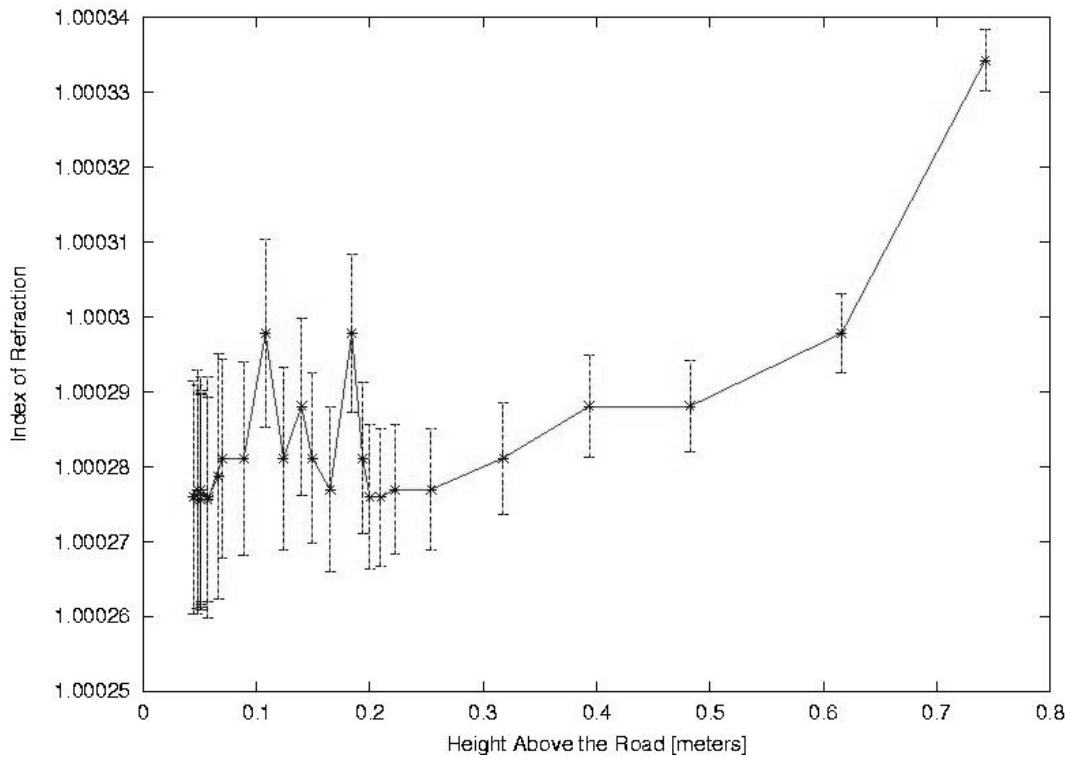
Figure 6: This graph shows the index of refraction of the hot air above the road as a function of vertical height as determined by the path of the laser beam. The indexes of refraction were determined using Snell's law as described in the text. The error bars are found by propagating errors in the raw data.

Figure 6 shows a graph of the index of refraction as a function of vertical height. The index of refraction was determined using Snell's law and by assuming that, above a certain height, the index of refraction of the air is the accepted value. The error bars were found by propagating the errors in the coordinates of the light-ray path. The difference in certainty between a pinpoint of light to one of cantaloupe size was massive; the best that could be achieved at that time was to take an average measurement about the center of the cross-section.

Conclusion

We determined the index of refraction of heated air above the surface of a road on a hot summer day in order to study the phenomenon of road mirages. To do this, we measured the path of a light ray provided by a laser pointer aimed directly at the mirage. We found that the light-ray path was parabolic, except for a noise, which we attributed to a road that was not perfectly flat. In the future, we expect to compare the measured refractive-index profile with the predictions of a model based on the assumption that air is an ideal gas and that heat is conducted uniformly up from the road. Favorable comparisons of the data with such models should provide a valuable tool for further study of road mirages.

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Minorities as the Majority: The Overrepresentation of African American Students in Special Education

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Abstract

National reports indicating an overrepresentation of African American students in special education programs in the United States were investigated at state and local levels. Electronic interviews with five professional educators with extensive experience in public school student assessment and placement were conducted and analyzed. The results showed that the percentages of African Americans in special education in the state of Georgia, and in Bulloch County, Georgia, exceed the percentages of these minority students in the total student population. Educators suggested possible contributing factors to this trend of disproportionality and recommended changes for the improvement of special education in the nation. Findings of this study are congruent with the findings of the Civil Rights Project at Harvard University supporting the position that systemic inequities in special education stem from multiple contributing factors firmly entrenched in general education.

Minorities as the Majority: The Overrepresentation of African American Students in Special Education

Data on the educational performances of students in the United States show that we as a nation are not meeting the academic needs of all of our students. Obviously, there are numerous contributing factors to low academic achievement, the least of which are the growing numbers of students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds who challenge educators to embrace diversity and difference in continually changing contexts. Unfortunately, embedded in

the schooling data is the egregious implication that diversity is tantamount to disability, that too often, the *different* student is easily assessed to be the *deficient* student. Indeed, the apparent misplacement of minority children in special education has resulted in a persistent and extreme overrepresentation of minority children in certain disability categories.

Equally disturbing is the discovery that where there are blatant discrepancies in the equal dispersement of services, African American children with disabilities have experienced insufficient services, have inferior curriculum and instruction, and are less likely, once a disability has been identified, to be given access to mainstream classrooms. These unfortunate circumstances and actions have had numerous negative effects, including minority overrepresentation, unnecessary labeling, incorrect assessment and placement, and formidable adversities for minority, predominantly black, students (Losen & Orfield, 2000). Many contend that standardized tests are culturally and socially biased so as not to give accurate measures of a student's ability and/or potential.

Historical Background of Special Education

In 1868, the Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution of the United States of America assured *all Americans* equal benefits under the law. Since that time, multiple acts, laws, codes, federal provisions, and Supreme Court decisions have elaborated on the rights of U.S. *students* to equal, and adequate education. In addition, numerous legal codes clarify and guide the nations federally mandated, state-controlled school systems. With regards to public education, in a landmark case, *Brown vs. Board of Education* (1954), a Supreme Court decision forcefully established a philosophy of integration in America's schools based on the constitutional principles established by the Fourteenth Amendment, which provided that people could not be denied "equal protection of the law." The court recognized that segregation is unconstitutional.

In every decade since 1954, important federal advocacies have mandated equitable schooling policies. In 1964, Title VI of the Civil Rights Act prohibited discrimination on the basis of race, color or national origin. Ten years later, the Equal Economic Opportunity Act (EEOA) passed in 1974, assuring that students with disabilities have the same rights and protection as non-disabled students. Subsequently, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (EAHC) was passed in 1975 to clarify the right of all school-aged children to a free, appropriate, public education including a provision for learning in the *least restrictive environment*. Public Law 94-142, states that instruction for disabled students must be provided in the *Least Restrictive Environment* (LRE) "to the maximum extent appropriate, [and] handicapped children, including children in public and private institutions or other care facilities, are [to be] educated with children who are not handicapped." Because the enforcement of equal protection laws is necessary, in 1979, the Office of Civil Rights was created to be a part of the Department of Education in order to enforce Title VI. And eventually, in 1990, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) was passed as an elaboration of EAHC to specifically enumerate the rights of all students to an equal education. Indeed, national data indicate that before the passage of EAHC, there were vast numbers of American students who were eligible for special programs, but for whom services were not provided. Fortunately, since IDEA became law, many students have gained numerous schooling opportunities and reaped many necessary educational benefits in special education programs. Today, nearly six million children with disabilities are receiving services provided by the IDEA programs. However, many very troubling problems plague special education programs throughout the nation. A most blatant problem has to do with the overrepresentation of minorities in special education embedded in general public education (Losen & Orfield, 2002). To examine the overrepresentation of minorities in special education, hearings were convened in the U.S. House of Representatives

Committee on Education and the Work Force on October 4, 2001. Findings were inconclusive. For even where the need for special education was shown, efforts to guarantee and fully fund special education at federally mandated levels were not realized.

Black Education as Special Education

In a 30-year longitudinal investigation conducted by Harvard University (Losen & Orfield 2002), the patterns of overrepresentation of minority children in special education by disability category have been examined. In addition, access to general education classrooms for black and white students who are similarly situated are being investigated. Findings reveal a grave difference in disability classification between blacks and whites, and even differences by gender. Blacks are primarily labeled as mentally retarded; whites are labeled as learning disabled. Blacks are classified as mentally retarded 2.75 times more often than whites. For blacks in the southern United States, this ratio is much higher (at 5.41). In addition, black children are 1.92 times more likely to be labeled emotionally disturbed (Parrish, 2002). Indeed, blacks are the most over represented minority in special education in every category, state by state (Losen & Orfield, 2000).

State regulations provide the eligibility requirements for students who qualify for special education program and the placement process *should* be equitably administered. The results of placement in mental retardation and "hard" disability categories means that students of color run the risk of being put into separate programs with a more limited curriculum that may impact their access to post secondary education and employment opportunities (Losen & Orfield 2002). Multiple sources of information (evaluations, reports, observations, etc.) are used to determine if a child qualifies for special education. Initially in order for a child to begin a special education program, a parent or guardian must give written permission (see Appendix A). Thereafter, at least once a year, the child's progress is reviewed. Reviews may be completed sooner if the

parent or the school requests. At the yearly meeting, the child's progress is discussed, and goals and objectives are reviewed and updated. Placement options are reconsidered, and the needs for an extended school year are discussed (Ysseldyke, Algozzine, & Thurlow, 2000).

In efforts to avoid misclassifications of students and to ensure that minority students who are poorly prepared for school are not referred to special education for that reason, educators are challenged to provide high quality instruction and social support in general education classrooms before making a determination that special education is needful. Recommended educational policies include the implementation of comprehensive screening strategies to identify students at risk of school failure as early as possible, as well as, to intervene before academic or behavior problems become deeply entrenched (Vines, V. 2002).

Many special education professionals recognize the desperate need for improved education for minorities. This is evident by the numerous proposals and suggestions for continued research found throughout the literature. Current research supports the contention that overrepresentation in special education is just the surface of a problem that is deeply rooted in the American education system. Most recognized that minority overrepresentation in special education is related to many underlying societal forces that cause children to act or react in negative ways (Salend, Duhanny, & Montgomery, 2002). Findings indicate that social forces that contribute to the disproportional representation and treatment of Black students include the limited number of public school educators from African American backgrounds, unbalanced funding for schools, and tragically disregarded institutionalized racism. These contribute to the condemning misplacement forces that lie in the referral, assessment, and tasking process in general American education. Many school districts have their own method of evaluating students. "Often the tests used for this sorting proves perpetuate segregation in the classroom" (Herrera, J., 1998; Salend, Duhaney, & Montgomery 2002).

The Harvard Study indicates that the individual perceptions of teachers, in addition to systemic racial prejudices, are profoundly influential in the referral of African Americans to testing for placement in special education. Also, unconscious racial bias, stereotypes and other race-linked factors impact identification, placement and quality of services for minority students, especially African American students (Losen & Orfield, 2002).

Concerns about overrepresentation should not be discussed without including the importance of teacher education. In addition, examining professional and para-professional development is critical in order to determine if teachers are prepared to nurture academic learning and evaluate the learning difficulties of students from diverse backgrounds (Markowitz, 2001). New teachers must be better prepared to teach students from multiple cultures and backgrounds, and veteran teachers must be willing to embrace new teaching methods (Copehaver, 2001). It is important to note that teachers' perceptions of cultural identities are especially relevant to the academic achievement of their students. Teachers misunderstanding of and reactions to students' culturally conditioned behaviors can lead to student, school and social failure. Minority students often become alienated from schooling because educators demand that they become someone other than who they really are, someone who dismisses his or dismisses her community and cultural knowledge (Neal, McCray, & Bridgest, 2003).

Teachers' perception of culture-related identities and their manifestations in the classroom are especially relevant to school achievement by students. African American students, for example, have been found to benefit from a culturally responsive pedagogy that is theoretically grounded in teaching-effectiveness research (Gay, 2000; Irvine & Armento, 2001; Ladsone-Billings, 1994, 2001). Teachers who fail to connect to student's cultural differences or who belittle students cause students to shut down and not to participate in class for fear of ridicule or rejection. Deleteriously, when this occurs, students run the risk of referral for

assessment because they are not responding in ways that the teacher is expecting. It is a great challenge for teachers to evaluate themselves on the issues of diversity, classroom management, personal preferences, and prejudices.

Parents are another critically important part of American schooling practices. Parents are the most important influence on the achievement of their children. Yet, those in authority in public education often intimidate many parents because parents do not know their rights. Many African American parents are not aware that they can challenge the school board concerning the placement of their children. Because African American parents are often characterized as parents who do not care or are too busy to check on their children, educators condescend through educational jargonize. African American parents do not want to be stereotyped as ignorant and/or unconcerned about their children. Therefore, they limit their involvement in the communication with these academic professionals because of their mistrust (Herrara, J.,1998).

Purpose

As an African American educator, I have many unanswered questions about American education programs in our public schools; two questions guided my research.

Q_1 Are minority students overrepresented in special education
programs in the nation's public school system?

Q_2 Why are there so many African American students in
special education?

During recent experiences as a substitute teacher in southeast Georgia, I found that African American students constitute a majority in special education classes. I was troubled by this trend and questioned if minority students were being misplaced in the restrictive environments of special education.

In the present study, I examined the overrepresentation of African American students in special education in one county and one state in the southeastern United States. In addition, through interviews with experts in the field of special education, I looked for contributing factors to minority overrepresentation and solicited recommendations for the improvement of special education policy and practice. Initially, my personal questions led me to the Civil Rights Project at Harvard University (Losen & Orfield, 2000). In efforts to better understand this persistent overrepresentation trend of African American students in special education and to assess inequities in the qualities of special education programs, the Civil Rights Project at Harvard University began to investigate the patterns of overrepresentation of minority students by disability category. The researchers were also interested in whether, once identified, these minority students experienced less access to the general education classroom than white students similarly situated.

Method

Overview

Quantitative data were collected from large databases of one county and one state in the southeastern United States for access to descriptions of special education populations. Chi-square statistical tests were used to compare observed frequencies of African American students and white students in special education programs. Using observed frequencies, expected frequencies were calculated to test for relationship between two variables, race and enrollment in special education. The hypothesis tested with chi-square was whether or not student enrollments in special education programs are independent of, or dependent upon, race (black, white). Chi-Square calculates expected values that represent the number in each category which, given the sample sizes and distribution, one would expect to see.

The chi-square formula was used to calculate these values.

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{(\text{Observed Value} - \text{Expected Value})^2}{(\text{Expected Value})}$$

Qualitative data were collected through open-ended questionnaires completed by *key informants*, (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984, p. 119) in the field of special education. Key informants are those who possess expertise, "special knowledge, status, or communicative skills and who are willing to share that knowledge and skill with the researcher." (p. 119). Experts and professional educators in the field of special education identified as key informants completed questionnaires supplied by the researcher. These key informants provided qualitative descriptions and opinions related to general and special education schooling in U. S. public schools. Multiple open-ended questions were submitted for analysis via E-mail attachments.

Participants

Six professional educators in the field of special education were recruited to respond to an electronic questionnaire. Five of these consented to participate in the study and were queried with the use of E-mail-attached questionnaires. The races of the professionals were as follows one black; four of the experts were white. Three of the participants were female and two of them were male. The combined years of experience reported by the experts totaled over 70 years. Ages of the experts ranged from 25 to 65. All of the experts presently practice in the southeast.

Measures

Databases. The State Department provided the data for the tables and can be found at http://accountability.doe.k12.ga.us/Report02/. Table 1 reports actual frequencies of students enrolled in special education and regular education in the state by race.

Table 1 State Special Education Enrollment – Actual Frequency

Source	Students in Special Education	Students in Regular Education	Row Total
Blacks	15,320	525,823	541,143
Whites	23,696	753,067	776,763
Column Total	39,016	1,278,890	1,317,906

Table 2 represents data for the county and reports actual frequencies of students enrolled in

special education in the county by race.

Table 2 County Special Education Enrollment- Actual Frequencies

A	B	C	D
Source	Students in Special Education	Students in Regular Education	Row Total
Blacks	16020	525123	541143
Whites	22996	753767	776763
Column Total	39016	1278890	1317906

Table 3 represents the numbers that are the expected frequencies. If there were truly a balance in

the proportion of black students and white students, the actual numbers would be the same as the

expected frequencies.

Table 3 Expected Frequencies-State

Source	Students in Special Education	Students in Regular Education	Row Total
Blacks	546	2,637	3,183
Whites	669	4,192	4,861
Column Total	1,215	6,829	8,044

Table 4 shows the same results within the county, except there is an even greater disproportion.

Table 4 Expected Frequencies – County

A	B	C	D
Source	Students in Special Education	Students in Regular Education	Row Total
Blacks	481	2702	3183
Whites	734	4127	4861
Column Total	1215	6829	8044

Descriptive statistics were used to determine if there was a significant association between the distributions of special education placement for whites that was different from that of black students. The chi-square test of independence was used to determine significance of difference.

Interviews

Electronically E-mailed questions were designed to collect the following types of information concerning the personal experiences and opinions of the 5 participating key informants

Opinion/Belief questions were aimed at understanding cognitive and interpretive processes. (Answers to these questions informed us about what the experts *think* about a specific setting.) *Feeling* questions were aimed at understanding the emotional responses of the experts. *Knowledge* questions were aimed at collecting factual information. *Sensory* questions targeted the actual witnessing of situations *Background/Demographic* questions concerned the identifying characteristics of the experts being interviewed.

Although the electronic questionnaires completed by the experts in special education did not provide *voluminous* (Patton, 1990) interview data, they were analyzed in efforts to identify their

perspectives concerning the research question, "Why are so many African-Americans in special education?" In important ways, the interview questions were cross-referenced (Anfara, Brown, & Mangione, 2002) to this overriding question. Although these key informants were not extensively interviewed, they were considered to be experts in special education and qualified to tell the *tales of the field* (Van Maanen, 1988). Thus, the semi structured interviews were the primary data-gathering source used to provide insights from the field where the seasoned, professional educators were working everyday to assess, evaluate, and direct the education of countless students in the American school system. The questionnaires were analyzed to bring "meaning, structure, and order to the data" (p. 31). Questions answered by the experts are attached in Appendix B.

Data Analysis

The design of the present study called for the analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data. The primary statistical technique employed in the study was chi-square analysis. Null and alternative hypotheses were derived from the following overriding question that guided the study. Are African American students disproportionally represented in special education in the state of Georgia and the County of Bulloch?

Specific Statistical Hypotheses. H_o: - H_1

H_o: Race and students enrolled in special education

in Georgia and Bulloch County are independent

schooling variables.

H_1: Race and students enrolled in special education

in Georgia and Bulloch County are dependent

schooling variables.

The chi-square test for statistical significance is based on a series of mathematical formulas. This study was conducted to compare the actual observed frequencies of African American and white students in special education; one would expect that there were no relationship between race and special education. Chi-square allowed the testing of actual results against the null hypothesis as to whether the actual results are different enough to overcome a certain probability that they are due to sampling error. In a sense, chi-square is a lot like percentages; it analyzes a population characteristic (a statistic) similar to the way percentage standardizes a frequency to a total of 100. The chi-square distribution was used to compare the number of black and white students in special education in the state and in the county. Thus, the chi-square analysis helped to answer the question – Are the differences between observed data (number of black students in special education/ number of white students in special education) and the expected data due to chance? Chi-square works by testing the null hypothesis; in this study the tested null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was accepted.

Interviews. Questionnaires completed by 5 experts were analyzed for similarities and systemic and thorough responses. Answers to eleven questions were collected and compared. Qualitative analysis techniques employed in the study included questionnaire transcription and development of a system of categories to capture the main types of responses the key informants gave to each question or issue. Each questionnaire transcript was read and coded by two researchers. Consensus was reached on each coding category.

Findings

I addressed my first question by collecting and analyzing quantitative data and concluded that there is a great overrepresentation of minorities in both the State of Georgia and in Bulloch County. Table 5 shows the analysis of a two-sample, chi-square test that was used to

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determine whether the enrollment of special education differed between the two student groups.

The result for the State of Georgia is as follows:

The obtained X2 (1N=1,317,906) = 53.52, *p<.001*

Table 5 Chi-Square Terms = (Actual-Expected) ^ 2/Expected) State of Georgia

A	B
Blacks	30.61
Whites	21.33
Chi-Square Statistic	**53.52**
Alpha	0.01
Degree of freedom	1
Critical Value	**6.635**
P-value	2.55724E-13

The same test was performed for Bulloch County and the results are as follows:

The obtained X2 (1N=8,044) = 17.25, *p<.001*

Table 6 Chi-Square Terms = (Actual-Expected) ^ 2/Expected) Bulloch County

A	B
Blacks	8.85
Whites	5.79
Chi-Square Statistic	**17.25**
Alpha	0.01
Degree of freedom	1
Critical Value	**6.635**
P-value	.00003279

I sought to answer my second question by interviewing experts in the field of special

education. Questions 1 - 6 were *experience/behavior* questions. The experts described their

experiences in special education to be primarily related to the assessment and testing of minority

(and majority) students who are referred for evaluation because of poor academic achievement

and/or disruptive classroom behavior. Referred minority students included primarily African-

Americans, Native-Americans, Mexicans, Middle Easterners, and Haitians. The consensus of

the informants was that students are not difficult to assess unless they are not proficient in the English language.

Questions 7 - 10 were *opinion/belief* questions. The experts were asked to respond emotionally to the issue of African-American disproportionality in special education. Although responses were multiple and diverse, on question 7 following similar opinions on the cause of this overrepresentation were expressed: (a) institutionalized racism ("The majority of educators are white, female, and middle class. They have little understanding of white privilege and of their own insensitivity to racism.") (b) lack of teacher preparation to teach in culturally diverse contexts ("teachers are not familiar with the norms of students' environments"… and "have little understanding and appreciation of the environment, community and neighborhood"… "many African American males are not appropriately placed"… "it is my belief that many teachers do not understand African American male behavior"… "these teachers lack the skills to be able to appropriately understand their behavior and consequently see these males as disruptive and refer them for testing"…. "where they enter into a system that locks them in to a labeling of them as disruptive and special"); (c) poverty ("I feel that low SES…is a big part of the problem…I'm not sure it's a question of race but a question of economic class."); (d) intrinsic and extrinsic problems (intrinsic problems include "impaired cognitive abilities, a learning disability, a disorder of impulse control, a medical condition that directly impairs school performance"…….extrinsic problems include "the child has grown up in an environment where majority values are not pursued"….especially those values related to "achievement motivation, study skills, regular schedules, and parental support.")

On questions 8-10 the experts were divided. Three of them responded that minority students are vulnerable to discriminatory placements in special education because of the general system of American education—its processes

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for identification, referral, testing, and placement of students. Two of the experts were not aware of the discriminatory vulnerability of minorities.

On question 9 the experts were not completely divided; however, there was not unanimous consensus. Three of the informants were directly opposed to full-inclusion classrooms. One informant was not optimistic that full-inclusion will solve any problems. And only one key-informant was supportive, although cautious, of the full-inclusion model.

"It is time for us to include as many of these students as we can. It is also time for us to move away from the one size fits all model of education. If a student is cooperative and motivated and is willing to work hard, why not include that student? As a teacher, I would much prefer a motivated student with a handicapping condition to an unmotivated, non-handicapped student. If you are willing to do the work, and you can benefit from the class at some level, there is always a place for you."

For question 10, the five experts responded with five different opinions about the ways and means for improvement in special education as it is practiced in the United States. (a) "We must tear down systemic barriers to learning and achievement"… "I think all educators need to look at how each one of us continue to support systemic barriers to learning and achievement." (b) "We need appropriate funding"…"better training of teachers in learning how to teach a variety of children"…"and promotion of school leaders who have schools that have implemented positive learning environments and high performing schools in areas where the perception of the children in that area is not positive." (c) We need "informed teachers"… "and possibilities for more accurate diagnoses of children's impairments"… "which include mental health issues." (d) "We need more research"… "into the special area of students in poverty.") (e) We need to do more…in three areas: "we need more intensive pre-kindergarten preparation to overcome

environmental deprivation and differences" (like Head Start); we need to "EXPECT students to learn and find ways to help them to succeed"… We need, ("to replicate the best practices of successful schools in the nation's poorest districts"; We need to "STOP BLAMING PARENTS" and… "We must find ways to educate students who lack parental nurturing and environmental supports.") One expert added the following (summarized) comments concerning special education:

(a) We need to quit wasting time on worrying about test bias. IQ tests are not biased. They have a hundred year history of successfully predicting who will succeed in school. Many children don't do well in school and IQ tests tell us who they are BEFORE they have had to fail to prove it. Don't kill the test for doing what it is designed to do. Figure out why students are failing and fix that. (b) We need to "reform" the accountability process and to apply high stakes testing carefully. No test can evaluate student progress, assess teacher effectiveness, and grade schools. We need different methods for evaluating different aspects of the educational process. (c) We need to support public education, not dismantle it. If we take all the best, most motivated students out of public schools and put them into charter and magnate and suburban schools, we will still be left with a hard-core group of intractable students who need to be educated. We can educate them with their peers who can serve as role models, not in segregated units. (d) We need to be courageous. There are some students who cannot be managed in any school. Regardless of inclusion and regardless of student rights, and due process, educators have to have the courage and the knowledge to identify these students and to provide them the environment they need.

Discussion and Implications

The numbers presented by the U.S Department of Education can be misleading. There are more whites than blacks in special education, but when you compare the numbers as percentages; the number of blacks to whites is to a great extent higher. This is a real problem. It is a problem because students of color are being denied access to the general education curriculum. The students are also being disgraced with a label that attacks their level of self-esteem and self-worth.

Desperate need for improvement and numerous proposals for remedies and suggestions for continued research are found throughout the literature. Many recognize that concerns with overrepresentation in special education are just the surface of a problem that is deeply rooted in the American education system. Overrepresentation must be viewed to be the result of many underlying challenges that cause children to act or react in negative ways, and to shortcomings in the regular education classes. The referral process must also be examined, as well as the teachers who are referring their students.

Unfortunately, neither determining the Least Restrictive Environment is an easy task, nor determining the solution to be simply place students in classes or programs. Nevertheless, schools must ensure that instruction delivered is appropriate to meet the needs of the learner. Unfortunately, research indicates that black students are more likely to receive an education that has less quality than that of white students, because black students are most often placed in the restrictive environment that *restricts their learning*. In other words, black students are placed in the classes where they are not expected to perform and where they are less likely to be challenged to work up to the level of their potential. Indeed, white students are more often placed in the least restrictive environment where they can be educated with their peers, whereas black students are isolated from their peers in special education classrooms.

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Footnotes

Definition of Terms

African American Black. A person having origins in any of the Black racial groups of Africa. It includes people who indicate their race as "Black, African American , or Negro," or provide written entries such as African American, Afro American, Kenyan, Nigerian, or Haitian.

Disproportionality. Refers to the overrepresentation of the number of students of a particular ethnic group in any given area of education.

Emotionally Disturbed. A condition exhibiting one or more of the following characteristics over a long period of time and to a marked degree that adversely affects educational performance-- (A) An inability to learn that cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factors; (B) An inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers; (C) Inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal circumstances; (D) A general pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression; or (E) A tendency to develop physical symptoms or fears associated with personal or school problems. [Code of Federal Regulations, Title 34, Section 300.7(b)(9)]

Mental Retardation. Refers to significantly sub average general intellectual functioning existing concurrently with deficits in adaptive behavior and manifested during the developmental period.

Specifically Learning Disabled. A disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, which may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, read, write, spell, or do mathematical calculations.

White. A person having origins in any of the original people of Europe, the Middle East, or North Africa. It includes people who indicate their race as "White" or report entries such as Irish, German, Italian, Lebanese, Near Easterner, Arab, or Polish.

Appendix A

SPECIAL EDUCATION FLOW CHART

```
                    General Education
                          │
                    Parent Involvement
                          │
              General Education Interventions
                          │
         Referral for Evaluation ──── Parent Rights
                          │
         Evaluation for Possible Exceptionality
                          │
                  Eligibility Meeting
                 ╱        │         ╲
    Section 504          │      Not Eligible,
    Eligible             │      No Services
                         │
                  Eligible &
                  Need for Services ──────── Placement
             ╱           │                       │
   IEP Goals &    IEP Team Meeting        Private Schools
   Benchmarks           │                       │
                  Special Education
                  & Related Services
                         │
  Discontinuing     Reevaluation     Continuing Services
  Services                           Annual IEP/Review
```

Appendix B

Interview Questions for School, Counseling, and Clinical Psychologists

Your Biographical Information

Your Name _____

Your Profession   _____

State in which you practice _____

Years of Experience in Student Assessment _____

Your Age   _____

Your Race   _____

Your Mailing Address: _____   (for sending consent form)

                                                _____

                                                _____

1. Briefly describe the assessment and placement process with which you are most familiar--from a student's initial referral for testing to the student's placement in a Special Education program.

2. Explain your most typical professional role in the assessment and placement of public school students in Special Education programs.

3. Have you assessed a large number of minority students? If so, what race(s)?

4. Are minority students more difficult to assess than others? If so, why?

5. When a *minority* student is referred to you for testing, what is the most common reason for the referral?

6. When a *majority* student is referred to you for testing, what is the most common reason for the referral?

7. There are disproportionate numbers of African American students (males and females) in Special Education programs in the United States.   What is your personal opinion as to the cause of this disproportionality?

8. Are you aware of discriminatory placements within current assessment and placement practice? If so, at what point of practice is the minority student most vulnerable to discriminatory placement in special education?

9. How do you *feel* about the direction that we are headed in Special Education in the United States toward full-inclusion classrooms?

10. What changes would you suggest for the improvement of Special Education in the United States, specifically with regard to the assessment and placement of minority students?

11. Please add any additional comments (facts and/or your opinions)   concerning the assessment and placement of students in Special Education public school programs in your state of practice.

Author's Note

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Wireless Sensor Tracking Network – TinyOS

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Abstract

The TinyOS is an event based operating system that is designed to implement embedded networked sensors. Due to TinyOS's minimal hardware requirements, it is designed to support the concurrency intensive operations required by networked sensors. The research focuses on an interactive level as well as the traditional reading and formulates a conclusion. The operating system is used to create simulations of "Wireless Sensor Tracking Networks." There are many applications within the software that can be tested, implemented and modified in order to create a different outcome. All of these aspects of the TinyOS are essential in gaining a better understanding of the inner workings of the operating system as well as an understanding for the many uses of it. This research/project on the TinyOS provided information on two area; how the TinyOS works and what part does the TinyOS play in communication devices and devices in the future. Results conclude that the TinyOS works as a simulator and a pathway to implementing a "Wireless Sensor Tracking Network." Also, results show that the TinyOS will add in the future of tracking networks, ranging from environmental and health to the Department of Defense to track chemical weapons in an area before human troops arrive. Information gathered from this research/project will give professionals insight on the TinyOS and the many ways it will impact our future to make the world a better place.

Introduction

Wireless technology is becoming essential to today's world of mobility and the need for information. Many companies today use some type of tracking device to obtain the location of materials or products not only for their use, but also for the comfort and information for their customers. Objects such as cars, railroad cars, and warehouse inventory, all have one thing in common, these objects all can be tracked to inform an end user of their location. TinyOS is the

operating that can produce a system to track these objects. TinyOS is an event based operating system environment, which is designed with embedded networked sensors.

The purpose of this research is to gain an understanding of the TinyOS Operating System that was developed for communication devices and sensors to provide support for efficient modularity and concurrency-intensive operations. The TinyOs operating system was developed within the last four years. This research is essential due to an increasing use of sensor networks and communication. The missing link in networking research is an overall system architecture and a methodology for systematic advance. The TinyOS operating system provides this missing piece.

History of TinyOS

DARPA- Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency proposed the smart dust concept four years ago. TinyOS was created to facilitate the self-organizing of Motes into sensor networks. DARPA has historically funded many application areas for the military, which have eventually ended up becoming widely used in civilian technology, with the Internet being the most famous. Since the Motes are so tiny, usually with the memory measured in mere hundreds or thousands of bytes compared to some personal computers that have 512 MB of memory, the need for a tiny operating system was great. TinyOS became the framework for building up the operating system capabilities needed for the sensor network-the networking capabilities, localization and support for applications.

What is TinyOS?

The TinyOS is an event-based operating system environment, which is designed for use with embedded networked sensors. The design helps to support the concurrency intensive operations required by networked sensors while allowing minimum hardware requirements.
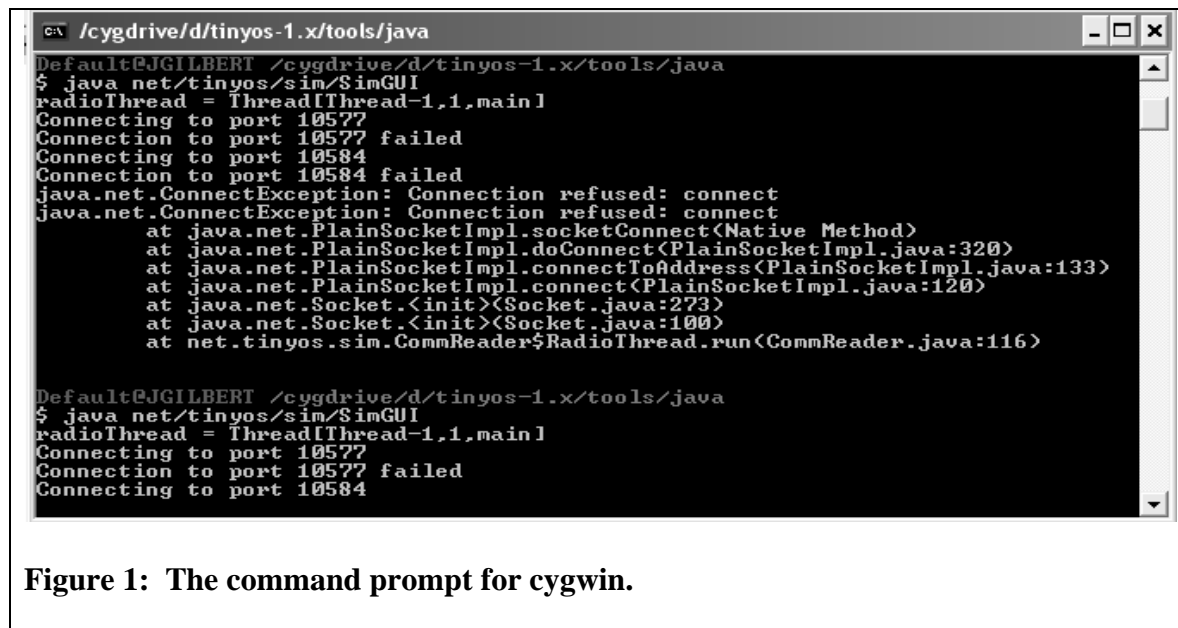
TinyOS includes radio messaging, message hopping from one mote to another, low power modes, and sensor measurements and signal processing. TinyOS has a mote simulator named TOSSIM that a compiles directly from TinyOS code and simulate the TinyOS network stack at the bit level. It also scales to thousands of nodes. TOSSIM allows the user to use the same tools as in real world networking.

NIDO is a simulator, which is intended to simulate the TinyOS operating behavior on a personal computer. NIDO is capable of compiling an application directly from TinyOS code. To build an application, all a user has to do is type "make pc" in the directory of the desired code on the command line. This application is capable of simulating multiple versions of a desired program at the same time. In fact, some sources suggest that the system can successfully simulate a network of one thousand motes. To simulate networks such as this supposed one, NIDO provides a simulated network stack as TinyOS would, down to its bit granularity. This enables the simulator to handle packets in nearly the exact way in which the mote would, thus allowing for the testing of networking protocols at layer two and above. The ability to simulate protocols is a useful feature; however, in order to utilize this feature it is important to be able to simulate arriving and departing networking transitions. NIDO allows very limited options for the simulated communication of nodes. Simulated nodes may transmit outgoing packages by opening up a connection-oriented socket server and sending packets out of this connection whether it has any listeners or not. One would suspect that this was done in order to establish commutation between an outgoing transmitter and a simulated application needing input from this device. This idea is supported by the documentation of the NIDO simulator, stating that it is capable of receiving real-time messages through a predestinated port. Messages that are sent with message times prior to the arrival time are supposed to be inserted into the program nearly instantaneously, while those with latter arrival times are to be placed on the stack for later

simulation. Unfortunately, the documentation proved to be improvable, as the group was unable to make use of this feature whether using the included software, downloaded software, or edited versions of software.   However, NIDO was of some use in its primary function, the ability to debug the code for the embedded device. Probably the most important advantage that NIDO has is its debugging ability. The main reason that NIDO was developed was to allow users to debug code prior to loading the actual mote, instead of beginning a tedious cycle of debugging a device with limited feedback capabilities. NIDO has many useful debugging features, allowing the user the capabilities of observing the internal data, which would be virtually inaccessible otherwise. The inner working of the TinyOS system can be monitored by the user via real-time information in the form of configurable text output. The application has a small library of debugging commands that, when activated, display useful information about the simulation real time. What is more impressive about NIDO is that the debugger choice may be switched easily without unnecessary recompilation of the code. By setting a variable, DBG, to include certain variables, it is possible to output various forms of data useful for the determination of performance of the device

SimGUI is a TinyOS message receiver/transmitter written in java and included in the distribution of TinyOS-1.0. This program functions extremely well in its ability to display the hex code of outgoing messages. Originally, the device was intended by the creators of NIDO to also be capable of reading packages from a file and transmitting them to a running simulation. The group was not successful in utilizing this feature. Modifications to the SimGUI source code, to allow for simultaneous transmission of captured packages to the read-time port, were also made but were unable to establish verified communication between simulations.

Cygwin is a UNIX environment created to run in Windows. It provides the windows user the resources needed to employ development devises meant to run on UNIX. The environment is capable of handling both Win32 APIs and the Cygwin APIs. Utilizing this Cygwin ability, it is possible to port programs native to the UNIX operating system to windows without many changes needed to the original source of the code. One of the main reasons this program was needed was its capacity to deal with PERL scripts required to run some to the development tools. **Figure 1** below displays a copy of the command prompt using Cygwin.

```
/cygdrive/d/tinyos-1.x/tools/java                              _ □ ×
Default@JGILBERT /cygdrive/d/tinyos-1.x/tools/java
$ java net/tinyos/sim/SimGUI
radioThread = Thread[Thread-1,1,main]
Connecting to port 10577
Connection to port 10577 failed
Connecting to port 10584
Connection to port 10584 failed
java.net.ConnectException: Connection refused: connect
java.net.ConnectException: Connection refused: connect
        at java.net.PlainSocketImpl.socketConnect(Native Method)
        at java.net.PlainSocketImpl.doConnect(PlainSocketImpl.java:320)
        at java.net.PlainSocketImpl.connectToAddress(PlainSocketImpl.java:133)
        at java.net.PlainSocketImpl.connect(PlainSocketImpl.java:120)
        at java.net.Socket.<init>(Socket.java:273)
        at java.net.Socket.<init>(Socket.java:100)
        at net.tinyos.sim.CommReader$RadioThread.run(CommReader.java:116)


Default@JGILBERT /cygdrive/d/tinyos-1.x/tools/java
$ java net/tinyos/sim/SimGUI
radioThread = Thread[Thread-1,1,main]
Connecting to port 10577
Connection to port 10577 failed
Connecting to port 10584
```

Figure 1: The command prompt for cygwin.

Practical Uses

Military: The Smart – Dust concept, the idea to sprinkle thousands of tiny wireless sensors on a battlefield to monitor enemy movements without alerting the enemy to their presence and using TinyOS to collect the raw data and transmitting to a central command, was the first use of TinyOS and the reason that it was created. This technology would allow soldiers to "see around corners" and to sense the threat of chemical and biological weapons long before they were close enough to be harmed.

Environmental: Another important use of TinyOS is the use of the sensor networks for seismic monitoring. UCLA will use the networks and embed them within the buildings and grounds of UCLA and the information will be used to aid in designing earthquake-resistant buildings and assessing earthquake damage.

Forest fire detection is another environmental use that will be very beneficial. Each node is equipped with sensors that are required to perform the task of forest fire detection. Such sensors may include those that detect heat - for example, thermal and infrared sensors. Since each wireless sensor node is aware of its exact location, it can transmit precise details of fire outbreaks to end-users before it has spread uncontrollably. Because sensor nodes may be left unattended for long periods, they may also be equipped with power generating units such as solar cells.

Health: Research has begun to use the networks to provide health care monitoring for the elderly while allowing them more freedom to move about.

Associated Hardware/Tools

For this research, the MIB500CA programming board was used, which has an on-board regulator that will accept 5 to 15 Volts DC and supply a regulated 3 Volts to the MICA. The parallel port that you see on this side is used to program the MICA Motes via the programming board using TinyOS

The latest version of the MICA Mote was used in this research, the MICA2, which has a 4 Mega bit serial FLASH for storing data, measurements, and other user-defined information and supports over 100,000 measurement readings. TinyOS supports a micro file system that runs on top of this FLASH component.

UC-Berkeley, where the original MICA Motes and TinyOS were developed, contracted with Crossbow Technology Inc. to build several Motes for testing.

Conclusion

The research has shown that TinyOS is a very important aspect in the advancing of wireless sensor tracking networks. TinyOS is an operating system that is also important in programming and developing tracking networks. The funding of this development is supported by one of the top researching departments in the nation that has success in putting technology to the forefront, DARPA. The many uses for TinyOS, ranging from health care to forest fire detection, demonstrate the need for further research and the importance of TinyOS. The vast areas of life that this technology will reach have just begun and I am happy that I was able to be a part of it.

APPENDIX A: Conducting the Demo to Send and Receive Messages

This is done depending on which directory the TinyOS software is located. For this example, the software is located on the D drive.

Step 1: Open two Cygwin prompt windows.

Step 2: Change directory in both windows to the TinyOS directory

    cd /cygdrive/d/tinyos-1.x

Step 3: In the first terminal, change to the CntToLedsAndRfm directory

    cd /apps/CntToLedsAndRfm

Step 4: Use the NIDO simulator in order to build the application by typing

    make pc

Step 5: Still in the first terminal, simulate 4 Motes by typing
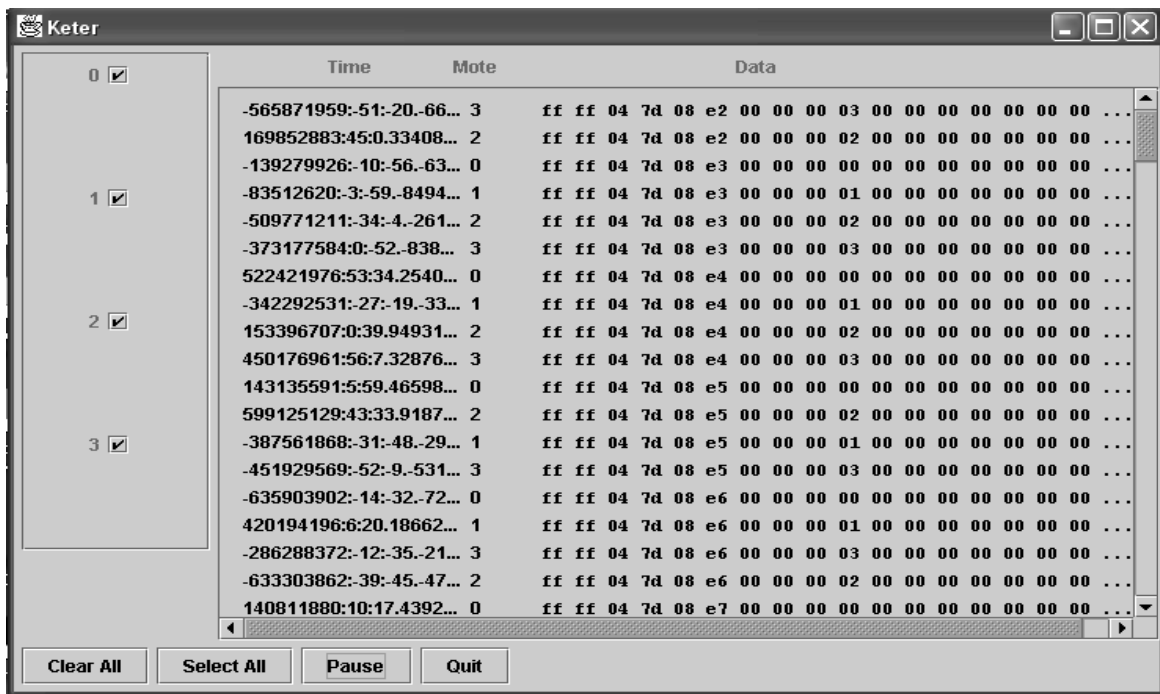
build/pc/main 4

Step 6: In the second terminal, change to the java directory

cd tools/java

Step 7: In the second terminal, to display the messages using SimGUI

java net/tinyos/sim/SimGUI

After typing each command, make sure you hit **ENTER**. After finishing these 7 steps, the Keter display screen will be displayed. The picture below shows the display.

Perceptions of Rape

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Abstract

Rape has been viewed as a violent act toward an individual who is powerless to prevent it. Although much progress has been made in understanding the role of victims in rape, victim blaming is still common particularly in cases of male-on-male rape. The current study compared male and female perceptions of victim responsibility, pleasure, and trauma in rape cases involving males and females as victims and perpetrators. The college student sample most likely assigned responsibility to male perpetrators, and some indicated that male victims were also responsible. Significantly more male than female participants attributed responsibility for rape to male victims.

Perceptions of Rape

Chris, a sophomore in college, began walking home from a fraternity party that was a couple of blocks from her apartment. She realized that it was getting pretty late and she wanted to go home early so she could get enough rest for her biology exam the next day. She was by herself, and she did not tell any of her friends that she left. Finally, Chris reached the front door of her apartment. Chris unlocked the door and walked in, but she forgot to lock the door behind her. A man, who had been watching her as she walked from the party, followed her home. He walked in behind her, locked the door, and raped Chris. Who is to blame for this rape crime? Is it possible that it could be both Chris' and the perpetrator's fault? Would your perception change if Chris were male?

In 2001, there were 249,000 victims of rape, attempted rape or sexual assault. Out of the 249,000 victims, 102,000 were sexually assaulted, 63 were victims of attempted rape, and 84,000 were raped. Approximately 91% of rape victims were female, compared to only 9% males (U. S. Dept. of Justice, n.d.). Depending on an individual's perception, culture, authority, or belief there are many different views of rape. For example, some evolutionary theorists believe that

rape is just another reproductive technique favored by natural selection. The whole purpose and goal of the act is "to be fruitful and multiply" (Ehrenreich, 2000). Historically, rape has been a common practice in times of war, and military authorities usually ignored the issue and looked the other way. Rape is used as a way to terrorize women and girls of an opposing country to reduce resistance (Gordan, Solomon, & Harris, 2000).

Distinctions have been made between women and men in stranger and acquaintance rape in recent studies. In American society, men are considered to be the sexual aggressors and women are recipients of aggression (Weis & Borges, 1973). It is the duty of a woman to be sexually appealing without seeming sexually available. So, ultimately, women are supposedly in control of any sexual activity that they experience (Lewin,1985). Unfortunately, some women experience sexual advances from men so often that they consider acquaintance rape less important than stranger rape. Women feel that the victim is just as responsible in acquaintance rape (Koss, 1985). Surprisingly, men view stranger rape similarly. Men are more likely to blame a female victim involved in a stranger rape, because based on society's stereotype, women should only be sexy within legitimate relationships. In other words, it's the woman's responsibility to dress and behave appropriately to avoid sexual aggression.

A rape involving a wife or girlfriend has a tremendous impact upon the mind of the husband or boyfriend. A concern is whether or not the husband or boyfriend of a rape victim views the incident primarily as sex or as violence. Could it be possible that men view the rape as a result of their wife's or girlfriend's bad behavior, or is it just an violent act that was inflicted upon her? A "traditional" view is that the husband of the victim is emotionally and mentally scarred because he feels that his wife is now of lesser value because of what she experienced (Holmstrom & Burgess, 1979). A "modern" view is that the woman is hurt as an individual and the husband will do all that he can to be there for her. Slightly more than half of

the husbands/boyfriends in Holmstrom and Burgess's study went with the modern view and focused on consoling the woman (victim). They were more concerned about the health and well being of their wife or girlfriend regardless of their own priorities. Surprisingly, some husbands sided with the "traditional" view and felt betrayed, ashamed, and repulsed. They blamed the wife for the incident. One husband felt that it was his wife's fault because she could have resisted the perpetrator more, and another husband blamed his wife for the rape because he felt that it resulted from the location of her job (Holmstrom & Burgess, 1979).

One study also revealed that a victim's physical attractiveness may affect the perceptions about victim responsibility. It was discovered that people are most likely to be biased against an attractive victim because they feel an attractive victim has an advantage over an unattractive suspect. Supposedly, very attractive women are more likely to be victims of rape because they unconsciously arouse men until they no longer can control themselves (Jacobson & Popovich, 1983).

Male victims are usually held somewhat responsible for being assaulted (Whatley & Riggio, 1993). Past surveys of college students have shown that a significant proportion of males were pressured into sex (Struckman-Johnson, 1988). A study in England reported that 25% of their participants had been exposed to nonconsensual sex during some time in their lives (Hickson, Davies, Hunt, Weatherburn, McManus, & Coxon, 1994). Nevertheless, these findings do not support the stereotype that homosexuals usually commit male sexual assault. In a study done by Mitchell, Hirschman and Hall (1999), two scenarios were used to study the perceptions that people have about male rape. One scenario involved a homosexual rape and the other described a heterosexual rape by a female. The participants read either a scenario with a heterosexual victim or a homosexual victim, but they did not receive both. The results of this study showed that male participants showed less sympathy for the victim. The research in this

study suggested that males blame the victims in male rape more, and perceive the victim as experiencing pleasure.

The purpose of the current study is to investigate the different perceptions people have about rape victims and/or cases. Who do people think is more responsible for the crime, the victim or the perpetrator? Does it matter if it is a heterosexual or homosexual rape? The current study draws on Mitchell, Hirschman, and Hall's (1999) research by using similar scenarios with a few key differences. All participants will evaluate the outcomes of both scenarios. The scenarios describe two cases of stranger rape, one involving a female victim and male perpetrator, the other involving a male victim and male perpetrator. The perceptions of male and female respondents will be compared. Additional questions will be posed to check the consistency of personal opinions of rape prevalence and responses to the scenarios.

Methods

Instrument: The questionnaire consisted of 17 questions and two scenarios. In order to get an idea of each participant's viewpoint, the beginning of the questionnaire posed general questions about rape. After the general questions, two scenarios were given: one scenario described a female involved in a stranger rape, and the other involved a male rape victim. For both scenarios the same three questions were given for each. (See appendix for a copy of the questionnaire.)

Procedures: Before conducting the research, IRB approval was obtained. The participants were recruited by contacting professors for their permission to use students in their classes. Students were surveyed in two classes. In order to recruit additional males, participants were recruited at an on-campus recreation facility. All participants completed the same questionnaire, and all participants were anonymous.

Participants: The participants were undergraduates who attended a southeastern university. Out of the 92 participants who completed the questionnaire, 47 were male and 46 were female. The age range was 18-30, and the mean age of participants was 22.1. Ninety-five percent of the participants labeled themselves heterosexual, 3.2% were bisexual, and 1.1% was lesbian.

Findings

Questions were posed to respondents that asked who is most likely to be raped or commit rape. Eighty-eight percent of the sample said females were most likely to be raped, yet 10% said both were most likely to be raped. Males were most likely to commit rape according to 92% of the sample, whereas 6% said both males and females were most likely to perpetrate rape. Forty-eight percent knew someone who had been raped and 5% had been raped themselves. Questions 6-9 asked who is responsible for rape using male and female victims and perpetrators. The results for these questions are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Percentage of Responses to Questions 6-9 *"Who is responsible for a rape?"*

	Perpetrator	Victim	Both	Neither
Man on Woman	90	0	6	2
Man on Man	90	0	7	1
Woman on Man	84	6	7	1
Woman on Woman	89	0	7	2

Note: One questionnaire was discarded because of missing data. Percentages may not equal 100 due to rounding

Male and female responses were compared to determine if there were significant gender differences in perceptions of rape responsibility. Responses indicating "both" or "neither" victims were responsible in response to questions 6, 7, 8, and 9 were removed from these

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analyses. All respondents agreed that if a man rapes a woman, the man is responsible; if a man rapes a man, the perpetrator is responsible; and if a woman rapes a woman, the perpetrator is to blame. However, there was a significant difference in response to question 8: a woman rapes a man. Significantly more male than female respondents indicated that the male victim was responsible for the rape ($x^2=2.769$, p<.10).

In response to the two scenarios depicting stranger rape (questions 10-15), respondents were asked three questions: was the victim responsible for the rape, did the victim receive pleasure from the rape, and was the victim traumatized? (see Table 2). In the heterosexual rape scenario, 10% of the sample stated that the victim was responsible for the rape; 1.1% said the victim received pleasure; and 94% said the victim was traumatized. In the homosexual rape scenario, 6% of the sample said the victim experienced pleasure and 96% said the victim was traumatized.

Table 2: Percentage of Responses to Questions 10-15

Scenario 1 (Female Victim)	Yes	No
Victim Responsibility	10	90
Victim Pleasure	1	98
Victim Trauma	94	5
Scenario 2 (Male Victim)	**Yes**	**No**
Victim Responsibility	6	94
Victim Pleasure	0	99
Victim Trauma	96	3

Note: One questionnaire was discarded because of missing data. Percentages may not equal 100 due to rounding

Discussion

Based on previous research, the majority of respondents will blame the perpetrator for the crime. What about the participants who don't blame the perpetrator? Some of the participants blamed the victim for the crime when a woman raped a woman or a man. Maybe they felt that in these situations the victim was more likely to prevent the incident from happening? Perhaps some people feel that a man should be able to prevent being raped based on the common stereotype that males are stronger than females. The problem is rape victims don't consider whether the perpetrator has a weapon. Weapons were not mentioned in this survey, but it could be a consideration in determining responsibility and self-protection.

The findings of this survey may reflect politically correct attitudes about rape. In the last few decades, the media has changed public opinion about rape and removed the stigma of victim responsibility. Particularly in cases of stranger rape similar to those included in the current study, responsibility is usually placed on the perpetrator. Less clear are the boundaries between consensual sex and rape in the case of acquaintance or date rape. An interesting contradiction surfaced in the current study's findings. In response to question #6, no participants stated that if a man rapes a woman, the woman is responsible for the rape. However, 10% (n=9) of the sample responded that the woman victim in the first scenario was responsible for the rape (question 10). Perhaps participants drew upon the more specific details provided in the scenario to assess victim responsibility. This indicates that identifying personal attitudes about rape may seem clear cut in response to straightforward yet simple questions, but knowing the details of a rape may sway public opinion.

Like Mitchell, Hirschman, and Hall's (1999) study, gender was significantly associated with the ratings of victim responsibility. In our study, more male than female respondents indicated that the male victim was responsible for the rape. Victim sexual orientation was not

significant. Unlike Mitchell, Hirschman, and Hall's study, both victim pleasure and victim trauma were not significantly associated with the gender and the sexual orientation of the victim.

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Appendix

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please DO NOT put your name or any identifying information on this questionnaire. If necessary, you may choose to withdraw your participation at any time.

Please respond to all questions TRUTHFULLY.
1. Gender: Male or Female
2. Age____
3. What is your sexual orientation? ___Heterosexual ___Gay ___Lesbian ___Bisexual ___Unsure/Don't Know
4. Who do you think is most likely to be raped? ___Male ___Female ___Both
5. Who do you think is most likely to commit rape? ___Male ___Female ___Both
6. If a man rapes a woman, who is responsible for the rape? ___man ___woman ___both ___neither
7. If a man rapes a man, who is responsible for the rape? ___man(victim) ___man(perpetrator) ___both ___neither
8. If a woman rapes a man, who is responsible for the rape? ___woman ___man ___both ___neither
9. If a woman rapes a woman, who is responsible for the rape? ___woman(victim) ___woman(perpetrator) ___both ___neither

Please read the following passage.

Mary was watching TV alone one evening in her basement apartment when she heard someone coming down the stairs to her front door. Mary did not have a peep hole on her door so she opened the door just enough so that she could see out without removing the chain lock. A college-aged male whom she had never seen before was at the door and he asked if he could use her phone. Mary told the man, later identified as Jason, that she would not let a stranger into her apartment but that she would make the phone call for him. At this point, Jason wedged his foot in the door and shoved against it until the chain broke. Jason grabbed Mary and became sexually aggressive. Mary tried to resist his advances. Jason then became more forceful and raped Mary.

10. Was the victim responsible for the rape? ___Yes ___No
11. Did the victim experience pleasure from the rape? ___Yes ___No
12. Was the victim traumatized from the rape? ___Yes ___No

Please read the following passage.

After work, at approximately 7pm, Jim and several of his co-workers went to a nearby restaurant to celebrate the birthday of another co-worker. They stayed at the restaurant until approximately 10:30pm. Jim walked home alone from the restaurant. In order to get to his apartment building, Jim cut through a small park. While walking through the park, Jim was grabbed by a large man approximately 6'2'', 250lbs and dragged into an obscured area between bushes and a row of trees. The man forced Jim face down in the dirt, removed Jim's

pants, and anally penetrated him. He then ran away. Jim went home and called the police. When they arrived, they took Jim to the hospital for an examination and to obtain physical evidence.

13. Was the victim responsible for the rape? ___Yes ___No
14. Did the victim experience pleasure from the rape? ___Yes ___No
15. Was the victim traumatized from the rape? ___Yes ___No
16. Do you know someone that has been raped? ___Yes ___No
17. Have you been raped? ___Yes ___No

Low Income Rural Women and Non-Compliance to Recommended Exams

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Abstract

The purpose of this research is to gain an understanding of what barriers keep some low-income women from getting mammograms and Pap smears. It is understood that women who do not get the examinations are more likely to be disposed to invasive surgery and to suffer greater mortality from cancer and sexually transmitted diseases. Two focus group sessions were conducted to obtain information. The two groups consisted of nine women each, ages 35 and older. The interviewer guided the discussions. The interviews were audio taped and then transcribed and coded for appropriate themes. The information gained will assist health professionals in the development of appropriate educational strategies to encourage greater compliance with medical recommendations. It will also increase the body of research knowledge on low income, rural women and issues pertaining to medical examinations.

Introduction

Mammography and Pap smear screenings are being promoted as the most effective tools in the detection of breast and cervical cancers among women in the United States. Breast cancer ranks number two as the leading cause of cancer death in women (Ahmed, Fort, Micah, & Belays, 2001). In 1998 it was estimated that approximately 180,000 American women would be diagnosed with the disease that year and that an estimated 44,000 would die from it (Metsch, et al., 1998). Reducing the mortality rate from breast cancer has become one of the main goals of the health care system (Alberg & Singh, 2001). The recommendation that women over the age of 50 be screened yearly to detect breast tumors in their early stages has generally been accepted (Naderi & Bahrampoor, 2002). As to what age asymptomatic women in their 40's should begin mammography screening had been debated by The American Cancer Society and the National Cancer Institute, but the two organizations have since come to a consensus. Their recommendation now is that women in their 40's should get a mammogram every one to two

years, with discretion being left up to the woman after consultation with her doctor. (Metsch et al.).

Whereas breast cancer usually presents itself later in life (Humphrey, Helfand, Chan, & Woolf, 2002), cervical cancer generally manifests itself during middle age. In 1999, it was estimated that 12,800 American women would have been diagnosed with cervical cancer and that 4,800 would die from it (Mays et al., 2000). In the United States, the Pap smear is hailed as a preventive success against cervical cancer. Since its regular use, not only has the incidence of cervical cancer decreased, but the related death rate has been reduced by 75% (Ball and Madden, 2003, Mays et. al.). The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists recommend that women have their first Pap smear at the age of 18, or at the time they become sexually active. It also states, along with many other national medical organizations, that after three successive normal screenings, the frequency can, on advice of the woman's doctor, be reduced to every 2-3 years. As to what age a woman should discontinue the Pap smear, the U. S. Preventive Services Task Force recommends women who have had normal screenings to discontinue screening at age 65. The American Cancer Society recommends discontinuing at age 70 (Ball & Madden, 2003).

In spite of the widespread media campaigns promoting mammograms and Pap smears, and the efforts being made to make the examinations more accessible to women, these services are still under used (Ahmed et al., 2001). To gain more insight into possible reasons for the underuse, this study will focus on two groups of low income, rural women and will seek to ascertain their views and knowledge on mammograms and Pap smears and what barriers, if any, have prevented them from getting these routine examinations. The hypotheses are that low-income, rural women do not have the financial resources to pay for the examinations and they do not know about free or low-cost services in their community. The information gained from this study will assist health professionals in the development of appropriate educational strategies to

encourage greater compliance with medical recommendations. It will also increase the body of research knowledge on low income, rural women and issues pertaining to medical examinations.

Review of Literature

Several studies have been conducted to examine the role that various factors may play in the decision and/or ability of a woman to comply with screening recommendations. These studies have shown that women generally view particular factors as being positive or negative and that it is the presence and higher degree of these positive factors which motivates and leads them to compliance.

The study by Suter and Elmore (1998) looked at facility types. They sought to find the type of mammography facility a woman is most likely to use. The facilities in their study included three mobile sites, three rural-fixed sites, and three urban-fixed sites. Women visiting these facilities were asked to complete a survey and return it by mail. The results showed that women who had referred themselves were more likely to use mobile sites. The mobile facilities serve the purpose of increasing accessibility especially to underserved groups of women. Services are provided at a reduced cost and appointment scheduling and location of the facility make for more convenience than fixed-site facilities (Suter & Elmore).

Research by Ahmed et al., (2001) studied service delivery. They looked at the delivery of services as a way the heath care system could improve mammography screening rates for underserved women. Through eight focus groups sessions consisting of 25 underserved, but compliant women, the study sought to determine the empowering factors that helped these women to overcome barriers and still obtain regular mammograms. The women were asked three questions. In answer to the question of what helps them to get mammograms, being referred by the physician, having a good physician-patient relationship, and having a female physician were stated as being positive influences.

Metsch, et al., (1998 looked at the information source. They wanted to know how the source of information influenced women to get mammograms. A telephone survey was conducted among a community of 999 black, white, and Hispanic women in Dade County Florida. Of all the sources of information that were listed on the survey, the media was the most commonly reported source followed by physicians and pamphlets. Those women who said that physicians were the source of information were more likely to have had a recent examination (Metsch et. al.).

Valanis et al. (2002) considered the method of communication as a factor influencing whether or not a woman will obtain a mammogram and/or a Pap smear. In their study, 510 HMO women were divided into four groups. The outreach group received a tailored generic motivational letter promoting health screening followed by a similarly pitched phone call six months later. The in-reach group was intercepted and received a tailored motivational interview at the clinic immediately after seeing their primary provider. The combined group received all three of the above interventions and the usual care group received only the usual mammogram/Pap smear reminder sent to all of the women HMO members. Upon follow-up, the outreach group had screened 39%, the in-reach group 26%, the combined group 32%, and the usual care group 19%. The researchers concluded that a tailored letter/telephone intervention appears to be more effective at screening women at the age of 65-69 than one that is office based partly because most of the women did not have office clinic visits to receive the intervention.

Mays, et al. (2000) looked at knowledge and perceptions. They focused their research on assessing what women knew and thought about Pap smears, genital warts, cervical cancer, and the Human Papillomavirus (HPV). From interviews taken from 40 women recruited in Chicago and Indianapolis health clinics, it was determined that there existed a lack of knowledge about the purpose of Pap smears and misconceptions about what a positive or negative result indicates.

Many of the women had only a vague idea of the purpose of Pap smears, but the researchers concluded that if women were more knowledgeable about prevention and screening practices, they may play a more active role in personal health care.

In 1990 the Breast and Cervical Cancer Mortality Act was enacted to address the issue of low-income women's inability to access and pay for mammogram and Pap smear screenings. To increase screening rates, funds were allocated to the states to institute low-cost programs through local health departments (Klassen et al., 2002). In their research, Klassen et. al. (2002) evaluated a no-cost breast cancer screening program. In Baltimore, Maryland, 288 women ages 50 and older who attended a no-cost program at John Hopkins Hospital were recruited. These women were paired with a friend or neighbor within five years of their age who may have received a mammogram, but not through a no-cost program. Each participant was asked to complete a 1½ hour home survey about cancer, health, and other related topics. The results showed that the women in the free program had been more poorly screened prior to the John Hopkins program, that their annual income was less than $10,000, that they were more likely to have had more children than their paired mate, and that they were less likely to have had insurance. Researchers concluded that low-cost programs do reach some low-income women who otherwise may not receive any screening, but they recommend that the program's partner with all existing health care influences in the community, including primary care providers, related feedback about patient screening results and eligibility for rescreening. This, they said, would be a big step in the direction leading toward the goal of regular screenings.

Methods

A qualitative method was selected because it was believed to be more effective in obtaining information that would reflect the perceptions of the participants as well as gauge their depth of knowledge of the subject areas.

Sample

Participants for the current study were drawn from a convenience sample of two church congregations in North Bryan County, Georgia. These churches were chosen based on their locations at opposite ends of the county. Prescreening was not administered. Participants were accepted based entirely on their sex, age, income level, and county of residence.

North Bryan County, population approximately 11,000, was chosen based on its rural location, low economic base, and designation as an underserved area. The area is serviced by a small health center employing one doctor and by a county health department. The heath department administers several programs for low- income women and children including the Breast Test and More Program, which provides free mammogram and Pap smear screenings and follow-up consultation to women who meet the program's qualifications.

Procedure

The purpose of the research and the method to be used to conduct the research were explained to church officials. Written permission to use the churches' facilities and to conduct research on site was obtained. After receiving approval of the project from the university's Internal Review Board, participant recruitment letters explaining purpose of research, eligibility of participants, and contact information were sent to each church secretary. As an incentive to participate, those eligible were offered free refreshments and a gift bag of complementary health and beauty products. Eligible participants responding to the advertisements were further instructed as to time and place of the focus group session to attend. The two sessions were held

on separate nights. On the nights of the sessions, participants were reminded of the purpose of the study, given instructions, and asked to read and sign informed consent forms. Participants were then given personal demographic questionnaires to complete. After completing questionnaires, the participants were then given a list of questions pertaining to mammograms and breast cancer and a second list pertaining to Pap smears and cervical cancer to discuss. Discussions were initiated by the researcher through self-revelation of personal information. This was deemed necessary to create an open and relaxed atmosphere in which the women could express themselves without shame or reservation. The sessions were audio taped, transcribed, and coded for appropriate themes by the researcher.

Results

Table 1 contains the demographics for the participants in the focus group sessions. There were a total of 18 women. All of the women were African American, aged 35 and older, and over half were in the age range of 40-59. A little over 44% were married and 27% were divorced. At least a ninth grade education had been completed by all of the women and 33% had had some college. With the exception of one participant who declined to reveal income, all of the women were low income (as determined by questions pertaining to education and annual income on the demographics portion of the questionnaire) with annual income for 66% being less than $15,000. A little over 83% had heard of the Breast Test & More free screening program and 39% were currently enrolled in the program.

Of the 18 women, 14 had either already received examinations or had appointments scheduled for later in the year. Of the four non-compliant women, two stated that they had not gotten examinations because their doctors had not recommended them to do so, one stated that her work schedule did not allow the time, and one stated that she just didn't know how to go about getting the examinations.

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Not having sufficient income and not knowing about free services in the community were the test hypotheses for this study. The results of this study do not fully support the hypotheses because the inability to pay was mentioned as a reason for not getting mammograms and Pap smears. This factor seemed to have only a minimum influence on the ability to comply. This was evidenced by the very short discussion that was devoted to income. Also, none of the women who said that they had not had an initial or recent mammogram attributed insufficient income as their personal reason for not getting the exam. Not knowing about free services was not heavily supported in that 15 of the 18 women not only knew, but also were well informed about the county's free screening program at the local health department and 7 of these women were current enrollees. Only three of the women had not heard of the free program.

Table 2 lists factors given by the women as reasons they or some other women do not get mammograms. Though most thought that these were legitimate reasons, they still believed that if a woman really wanted the examination, then there was a way for her to receive it. As for the doctor not making the recommendation, most of the women strongly believed that, since the doctor is more knowledgeable, the recommendation should be his responsibility because some women may not know when and where to get the examination.

Conclusion

Whereas income and knowledge are factors influencing the ability of women to comply with doctors' screening recommendations, they may not necessarily be major barriers. For some women, the role that their primary healthcare provider plays in the upkeep of their health pretty much determines their compliance. The healthcare provider who shows genuine concern and respect and who is prudent in giving advice and guidance generally develops a mutual trust with his patient. Therefore, the patient is more likely to accept and adhere to his recommendation of the examinations.

Table 1: Demographics of (18) Women Participating in Focus Groups

	n	%
Race		
Black	18	100
White	0	0
Other	0	0
Age		
30-39	3	16
40-49	6	33.3
50-59	5	27.8
60-69	3	16.7
70-79	0	0
80+	1	5.6
Marital Status		
Single	2	11.1
Married	8	44.4
Divorced	5	27.8
Widowed	1	5.6
Living with someone	2	11.1
Education		
< 9th grade	0	0
9-11th grade	8	44.4
12 / GED	4	22.2
Some college (no degree)	3	16.7
2 year college degree +	3	16.7
Income		
None	2	11.1
< 10,000	7	38.9
10-14,999	5	27.8
15-24,999	3	16.7
Won't say	1	5.6
Heard of Breast Test & More		
Yes	15	83.3
No	3	16.7
Currently enrolled		
Yes	7	38.9
No	11	61.1

Table 2: Factors Preventing You and Other Women From Getting A Mammogram?

Doctor did not refer me
No regular doctor visits after child births
Can't afford to pay
Fear of what may be found
Pain (personal experience or hearing experience of someone else)
Just don't know how to go about doing it
Work schedule

Recommendation

Public programs that offer free or reduced-cost screening services should be diligent in promoting awareness. Every effort should be made to insure that the program is visible and approachable in the affected community. An effective media campaign should be instituted to insure adequate exposure of the program within the targeted population.

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An Investigation of Gender Stereotyping Based on a Content Analysis of BET Commercials

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Abstract

Past studies have examined how the media may influence audience perceptions of various groups in the areas of race and gender. Of particular interest is programming which is aimed toward certain segments, such as Black Entertainment Television's (BET) video program slots, targeted especially at young African-American adults. The current study investigates gender stereotyping in a sample of BET commercials, taking into account that perceptions and expectations of women's roles in society may be affected by the repetitive images and impressions of women offered in these ads. In consideration of this assumption, a sample of advertisements aired during video shows within a one-week period was analyzed with regard to issues related to gender and race. Results provide evidence that women have made significant progress in at least appearing as dominant figures in commercials yet are still substantially portrayed in stereotypical roles. Of particular interest are women of African-American descent who were found to represent three-fourths of the dominant figures represented in advertisements of African-American orientation.

An Investigation of Gender Stereotyping Based on a Content Analysis of BET Commercials

It has been over twenty years since Black Entertainment Television (BET) was launched as a major television network in 1979. Founder and CEO, Robert Johnson, set forth a vision to provide a cable network that would serve the African-American community and be a platform for African-American centered entertainment, creativity and entrepreneurship (Leigh 2000). Johnson's network played a leading role in providing this community with entertainment suited to satisfy this audience. In spite of the success of BET's alternative offerings, the network

suffered increasing scrutiny and dislike from its viewers and employees alike who complained of the network's poor representation of entertainment "designed for" African-Americans (Samuel 1999). In response to these allegations, many researchers have sought to demystify actual and potential issues involved with BET's network and most importantly, its programming. The present study seeks to investigate advertisements shown during hours of programming in which adolescents and young adults aged 18-24 would most likely view BET programming. The focus will be on assessing subtle rituals displayed, which might influence or frame views of gender and race, especially on a potentially impressionable audience.

Advertising, though viewed only as one form of media, creates a stronger presence in socialization than one could image. Consistently viewing characteristics of social norms can subliminally affect any viewer. Gender role portrayals in particular not only form how individuals assess and create social reality, but also instill perceptions of male-female differences on almost every aspect of human culture (Berkowitz, Duffy, Lafky & Steinmaus, 1996, 379.) Even minimal exposure to an image affects the audience's perceptions of social reality as soon as immediately afterwards (Berkowitz, Duffy, Lafky & Steinmaus, 1996). Because that television has such a mass audience and provides billions of messages and images daily, the impact of social practices implied through commercials is just as influential as a television show. Commercials are repeated more often than any other form of programming; therefore, the probability of their messages leaving impressions is certainly higher than that of a program shown maybe only once or twice a season. Unlike the past offerings, this study seeks to investigate the potential underlying socialization effects of gender and racial stereotyping presented in BET commercials.

Review of Literature

Gender stereotyping in the media has been examined from a variety of perspectives. In as early as the 1970s, coding was completed to interpret the characteristics of adult male and female models as represented in randomly selected television commercials (McArthur & Resko, 1975). This study found that although women represent more than 50 percent of the population and make over seventy percent of all purchases, they represent only forty-three percent of the models in the coded commercials. Men were the central characters of most of the television advertisements and were more likely to possess skills and expertise, present a valid argument and were more likely to gain career or social advancement than their female counterparts during this era (McArthur & Resko, 1975).

Twenty years later McLeod and Signorielli presented a similar study on commercials from the cable television network Music Television (MTV). Like McArthur and Resko, this research found that men were still dominant in commercials. In addition, specific hypotheses were suggested about gender portrayals as well as gender stereotyping. The study presented five hypotheses all of which were supported. For example, women in commercials were found to have very fit or beautiful bodies and to be wearing sexy or skimpy clothing (McLeod & Signorielli, 1994). Men appeared more often than women in commercials, and when there was only one gender represented in a commercial, the character was male. In addition, the study recorded that personal products, like shampoo or healthcare, were the only type of commercial to have female as opposed to male users (McLeod and Signorielli, 1994.)

Similar studies examining magazine ads have recorded the same phenomenon. Stephenson and Stover in 1997 looked at the representation of women in business-related ads to determine if sex inequality in the workforce is reflected, reinforced and validated by the advertising industry (Stephenson and Stover, 1997, p.255). Prior to the initial investigation, they

hypothesized that the women in these advertisements would reflect, reinforce, and validate equality in the workplace. Results found that inequality in the workplace portrayed in advertisements still exists. Just as in earlier studies, males were found to enforce messages and play dominant roles.

A similar study provided by Batizkow and Furnham, investigates gender stereotyping in French and Danish television. The purpose of this study is based on the premise that television advertisements are male dominated, not only as proven in the American market, but on an international level as well. More specifically, this purpose was to compare advertisements in French television to those in Danish television and prove that there will be greater gender stereotyping in French television advertisements and less in Danish television advertisements.

The findings of this study were similar to other studies supporting that notion that males were the dominant figures in most advertisements and there were many more male voice-overs compared to female voice-overs. Surprisingly enough, Batizkow and Furnham also found the number of female voice-overs is increasing. The hypothesis which states that there would be more gender stereotyping in French television advertisements than Danish television advertisements was supported.

A study reported in 2000 considered the continuation of race-gender stereotypes in advertising images by the way of a product's suggestive messages and specifically, connotations of higher or lower social status and promises of intangible social rewards (Thomas & Treiber, 2000.) Over 1,700 advertisements in magazines geared toward different audiences of race and gender were examined, and most advertisements were found to make use of positive images of both women and men. When an ad was aimed at women, research found that advertisers used images that represented youth and fashion instead of real-life or business situations.

A study of gender advertisements, conducted by sociologist Erving Goffman, provides a study of visual imagery in American advertisements. From his research the theory of Framing and Frame analysis originates (Goffman, 1979). This is the theory upon which the present study is based.

Goffman's idea of frame analysis is best described as a systematic account of how one uses expectations to make sense of everyday life and the people in them (Baran and Davis, 2000). "Goffman's perspective is that advertisements do not necessarily depict how men and women actually behave, but that they are a good representation of the way we think they behave" (Courtney, and Whipple,1983, p12). For example, in his study of advertisements in 1976, Goffman found that women were almost never shown as taller than men and were more likely to be shown in recumbent positions, including lying on the floor or in a bed (Goffman,1979). From this and many other findings, "Goffman was able to conclude that advertisers do not create the ritualized portrayals they employ, but rather conventionalize what already exists in society" (Courtney and Whipple, 1983, p.13).

These studies suggest the following hypotheses, which will be examined herein:

H1: There will be greater male representation in all advertisements.

H2: Women will be coded as more attractive in most advertisements.

H3: Men will be portrayed as professionals more often than women.

H4: Of the advertisements coded as African-American in terms of racial presentation, the majority of central characters will be male.

Method

To examine gender portrayals as well as racial issues as presented in BET programming, a content analysis of BET advertisements aired during its video programming was sampled. Nine and a half BET commercials were recorded over a period of weekdays (Monday-Thursday)

during the month of June 2003 for a total of nine hours. The time periods of which the recording

took place were in the afternoon between 2 and 5 p.m., the evening from 5 and 8 p.m. and in

the late evening between 12 and 4 a.m. The time intervals were chosen because these are the

hours during which most adolescents and young adults are most likely to view video shows aired

on BET.

In sum, 93 separate commercials were coded. Repeat commercials were eliminated as

were Public Service Announcements and commercials that solicited for BET shows and shows

for other television stations. The shows coded were recorded during the afternoon, evening and

late evening hours.

Coding

All commercials in with a central figure were coded. Those that included animated

characters, animals, or no one at all were not included in the final analysis. There are two

separate units of analysis that were coded, the overall advertisement or the commercial itself and

the main character. The following characteristics of the central figure were coded: gender, race,

age, profession and appearance. The product user, if different, was also coded based on the same

characteristics. The overall advertisement was coded based on gender orientation, racial

orientation, location or background activities, and product type. The coding definitions used

herein combined operations from different studies and allow for gender, presentation style, race

and product variables.

a. *Central figures.*

The use of central figure coding was adopted from an earlier study conducted by

McArthur and Resko. The central figure of this study is explained as the

character playing the major role in the advertisement by virtue of either speaking

or having prominent visual exposure, unlike the characters in the earlier study,

which had to be either an adult male or female. As in the McAuthur and Resko study, "no more than two adults could be classified as central characters and if this character was unidentifiable, the coder was instructed to pick one figure of each gender" (McAuthur and Resko, 1975, 211).

b. *Appearance variables*.

There were three appearance variables coded as follows:

(1) Body type: Out of Shape- over weight or thin, Average Fitness - little or no focus on muscularity or the body (McLeod and Signorielli, 1994, p3), Fit- some focus on muscularity or tone and body, and Very Fit- obvious focus on muscularity and body composition.

(2) Attractiveness: Physical attractiveness was assessed on a five-point Likert Scale. The rating system starts with one (1) representing very unattractive (ugly/unappealing) and goes to five (5) representing very attractive (above average/ very appealing.) "Attractiveness was defined as the apparent physical attractiveness of the character as he/she was portrayed in the commercial" (McLeod and Signorielli, 1994, p4.)

(3) Attire: The central character or characters were assessed by the type of clothing they wore and classified into one of five categories. The categories included: Professional- business or business casual wear, Neutral- the clothing was not too revealing or inappropriate, Some Skin- a small percentage of skin was shown, Partial Nudity- A significant amount of skin was exposed in an explicit or non-explicit manner, Nudity- the character was not wearing any clothing.

c. *Gender orientation of overall advertisement.*

This portion of the coding process observed the overall gender orientation of the advertisement, suggesting that the advertisement was either centered on prominent male or female figures in number, if the advertisement predominantly consisted of males or females, or if the advertisement featured only all male or all female genders (McAuthor and Resko, 1975). The advertisement was defined as male if only males were featured. If the advertisement featured only women, it was defined as female oriented. When the ad featured men and women or a male and a female, it was classified as neutral.

d. *Racial orientation of overall advertisement.*

Racial orientation represented within each advertisement was coded as categories of predominantly African American, Caucasian, neutral or other. The coding with the label "other" included characters of Asian, Native American, Hispanic, or any other descent. If an advertisement featured only African- Americans, it was labeled as African-American. When an ad featured only Caucasians, the ad was labeled Caucasian. If an ad featured any other race, it was labeled other and or if there was more than one race, the ad was coded neutral.

e. *Product type categories.*

This category, adopted from an earlier study, placed the product represented by each commercial into different classifications based on product type (Burkholder, 2003). The list of product type categories is shown as follows: Cars/Trucks, Clothing/ Accessories, Entertainment, Food/Drink (restaurants, grocery items, etc.), Household Products (cleaning supplies, appliances, etc.), Media Products

(electronics, computers, etc.), Personal Products (feminine products, hygiene products, hair care, etc.), Other (CD's, exercise equipment, etc.)

Findings

During the frames of recorded music videos aired on BET during times of which younger audiences view programming, a total of 93 separate commercials were recorded. Of these, 11 were eliminated from the final analysis as they focused on entertainment-based products (TV shows, movies, CDs) without central characters selected to "sell" the product. Instead they contained collages of the product itself with various characters.

Central Figures:

Of the central characters identified, 33 were male and 37 were female. Of the 16 advertisements identified as African- American, 12 of them contained females as the central figure. Fifty-one ads contained Caucasian central figures, one ad contained an Asian and one ad was identified as other.

The average group age of the central figures in this study were young adults (36 of 70) followed closely by middle-aged adults (23 of 70).

The appearance variables coded shows that in terms of body type, women are most likely to be more fit and women are most likely to be coded average (see table 1).

Attractiveness for men and women resulted in women as central characters identified with a mean attractiveness rating of 4.6 with 1 being least attractive and five being most attractive. The men's mean attractiveness rating was 2.6.

Attire of the central character in this study shows men dressed more often in professional clothing than women and women more often appeared in neutral clothing (see table 2).

As recorded in past studies, there were more male voice-overs than female (Babitzkow, Furnham, & Uguccioni, 2000). Although compared to past studies, the amount of female voice-overs has significantly improved. Out of 65 commercials that included voice-overs, 31 of them were female.

Overall Ad Orientation:

In terms of gender, 40 of the advertisements were coded as neutral (included males and females) in nature. Of the remaining ads, 18 were coded as female and 16 were coded as predominantly male.

Racial orientation results showed 43 of the advertisements coded as Caucasian, 16 African-American, 15 neutral and 2 other.

The most common location for advertisements coded during this time was in the home. Food or beverage products were the most often advertised products (25:66), closely followed by products labeled as other (17:66), and personal products (12:66). The other three categories (automobiles, apparel and media products), all represented 3:66 of the products.

These results suggest partial support of the hypotheses forwarded.

Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Women were represented slightly more often than men. There were a total of 70 central figures coded in the study. Thirty-seven of the 70 figures were women, whereas men represented a close 33 of the central characters.

Hypothesis 2 was supported (see Table 1.) Attractiveness was more of a factor in commercials in which women were the central characters. More than fifty percent of the women coded as central figures were defined as more attractive or received a rating of a three or higher on a scale of 1 to 5. For the male central characters, more than fifty-percent of them were rated as a 3 or below on a scale of 1 to 5. The average rating for women coded as central figures was 4.6, whereas the average coding for a male was a 2.6, supporting the hypothesis that

attractiveness is more important for women. Thus also suggesting different standards may be applied based on gender.

Hypothesis 3 was also supported (see Table 2.) Men were portrayed as professionals more often than women. All but two of the men were coded as wearing neutral or professional clothing. Fourteen of the men were coded as wearing professional attire whereas only 10 women were portrayed and coded in professional attire.

Hypothesis 4 was not supported. Of the advertisements coded African-American, the majority of the central figures or the ad orientation was not male. Although there were only sixteen commercials recorded as African-American, 12 of those advertisements featured a female as the central figure and only four ads featured an African-American male as the central character.

Conclusion

This study sought to examine gender and racial framing of advertisements aired during video programming segments on Black Entertainment Television (BET). Since earlier studies, it would appear, at least of the sample selected, that women have made significant progress in terms of at least appearing in advertisements. This was noted even more so for African-American women. However, men are still portrayed more often as professionals and obviously do not have to be as attractive as women to be central characters. So, while women have made progress within numbers, they are still relegated to more stereotypical roles.

In Goffman's theory of frame analysis, he implies that "social cues learned from using media could also be used to mark the boundaries of social worlds in everyday life" (Baran & Davis, 2000, p.267). When applied to the findings reported within this study, this theory would suggest

-That for a woman to be considered as a dominant figure, she must be attractive and/or have a fit body type. Therefore, a person who is repetitively receiving this image may believe that a woman is not attractive unless she is fit. And for a woman to become or be viewed as a figure of dominance, she must be attractive.

-That men are significantly more dominant figures as portrayed in media. One who repetitively views this image may be inadvertently socialized to think that men are always dominant figures in all or most areas in society.

-That on a network that is targeted toward African-Americans, of the few commercials that are African-American in orientation, more than 75% of the dominant characters are attractive young women and the smaller percentage of men's roles are limited to that of a hip hop artist or an athlete. Youth who repetitively receive these images may perceive that the only predominant African-American male roles in society are and should be in entertainment.

Goffman's use of this framing process suggests that the images seen within the media are consistently being reinforced to create an alternative vehicle of socialization. This suggests that social schemas and portrayals, rather necessarily depicted in society or not, are a good representation of the way individuals in society think people conduct their lives.

The second focus of this study examined racial stereotyping investigated in advertisements. Of particular interest is the majority of commercials coded as Caucasian. This finding alone casts a shadow upon the premise of major goals of BET set fourth by executives 13 years ago, of which the first promise was to become the dominant medium used by advertisers to target the black consumer marketplace (Berry, Manning, & Millen, 1996). Yet, approximately 57% of the advertising coded in this study was Caucasian.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Although results of this study suggest that gender and racial stereotyping is prevalent in commercials aired during video programming, there are significant limitations that should be considered in interpreting these findings. Most importantly, this study was conducted in the summer season when most commercials are entertainment based (entertainment was a coding category that was voided due to the nature of its commercial content). Furthermore, the selection of commercials coded in the study was a select sample with the exclusion of weekends and only included 9 ½ hours of programming. This sample also targeted young adults aged 15- 25 years of age and only recorded commercials aired during video programming, a time in which young adults are most likely to view BET.

Nevertheless, the results suggest change in the proportions of gender portrayals while the racial orientation swings the portrayal in a direction, which leads advertising and marketing techniques away from the networks original target audience and toward general viewers.

Future research should include longer hours of programming and coder reliability. The major limitations of this study were the time restricted programming during the summer season and the absence of the opinions and objections of two or more coders. Future research should also address network comparisons and ad effectiveness.

Appendix:

Chart #1

Body Type		
	Male	Female
Big	1	1
Thin	0	2
Average	17	11
Fit	9	21
Very Fit	3	2

Chart #2

Attire		
	Male	Female
Professional	14	10
Neutral	15	20
Some Skin	1	5
Partial Nudity	1	1
Nudity	0	1

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Preparing Engineers for Management

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Abstract

Nearly 50 percent of engineers become managers (Badawy, 1982). Indeed, as Poirot (1986) noted, today's engineers are more than technicians; they are called on "to organize and direct technical people and projects." For these reasons, it would appear that undergraduate engineering curricula should include some preparation for managerial work. Yet, most curricula do not assist engineering students to develop managerial abilities such as leadership, planning, and interpersonal communication skills. This curriculum omission is seen as a problem by researchers. In addition, with today's job market increasingly competitive, it would seem that undergraduate engineering students would desire management training in their curricula. Yet, research reveals little input from engineering students and alumni toward resolving this issue. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to learn the reactions and recommendations about this issue from engineers themselves. I interviewed engineering alumni who work as managers. I asked how they were prepared for their management work, what skills they considered important for effective managers, what they considered missing from their undergraduate curricula, and what they might recommend for engineering curricula regarding preparation for managerial work.

Preparing Engineers for Management

Introduction

Nearly 50 percent of engineers become managers (Badawy, 1982). An "engineer" is an individual who skillfully or shrewdly manages an enterprise (http://dictionary.reference.com/). A management job requires an individual to use knowledge and skills in planning, decision-making, organizing of resources, leading and motivating people, as well as controlling resources and processes, all to reach the goals of the organization (Griffin, 2002). Throughout all these activities, the manager must communicate and interact with other individuals and groups of people (Griffin, 2002).

When hiring an engineer for a management position, would you prefer the engineer with no management training? In fact, through the years, engineers have been moving into management positions without the advantage of prior management training. The following literature review reveals researchers' concerns about this issue as well as the lack of input from engineers themselves who are managers.

Literature Review

Poirot (1987) noted that the demand for engineering management training was expanding in the 1980's. His study focused on the demand for engineers with management knowledge. Poirot argued that, "In the United States we have found that individuals who possess strong technical skills often have strong management aptitudes" (127). Yet, engineers who have the great technical skills often advance to management positions with no management skills. Poirot provided information about various sources of training and methods for improving management skills of engineers (128-130).

Willie Hopkins (1987), a professor in an MBA program at Colorado State University, reported on engineering students' needs in management-related knowledge (249-255). Hopkins specifically examined students' need to develop the planning skills that effective managers need.

He conducted a simulation study at an American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business-accredited business school in 1986. The participants were 22 MBA students enrolled in a managerial planning and control course; 7 of these students held undergraduate engineering degrees. The 22 students comprised 3 groups, with all the engineers grouped together. Each group prepared marketing, financial, personnel, and production plans for twelve planning periods for their simulated company. During one 15-week semester, the students managed their companies through 3 one-year operating cycles. Table 1 shows the results of this simulation.

Table 1

University students' simulation work performances

Industry	Student	Undergraduate degree	Marketing	Finance	Personnel	Production	Index
1	1	General Business	2.83	2.25	2.42	2.50	93
1	2	Management	2.88	1.92	2.54	2.67	84
1	3	Marketing	3.17	1.83	2.08	2.92	49
1	4	CIS	2.67	1.92	2.75	2.67	90
1	5	Marketing	2.54	2.42	2.54	2.50	92
1	6	Accounting	2.67	2.67	2.00	2.67	85
1	7	Marketing	2.50	2.75	2.08	2.67	80
2	8	Psychology	1.92	2.58	2.58	2.92	90
2	9	Ecology	2.83	2.25	2.50	2.42	95
2	10	Political Science	2.50	2.25	2.83	2.42	96
2	11	Dietetics	2.25	1.83	3.00	2.92	72
2	12	Botany	2.33	2.00	2.92	2.75	81
2	13	Political Science	2.33	2.42	2.33	2.92	74
2	14	Music	3.17	1.33	2.67	2.83	66
2	15	Psychology	3.00	2.17	2.75	2.08	73
3	16	Engineering	3.17	1.75	2.50	2.58	33
3	17	Engineering	2.67	2.50	1.83	3.00	62
3	18	Engineering	2.00	2.08	3.00	2.92	47
3	19	Engineering	3.08	2.17	2.08	2.67	86
3	20	Engineering	2.25	3.08	2.33	2.33	100
3	21	Engineering	2.92	2.58	2.08	2.42	90
3	22	Engineering	3.58	2.33	1.75	2.33	32

Source: Hopkins, 252.

This table contains the 3 groups of students' simulated work performances in the categories of marketing, finance, personnel, and production. In the far right column, the lower the index number, the weaker the student's performance at the overall simulation exercises. As the index reveals, the engineers as a group performed more poorly than did students with other undergraduate degrees. These results led Hopkins (1987) to conclude that the curricula in MBA degrees, though popular among engineers, do not provide the appropriate planning skills. It appears that various courses in the other students' undergraduate curricula must have given them more insights into management skills.

Louis Berger (1996) also argued in favor of engineers obtaining management education, although he wrote about such education being acquired after engineers have began their careers (37). Berger was a consulting engineer with a major international consulting company. He pointed out that 20 percent of the engineers in his firm need to be trained in management because they are called upon to perform such management-oriented jobs such as running a small office, running a domestic or overseas stand-alone office, managing large projects, managing smaller projects in providing home-office support, and managing a squad of technical employees. Berger particularly mentioned the need for various interpersonal skills not taught in engineering curricula (37-39).

Stuart Walesh (1996) also was concerned about management education for engineers. He noted that engineers are not just developing technology; they are also directing it. He offered several recommendations, particularly for improving project management abilities for engineers.

Richard Long (1997), University of Connecticut civil engineering faculty member, recommended that undergraduate engineering programs in his discipline should include management courses. Long explained some methods that could integrate formal management training in undergraduate engineering programs (50-54). Research into University of Connecticut's web pages in June 2003 in fact did reveal that a major in Management and

Engineering for Manufacturing now is offered there

(http://www.catalog.uconn.edu/second4.htm). However, no evidence was found of management

course integration in other engineering degree programs there.

R.M. Bircumshaw (1980) of Great Britain stated that engineers have the ability to

become good managers if trained properly (19). He discussed related problems in British

industry and expressed his opinion that the industry situation could be better if general managers

who were engineers by profession ran such firms. Yet, he noted that engineers were

insufficiently knowledgeable in leadership, human relations, marketing, finance, and sensitivity

for managing others. Birkumshaw concluded, "important qualities [and] skills required in a

general manager are not normally well developed in the engineer" (20). His discussions with

professional engineers revealed the engineers themselves criticized their schools for not being

flexible in helping students who wanted to become business managers. His report concluded by

urging teaching institutions to ensure that their syllabi were designed to encourage young

engineers to gain general management knowledge and skills (16-22).

Keenan (1993) compared the Dainton University enhanced engineering courses, which

included preparing engineers for careers in manufacturing management, with the university's

conventional engineering curricula. His study consisted of a questionnaire given to groups of

students, asking for their opinion about 19 course elements that would prepare them for a career

as a professional engineer in industry. Survey respondents included 167 enhanced students and

353 conventional students. Results revealed that engineering students in the conventional

engineering programs did not like their curricula, whereas engineers in the enhanced program did

like their curriculum. He found that engineering students in the conventional programs wanted

more business and management courses in their curricula (255-265).

Parkin (1994) noted that the structure of engineering education in Australia is such that

few non-engineering courses are included. As a result, Parkin argued, engineers have "poor

judgment when faced with commercial, human, and environmental reality" and "a fundamental lack of understanding of human behavior and social/cultural variables brought about by an unbalanced education" (53,55). Further, whereas engineers learn to view organizations as systems, this researcher argued that an organization in fact is "the result of interactions of the people in the organization" (56). Parkin concluded by recommending that mandate should require engineering education to include "engineering-management" practice functions.

Palmer (2003), a researcher at Deakin University in Australia, reported findings from his surveys of mature-age engineering students. In addition, Palmer summarized several of his research studies conducted to determine the management skills considered important by practicing professional engineers. Palmer also surveyed academic staff in the engineering programs at his university. Considering all his survey results, Palmer concluded that undergraduate engineering programs should offer training in management skills (92-99).

Throughout the literature review for this project, I found that researchers in general have argued that undergraduate engineering programs should include some preparation for potential careers in management work. These researchers argued that engineering programs must prepare their students for their future roles in interacting with others, rather than merely for technical problem-solving roles. However, none of the reviewed studies specifically considered engineers currently working as managers and how they were prepared for their careers in management. Therefore, this study focused on studying engineering alumni who are working in management positions, to learn their viewpoints about their undergraduate engineering curricula.

My project was qualitative research. To obtain maximum information about my research topic from each respondent, I used the one-on-one interview technique recommended by Creswell (1998). Data from one-on-one interviews is valid because the words spoken represent the reality of the respondent, as explained by Orum, Feagin, and Sjoberg in the preface of A Case for the Case Study (1991, Editors Feagin, Orum, & Sjoberg). By interviewing, I expected to

learn details about management preparation for engineers that I would not have learned by using

pre-designed survey items with pre-determined response choices. I believe the individual

insights and reflections by the engineers/managers in this study helped me to develop a greater

understanding than surveys might have provided.

Sample

Georgia Southern University engineer alumni comprised the sample of respondents. The

access population included all the university's engineering alumni of all the degree specialties

(civil, electrical, industrial, and mechanical) since 1963. Because interviewing was used for data

collection, potential respondents included only those alumni whose telephone numbers were

available. In addition, because of time and traveling distances, I called only those alumni who

lived within 120 miles of Statesboro. Within these limits, I selected alumni names at random

until sufficient individuals agreed to appointments. Seven Georgia Southern University

engineering alumni agreed to be respondents, one later changed his mind. Finally, 2 engineering

alumni from Georgia Tech attending graduate classes on Georgia Southern University's campus

agreed to be respondents. Thus, the sample reported here includes 8 engineering alumni who are

working in management positions.

The sample consisted of 6 males and 2 females. Respondents completed a demographic

data form and responded to open-ended questions. The respondents represented various

engineering disciplines. The respondents worked in manufacturing, government, and engineering

consulting organizations. Their ages ranged from 22 to 49, and they averaged of 11 years of

post-undergraduate experience. On average, the respondents were promoted to management

within 3 years after graduation (with a range of 2 months to 5 years).

I tape-recorded the interview conversations, a method that allows another researcher to

consider the conclusions I might draw. As Feagin et al. (1991) explained, this method helps

ensure the reliability of a research report. Each interview took about 30-45 minutes. The interview protocol included 8 questions, shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2

Questions asked of engineering alumni working in management jobs

Number	Question
1	Tell me about your management job and how your engineering education prepared you for it.
2	Tell me about the management training you have gotten, and where and how.
3	Let's talk about ideas you have about your college's engineering curriculum, regarding preparing engineers for work as managers.
4	If you could change your curriculum, how would you?
5	If you could do your education over and take electives or extra courses, would you consider that?
6	In particular, what do you think are good skills for engineers to have, to be good managers?
7	Regarding engineers working as managers, what other thoughts do you have?
8	What else would you like to add about the topic of engineers preparing to be managers?

Respondents used as much time as desired for answering these questions. When appropriate, I asked follow-ups for some of the questions shown in the table above.

Findings

Four of the respondents had undergraduate degrees in industrial engineering. Three of these respondents, when asked the first question (how their curriculum prepared them for management work), offered similar responses: Their curricula gave them an advantage because they had social science courses and a course in management and organizational behavior. One respondent explained that she stayed in undergraduate school an extra year to take business administration courses because she knew she wanted to go into management.

Responses to Question 1 by the remaining interviewees were different from the responses by the industrial engineering graduates, yet similar to each other. For example, a representative

response of this reaction was one respondent's comment: "I wasn't prepared; I was just thrown into it…learned from making mistakes…asked other managers."

I was most surprised at the response to Question 6 (good skills for engineers who work as managers). Every respondent quickly gave the same one-word response: "communication." When asked to explain what they meant by "communication," they had unique answers. One respondent used the words "talking with people…directing people…working with people," but another mentioned "a speech course." Yet another said, "You have to learn how to say what is honest so your employees believe you. You have to get their trust." Clearly, speaking and interpersonal communication skills are crucial needs for engineers who become managers.

On the other hand, no consensus emerged from answers about the respondents' ideas for changing their curricula. One would have stayed an extra year for a combined engineering-management degree, saying "If someone had a degree in management/engineering they could go anywhere." Another explained that engineers "need to be technically prepared to direct people." Yet, some laughed in response and explained that they were not interested in taking extra courses; they just wanted to finish.

All respondents reported that since becoming managers they have attended management-related seminars, either where they work or sent by their employers to attend seminars elsewhere. Three respondents were working on or had completed Industrial Management master's degrees, and one was working on an MBA degree. All of these respondents had chosen their graduate degree programs themselves.

Conclusion

The responses reported in this paper suggest that engineers working in management positions are not prepared for managerial work. In addition, the respondents all agreed that communication skills are critical for interacting effectively with their co-workers. It seems clear

that because so many engineers become managers, they should be better prepared. A potential solution to this problem is to include management courses in the undergraduate engineering curriculum. With management courses included, the undergraduate engineering alumnus can be ready for wherever a career leads.

Further research could solidify the premise that changing the engineering curriculum to include management courses would produce better engineer-managers. Such research could be valuable for engineering students, engineering schools, and corporate America.

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The Black Scare: The Bureau of Investigation's Attack on African American Radicals During the Red Scare

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Abstract

Following World War I, the stability of America's economic and social atmosphere was tremendously shaken. The rhetoric of Communist ideology had found its way passed U.S. borders through immigration, and gave way to the fear of subversive activities by radicals. Although, to many, Communism was related to workers' strikes, J. Edgar Hoover, who was the Director of the Bureau of Investigation's Anti-Radical Division, gave life to the possibility that African Americans involved in movements for social change were motivated by a communist agenda. Many people recognize Hoover's use of the Federal Bureau of Investigation to implement the Counter Intelligence Program during the sixties; however, Hoover's use of agents to infiltrate and observe the actions of organizations existed long before. Information from the Federal Bureau of Investigation's own files prove that organizations were kept under surveillance even after it had been announced that Communism no longer posed a threat to America. This study will examine the actions of FBI agents under the direction of J. Edgar Hoover, and the effects that said actions had on Marcus Garvey and the Universal Negro Improvement Association and the editors of the Socialists news magazine, The Messenger.

The Black Scare: The Bureau of Investigation's Attack on African American Radicals During the Red Scare

Introduction

In April 1917 the United States Congress and Woodrow Wilson declared that the United States would be entering the First World War to help defend democracy. The United States had since maintained diplomatic neutrality by refusing to become fully involved in the war, but

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constant attacks by German u-boats on American ships made entrance into the war inevitable.[1]

As the United States' military prepared for war abroad, the United States Congress began plans

for a united front at home. Men were shipped out to battle the "Commies" while factories

hustled to increase production rates of wartime materials. The overwhelming resistance to

entering the war faded into overwhelming patriotism as an intensive propaganda campaign to

encourage enthusiasm for the war ensued. American patriotic fervor soon rose to wartime

hysteria. Dissent or subversion was intolerable and by 1917, with the passage of the Espionage

Act in Congress, it also became illegal. The Espionage Act of 1917 prescribed fines of up to ten

thousand dollars and prison sentences of up to twenty years. In 1918, the Espionage Act was

further amended to include the Sedition Act, which provided punishment for

> "whoever, when the United States is at war, shall willfully make
> or convey false reports or false statements with intent to interfere
> with the operations or success of the military… or incite…
> insubordination, disloyalty, mutiny, or refusal of duty…[or]
> willfully utter, print, write or publish any disloyal, profane,
> scurrilous, o abusive language about the form of government of the
> United States…"[2]

It is important to note, however, that the United States was simultaneously going through

demographic changes. The military recruited eligible white male workers; therefore, war related

industries hired women and African Americans to fill the vacancies. As a result, many African

Americans migrated north. John Hope Franklin and Alfred A. Moss, Jr., authors of *From

Slavery to Freedom*, estimate that by the end of 1918 more than one million African Americans

had left the South.[3] In search of better jobs, higher pay, and healthier working conditions, many

found themselves in only a slightly better position than before their migration. An article in the

communist-inspired *Worker's World* newspaper, which analyzed the working conditions of

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[1] "Feature Articles: The Causes of World War One", May 5, 2002, <http://www.firstworldwar.com> (June 2003).
[2] "Primary Documents: U.S. Espionage Act, 16 May 1918", May 5, 2002, <http://www.firstworldwar.com> (June 2003).
[3] Franklin, John Hope and Alfred A. Moss, Jr., *From Slavery to Freedom: A History of African Americans*, 7th ed. (New York: McGraw-hill, Inc.), 341

blacks during the Red Scare stated: "black workers continued to be terrorized, suffering from extreme unemployment and super exploitation."[4] The work that was available to most African Americans was laborious and gruesome, the treatment by executive staff was harsh, and there were no benefits. African Americans found themselves being exploited on an ultimate scale. Wilson Record, in his book, *Race and Radicalism,* stated that blacks "suffered disproportionately from layoffs… were frequently excluded from unions… and used to depress wages."[5] One generation removed from slavery, African Americans remained in economic bondage' but hey soon realized that their labor situation was not only simply about race, but also class. Being black subjected blacks to poor wages, which, in turn, forced them to suffer with substandard housing, education, and health. Record argues that communists believed Negroes to be "the group most disenchanted with American industrial democracy", and therefore, "the most susceptible to revolutionary promise."[6] However, most African Americans remained steadfast in their support of the war and contempt for communist ideology.

Political views and ideology were overcome by discontent, which emerged as one of the most prominent feelings held by working class blacks. While there were some whites and immigrants who sympathized with the plight of African Americans, the traditional white American male returning home from the war cared more about returning to the jobs that African Americans had acquired in their absence. Whites felt the overwhelming presence of African Americans posed a threat to job security and, in an attempt to salvage the society they had fostered and grown comfortable with, many turned to violence. African Americans met the force of whites with forcefulness of their own and as a result, race riots erupted in many cities across the United States. News media sensationalized the events, which only further angered whites

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[4] March 4, 1999, <http://www.workersworld.org> (2 may 02)

[5] Record, Wilson. *Race and Radicalism: The NAACP and the Communist Party in Conflict*, (Ithaca: Cornell University Press), 26.

[6]Ibid. , 2

and caused acts of violence to be perpetuated in cities where riots had not occurred. Mark Ellis wrote in an article published by the *Journal of American Studies* that more than two hundred lynchings occurred as a result of race riots between 1917 and 1919.[7]

African American leaders did not seek to explain away the attacks, but instead sought to empower blacks and offer them alternatives to what they considered to be second-class citizenship. Unfortunately, with the close of the war and the start of the Bolshevik Revolution, the call for political conversion or re-examination by black leaders coupled with rioting, brought a greater fear of communist infiltration. Whites did not view the uprisings as a protest of inequity or self-defense against white violence; to them, the inequality between African Americans and whites was normal. So, the only possible explanation for black aggression was the agitation of blacks through the black press and black leadership; and because Bolsheviks had announced their plan to mobilize people of color worldwide into revolutionary action. Thus the fear of black radicalism or subversion escalated.[8] It did not matter that most leaders had rejected Communist ideology, as Theodore Kornweibel, author of *"Seeing Red"*, argues: "Blacks were damned as Wobblies, socialists, Bolsheviks, or anarchists simply for agreeing with ideas that went beyond political orthodoxy."[9] This fear of Communism, which is represented by the color red, resulted in what many historians now refer to as the Red Scare. The fear of the manipulation of blacks by Communists resulted in what I call the Black Scare.

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[7] Ellis, Mark. "J. Edgar Hoover and the 'Red Summer' of 1919", *Journal of American Studies* 28 no. 1 (1994): 41.

[8] Kornweibel, Theodore. *"Seeing Red": Federal Campaigns Against Black Militancy*. (Bloomington: Indiana University Press), 20.

[9] Ibid. , 20.

Understanding The Black Scare: An Overview

Persecution of African Americans was not something that was new to the African American community. Those who spoke out against slavery or lynching were, oftentimes, chased from their hometowns, if not killed. In the biography of Ida B. Wells' anti-lynching campaign, the author tells of how Wells was forced to leave her newspaper in her hometown because of death threats resulting from comments she made about white women and lynching.[10] It was not until World War I that African Americans were seen as a threat by normal citizens and labeled as such by citizens and the federal government, alike.

No citizens who thought outside of the orthodox frame of capitalism and democracy was free from surveillance, but for African Americans, a request for basic civil liberties became a step outside the norm. With security alerts for subversion and the fear of communist infiltration on high, that small step became justification for surveillance, infiltration, and even sabotage because a request or demand for what we now consider basic rights was a radical thought.

Being called a radical during World War I was as close to being called a communist as one could come without actually being called a communist. To agents working for the Bureau of Investigation, they were one in the same. According to Record, radicalism is defined as an ideal that suggests " the inferiority of the Negro as a product of capitalism and its removal as contingent on reorganization of society…"[11] One must keep in mind, however, that the definition of radical is relative. The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People was considered radical post Reconstruction but has become more well known for its less-than-aggressive steps toward social change. Kornweibel defines radical, as it best fits the time, as a person considered to be "dangerous because they espoused 'alien' doctrines and sought extreme

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[10] Wells, Ida B., *Southern Horrors and other Writings: The Anti-Lynching Campaign of ida B. Wells, 1892-1900*, ed. Jacqueline Jones Royster (Ohio State University Press, 1997), 18.
[11] Record, pg. 27

changes in the political landscape."[12]   Equal employment, equal wages, and equal housing demands were extreme for the time.   Talk of overturning the government or even reforming policies was extremely radical, and as a result, African Americans who refused to tolerate oppression and repression were labeled, threatened, arrested, and/or deported. Mark Ellis, author of *Race, War, and Surveillance*, names W.E. B. DuBois as one of leaders to be tracked by the Bureau of Investigations Anti-Radical Division. The black press was not at all excluded. The *Chicago Defender*, the *Amsterdam News*, and the *Crusader* all became targets of investigation. Not all targets suffered the same. Two of the worst assaults carried out were on native West Indian activist, Marcus Garvey and editor of the *Messenger,* Asa Phillip Randolph.

The Bureau of Investigation: A Tool for Surveillance

Prior to entering World War I, the Department of Justice appointed an unnamed force of special agents to investigate civil unrest. In 1909 this branch of men was named the Bureau of Investigation. The BI was initially responsible for investigating violations of some of the few existing federal laws such as bankruptcy, fraud, antitrust crimes, and neutrality violations. However, shortly after the start of World War I, the Justice Department expanded their responsibilities to include espionage, sabotage, sedition, and draft violations. The reason for this expansion may be hidden in the fact that Assistant Attorney General Charles Warren gave Woodrow Wilson the idea to resurrect the old 1798 Alien Act to justify his proclamation on alien enemies.[13]   This expansion can also be attributed to the fact that BI agents had, since 1914, already begun collecting names and information on immigrants who were considered dangerous. Whatever the case, BI

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[12] Kornweibel, pg. 20

[13] Powers, Richard Gid. *Secrecy and Power* (New York: The Free Press), 48

agents made plans for the arrest of "subversives" as early as April 6, 1917, the exact same day that President Wilson signed the declaration of war against Germany.

During this time, a young J. Edgar Hoover had just recently been employed by the Justice Department, working as a file clerk for the Alien Enemy Bureau. Born in Washington, D.C., Hoover was raised a product of "those last decades of American innocence that preceded the First World War."[14] Washington, D.C. was still, for the most part, a southern town with southern ideals and values. Most of Hoover's family worked as federal employees; his pride and patriotism can be traced back to his great grand uncle who helped to build some of the city's monuments. To Hoover, Washington D.C. was "the center of not only his but all domestic and worldly powers, and his hometown – its defense not merely a duty or an obligation but a birthright."[15]

In July 1917, just months after the declaration of war, Hoover applied and was accepted for a position within the justice Department. Hoover's first months at the Justice Department put him in the middle of the hysteria over traitors, spies, and saboteurs, which helped to shape his opinion of those with alternative political views. "Hoover had, all his life… a turn of the century vision of America as a small community of like-minded neighbors, proud of their achievements, resentful of criticism, fiercely opposed to change", so, the idea of African Americans wanting more of the 'American Pie' was not fathomable because in Hoover's mind blacks appeared content.[16] Hoover rationalized that the demand for egalitarianism was a product of Communist propaganda. He was blind to the conditions under which African Americans suffered and failed to acknowledge the feelings of dissent as a product of the unjust and brutal treatment that many blacks had endured for years. His only recognition was of a presence of a threat of communist

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[14] Gentry, Curt. *J. Edgar Hoover: The Man and the Secrets* (New York: W.W. Norton & Company), 62
[15] Ibid, Pg. 63
[16] Powers, Pg. 3

nature. To Hoover, dissent was equivalent to treason, and those engaged in treason deserved the severest punishment.

In a report by Hoover of a Germen "engaged in a conversation with a Negro in which he indulged in pro-German utterances and in derogatory remarks regarding the U.S. Government… trying to influence the latter against the United States", Hoover recommended permanent internment, which was far more severe than his superior's recommendation of two or three months in prison.[17] Hoover had absolutely zero tolerance for what he considered disloyalty.

By 1919, Hoover began his battle against radicalism as the head of the Anti-Radical Division of the Bureau of Investigation, even though "it was clear that the international communist movement had been confined to Russia for the foreseeable future, and that the international communist movement had become an instrument of Russian policy."[18] Labor Strikes and civil unrest seemed a test for the chance of revolution, so when Hoover was offered a job to study the ideology and activities of the Left, he willingly accepted. With this new title and authority over 580 agents, Hoover launched a full-scale spy operation. Hoover's targets included white and immigrant leftists whose cases he had reviewed, as well as black leaders/writers such as Marcus Garvey, W.E.B. DuBois, A. Phillip Randolph and Chandler Owens. Under the Wilson Administration and leadership of J. Edgar Hoover, the Anti-Radical Division of the Bureau of Investigations became a pertinent tool in the repression of progressive black leaders and organizations: "The Washington, Chicago and St. Louis field offices produced no evidence of subversive agitation among blacks, but Hoover was undaunted. He planned a three-pronged assault on Black radicalism: deportation of Marcus Garvey, infiltration of black radical groups and prosecution of the *Messenger*."[19]

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[17] Ibid., 56
[18] Ibid., 56
[19] Ellis, Mark, "J. Edgar Hoover and the 'Red Summer' of 1919", *Journal of American*

The Attack on Radicalism

One of Hoover's attempts to thwart black radicalism was by hindering the out reach of the black press.   Asa Philip Randolph was born April 15, 1889, in Crescent City, Florida, the second son of the Rev. James William Randolph, a tailor and ordained minister in the African Methodist Episcopal (AME) Church, and Elizabeth Robinson Randolph, a skilled seamstress. Though, African Americans were perceived as the subordinate type during the late eighteenth century, Randolph learned from his parents the importance of character, conduct, and self-defense. One of Randolph's vivid memories from his childhood was of his mother sitting with a shotgun across her lap and his father with a gun tucked in his coat as they prepared to prevent a mob from lynching a man at the local county jail.[20] It became apparent to Randolph at a young age that African Americans were not held in the highest regard and that good character and conduct was not all that one needed to survive in America, and especially in the South.

Shortly after graduating from high school, Randolph moved to New York City where he became an active member of the Socialist Party. Randolph believed that fighting for social equality was more important than anything else and by 1914 was a regular on New York City's most popular block (135th and Lenox Avenue) for soapbox lectures; it was not here that A. Phillip Randolph was noticed by the Bureau of Investigations.

In 1917, Randolph and a college friend, Chandler Owens, were asked to edit a magazine known as the *Hotel Messenger*. The *Hotel Messenger* was supposed to be a magazine for the Headwaiters and Sidewaiters Society and meant to highlight achievements and or accomplishments of the organization and its members. However, as Randolph and Owens became editors and published articles, which were radical in content, both decided that the next

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Studies 28 no. 1 (1994): 47.
[20]"History: Asa Phillip Randolph 1889-1979", n.d. , <http:// afl-cio.org> (August 2003)

best option was to start their own magazine. Randolph and Owens dropped the "Hotel", and in November of 1917, the two published the first edition of *The Messenger*. The *Messenger* was sometimes confused with its predecessor and had been label a social magazine rather than a Socialist magazine. However, it is in the editorial of the very first issue that Randolph and Owens declare themselves as radicals and fervent supporters of social change and not the social status quo: " Our aim is to appeal to reason, to lift our pens above the cringing demagogy of the times... Patriotism has no appeal to us; justice has."[21] *The Messenger* gave Randolph a boost in society as a highly respected and recognized member of the Socialist Party. It allowed him to embark on a speaking tour where he lectured in support of Socialism and against Negro participation in World War I. He was a proud member and on several occasions denounced capitalism and psuedo-democracy, and urged "the Negro labor unions to increase their radicalism... and thank no one but themselves for what they have gained."[22] It was not even this open ridicule of American social policies that caught the attention of the BI. Ironically, The Bureau of Investigation documents kept by the Justice Department did not begin documenting surveillance of Asa Philip Randolph until well after 1920, however, persecution began before then. In 1918, Randolph took a lecture tour in the Midwest simultaneously promoting the third issue of *The Messenger* and socialist theory; this is when agents for the Bureau of Investigation took notice.[23] BI agents happened to be in the vicinity of lecture that was taking place and purchased a copy of *The Messenger*.

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[21] Randolph, Asa Philip and Chandler Owens, "Mission Statement", *The Messenger*, November 1917.
[22] Broderick, Francis L. and August Meier, *Negro Protest Thought in the Twentieth Century* (New York: Bobbs-Merrill), 71.
[23] "*Seeing Red*", 77.

Inside, an article entitled "Pro-Germanism Among the Negroes" argued that: "ill treatment of black people in America was a far more effective cause of discontent than any German propaganda."[24] The article further stated:

> The only legitimate connection between this unrest and Germanism is the extensive government advertisement that we are fighting 'to make the world safe for democracy', 'to carry democracy to Germany;' that we are conscripting the Negro into the military and industrial establishments to achieve this end for white democracy four thousand miles away, while the Negro at home, though bearing the burden in every way, is denied economic, political, educational and civil democracy. And this, despite his loyalty and patriotism in the land of the free and the home of the brave![25]

It is statements like these that caused *The Messenger* to be labeled the most dangerous publication in America by both J. Edgar Hoover and the Attorney General A. Palmer Mitchell and simultaneously the   Though they had not head of *The Messenger* at the time if this incident, this is when the attack on radicalism and the editors of the socialist magazine began.

After purchasing the copy of *The Messenger*, BI Agents Sawken and Morton arrested Asa Phillip Randolph, Chandler Owens, and Eugene V. Debs, a well-known socialist who was giving an anti-war lecture the same day. There was first an attempt to prosecute Randolph and Owens for draft dodging; fortunately, Randolph had proof of his draft enrollment status – Owens did not. Finally, after speaking with Assistant Attorney F.B. Kavanagh, Sawken and Morton found grounds to charge Randolph under title 1, section 3, of the Espionage Act, claiming that:

> he had '[u]n lawfully, knowingly, and feloniously, he united States being then and there at war with the imperial German government, willfully print[ed] and caused to be printed, published and cause[d] to be published and circulated, in certain language intended to incite, provoke, and incur resistance to the United States and to promote the cause of its enemies.[26]

Not long after being released on bond, Owens was drafted into the army and shipped off to war.

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[24] Ellis, Mark, *Race, War, and Surveillance: African Americans and the United States Government During World War I*, (Bloomington: Indiana University Press), 110.
[25] Randolph, Asa Philip, "Pro-Germanism Among the Negroes", *The Messenger*, July 1918.
[26] *Race, War, and Surveillance*, 111.

The Messenger was further persecuted in July 1919 when Hoover recruited the aid of the Post Office department; the mailing privileges were revoked and the second-class mailing status (necessary for newspapers to mailed in bulk to subscribers) was withdrawn. A short time later the post office department's solicitor, William H. Lamar, declared *The Messenger* deliverable, but maintained the second-class withdrawal status of the July issue as well as other issues of the newspaper. Furthermore, Randolph's sealed and domestically originated mail was intercepted, opened, and read by the Bureau. This was a blatant disregard for the law, which at that time, only allowed the 'opening of first-class (sealed) letters… int[ernational] mail to or from countries which had no censorship where enemy activity was likely."[27] The Military Intelligence Division (MID) also became heavily involved in the scrutiny of *The Messenger* and its editors, sending stenographers to record their speeches in Washington and collecting data on its finances. Dr. Arthur Craig's services were solicited as an infiltrator of *The Messenger* staff throughout 1920 and 1921. For Hoover, the Bureau, the Post Office Department, and the MID, "the pettiness continued until June 1921, when President Harding's Postmaster General acknowledged the excesses of the past and finally restored the permanent second-class permit."[28] Doing so was admittance that there was no evidence linking the radically progressive content of *The Messenger* to the riots, subversion, or dissent amongst African Americans.

Hoover's final and most relentless assault was on a West-Indian immigrant who came to the United States to establish an organization that sought to aid in the improvement of the social conditions of Africans and African Americans. Marcus Mosiah Garvey, Jr. was born August 17, 1887 in St. Ann's Bay, Jamaica. As a young man of fourteen, Garvey left school and worked as a printer's apprentice. He participated in Jamaica's earliest nationalist organizations, traveled

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[27] "*Seeing Red*", 80.
[28] Ibid., 89

throughout Central America, and spent time in London, England, where he worked with the Sudanese-Egyptian nationalist Duse Mohamed Ali.

By the time Garvey was an adult, he was also a full-blown Black Nationalist. Black Nationalism is a concept or an ideal which supports the separation of African and African Americans from whites in an effort to empower the black race. Garvey argued: "For over three hundred years the white man has been our oppressor, and he naturally is not going to liberate us… We have to liberate ourselves."[29] To do so Garvey focused on expanding an organization that would aid in the empowerment of his people.

In 1916, after having been invited to join Booker T. Washington in New York City, Garvey immigrated to Harlem only to find that his future mentor had passed. Washington's death, however, was not an impediment for Garvey's goal. By 1917, the Universal Negro Improvement Association (U.N.I.A), which Garvey had created in Jamaica in 1914, had a fully established chapter in New York City. The purpose of such an organization, as Garvey intended it, was: "to found a Society with a universal programme, for the purpose of drawing the peoples of the race together…"[30]

One year later the Bureau of Investigation became aware of the activities of the U.N.I.A, when the local police reported that "Negro agitators of the 3rd precinct" had been congregating near 7th Avenue and 125th Streets.[31] The Marcus Garvey Papers compiled by the University of California at Berkeley documents reports on Marcus Garvey beginning as early as November 1918. It is not until August of 1919, however, that infiltration of U.N.I.A begins. In order to infiltrate the U.N.I.A, the Bureau would again need the services of Dr. Arthur Craig as well as

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[29] *Philosophy and Opinions of Marcus Garvey*, ed., William Loren Katz, vol., *His History and Literature* (Arno Press and The New York Times, 1968), 11.
[30] *The Marcus Garvey and Universal Negro Improvement Association Papers*, ed. Robert A. Hill, vol. 1, (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1983) 117.
[31] Ibid. , 281

others who could report on the financial proceedings as well as the lecture content of the

U.N.I.A. In December 1919, Special Agent WW reported after reading a copy of the *Negro*

World, the U.N.I.A. and Marcus Garvey's newspaper, that it was:

> a radical paper of the worst type; because it seeks to stir up strife and dissatisfaction among Negroes… a menace: because its author seeks to write the darker people for so called protection when as a careful reading of the paper will show that the editor and those in the league with him have a dream of world dominion based on selfishness…[and] deserves use of immediate drastic measures to suppress…[32]

As reports were being sent on quite a regular basis about the goings-on of the U.N.I.A.

and Marcus Garvey, Hoover had outlined the phases of attack on the radical activist. He

declared Marcus Garvey a "principal agitator among the Negroes" and sought out information

that could be used to bring charges against Garvey.[33] In Hoover's mind there was a definite need

to rid America of this undesirable, and… very dangerous Alien."[34] He also wired information

about Garvey to intelligence agencies both nationally and internationally, requesting any

information that could aid in Garvey's deportation: "It occurs to me… that there might be some

proceeding against him for fraud… and for this reason I am transmitting [this] communication to

you."[35] Hoover further transmitted to special agent Ridgely of the Washington D.C. branch, a

full report on Marcus Garvey from his life in Jamaica to his most recent activities in America.

Still Hoover was unable to uncover any illegalities on the part of Garvey. Several attempts were

made to charge Garvey with some infraction no matter how miniscule. In 1920, George F. Ruch

wired information to Hoover, which suggested that Garvey could be charged with a violation of

the Mann White Slave Act. The Mann Act was initially intended to prevent white slavery and

illicit sex across state lines. However, Hoover's intention was to pursue a conviction based on

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[32] *The Marcus Garvey and Universal Negro Improvement Association Papers*, ed. Robert A. Hill, vol. 2, (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1983) 169-170.
[33] Ibid., 171.
[34] "*Seeing Red*", 103.
[35] Hill, vol.2, 72.

the rumor of an adulterous affair between Garvey and his secretary. When that failed, Hoover used agent Jones to keep track of stock purchases made for the Black Star line, a fleet of ships purchased to encourage foreign trade with African American business owners, while a new agent, Boulin, obtained details from the ship line's books. Though these efforts were fruitless, in early 1922 Garvey was indicted on mail fraud.

The Effects of the Black Scare

Why Hoover harassed African American radicals with such fervor is a question that is still left unanswered. Some attribute it to his zealous determination to maintain the social structure of America that he grew up with as a child. Others feel that Hoover's attacks were a product of a deep-seeded racism that was instilled in him as a youth. It is my belief that Hoover considered any argument for social change equivalent to treason in an effort to keep America as a small-town type of nation with one consensus on all issues. It is not that Hoover was unaware of the issues and concerns of African Americans or the changes necessary to help ease the racial tensions. He read the articles included in the *Negro World* and the *Messenger*, but ignored the basis of every argument, which was racial, economic, and social inequities.

A. Philip Randolph, as editor of the *Messenger*, received hard blows. With the rejection of their second-class mailing status, which afforded cheaper mailing rates, Randolph faced monetary hardships. Randolph and Owens charges for violating the Espionage Act were dropped, but Owens was drafted into the war and served one year before being released. While serving his term of duty, Randolph was forced to deal with the mailing issues alone. For an extended period of time the *Messenger* was unable to be mailed for lack of financial resources. This, no doubt, had an effect on those who had subscribed and those who might subscribe in the future. The folding of *the Messenger* cannot be directly attributed to the actions of the Bureau of

Investigations and the Post Office, but it is clear that the newspaper collapsed due to financial trouble. This may or may not have been due to the mailing costs they were forced to pay as a result of second-class mailing suspension.

The most severely sought after and successful assault was on Marcus Garvey and the U.N.I.A. Hoover's contempt for Garvey is unclear; what is clear is that Hoover went after no man or organization with such fervor as he did Garvey. On more than one occasion he attempted to connect Garvey with riots, fraud, murder, and subversive tactics. To his own satisfaction, Hoover succeeded in an indictment of mail fraud against Marcus Garvey. After being convicted, Garvey was deported. Still undaunted, Garvey proclaimed from the Atlanta Penitentiary: "Be assured that I planted well the seed of Negro or black nationalism which cannot be destroyed even by the foul play that has been meted out to me."[36]

Many considered Hoover's domestic war on Communism a failure. He had failed to remove the presence of communist ideology and its representatives and failed to stamp out the resistance and demands for equality that graced the lips of African Americans. Despite Hoover's failures, he was notably successful at suppressing black progressives during the Red Scare. Hoover carefully orchestrated sting operations that caused many leaders to watch carefully the words that they chose or suffer the consequences. Those who ignored the threats were punished through government repression. The laws that protected a citizen's right to free speech were bent in order to maintain a strict air of patriotism during the war. Hoover's campaign had demonstrated that it was dangerous to belong to communist organizations, but even more dangerous to belong to black progressive organizations; for those who belonged to progressive

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[36] Paul P. Reuben, "Perspectives in American Literature: Chapter 9: *Harlem Renaissance* – Marcus Garvey (1887-1940)", n.d., <http://www.csustan.edu/english/reuben/pal/chap9/garvey.html> (26 October 2003).

black organizations, there was no protection against brutes who challenged the demands for equality by African Americans, as well as no punishment for those who perpetuated violence against them. Hoover proved that in America it is only safe to be what America wants you to be, asking for anything more might be deadly.

Significance of Research

Several things jumped out at me as ironic during the course of my research. First, in reading the files kept by what is now the Federal Bureau of Investigation, I found that files on both A. Philip Randolph and Marcus Garvey did not begin until 1920. For Garvey and the editors of *the Messenger*, this was well after persecution actually began. It leaves me, and those interested in this topic, room to question the actions of our federal government and the worth of the Freedom of Information Act when information is not submitted or documented for the full time frame of the course of action.

The second and most important irony was the familiarity of the course of events during this time frame. It is needless to say that history has a starting point, but what I realize is that these events have become notorious actions of the federal government. I realized that these are the same issues that arose in the late sixties when Hoover, yet again in an attempt to quiet unsatisfied African Americans, enacted the Counter Intelligence Program, which led attacks on Communists as well as members of The Black Panther Party. Even still today, with the enactment of the Patriot Act, the same atrocities are being dealt out to Muslim Americans. It again leads one to question whether our Government's concern is in promoting democracy and civil liberties, or maintaining a façade.

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Teacher Attachment Styles and Disciplinary Techniques

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Abstract

The present study investigated the relationship between teacher attachment styles and use of discipline with students. In the classroom there is a unique bond between student and teacher that resembles the bond between caregiver and child. Understanding teacher's own attachment style provide a greater understanding of how teachers form and view relationships with their students. In this study, 29 student teachers from a mid-sized state university, high school or middle school, and day care workers participated. To measure teacher attachment style, Bartholomew and Horowitz's Close Relationship Test (1991) was administered. A forced-choice measure of discipline style developed by the experimenter was also administered. Teachers who were classified as dismissing in attachment styles were more likely to use permissive discipline tactics than were those classified as secure or fearful. Attachment style did not predict use for authoritative and authoritarian discipline styles. Results from this study may be useful in helping teachers
understand how their own attachment histories may influence their interactions with their students.

Teacher Attachment Styles and Disciplinary Techniques

Education is an important building block to success. Although issues such as class and school size and curriculum have been found to be related to academic performance, one critical component to a successful education is the teacher. Jacobs (2001) gives a clear description of what a teacher is. He states that a teacher not only serves as an instructor, tutor, and disciplinarian but also as part of the pupil's working relationships. This working relationship allows the teacher to integrate knowledge and teaching practices and at the same time guide the

child's educational tasks (2001). The teacher serves as a knowledgeable adult who encourages the social and cognitive development of their students (Pianta, 2001).

In order to understand the impact of the teacher on student academic and socioemotional development, the personality characteristics of successful teachers should be considered. One such personality characteristic is attachment style. To understand adult attachment style, early research on infant-mother attachment must be examined. One of the first and prominent researchers on this issue is John Bowlby. Bowlby (1979) defined attachment as the enduring emotional bond that infants form with their caregiver. Bowlby's theory of attachment goes much further than explaining mothers' meeting the physical needs of infants. The attachment formed between caregiver and infant presents the infant with the ability to sustain physical security from predators and the ability to explore their environment with that same feeling of security (1979). In order for an infant to form a secure base, the parent must provide a solid emotional bond for negotiating in that child, a solid foundation for the world, and a sense of self and security of identity (1979).

These foundations allow for children to explore who they are now and in the future, so they can form functioning relationships. The ability for children to perceive future relationships is determined by the internal working models, the infants' mental representations of attachment. These internal representations in turn develop into a map for future relationships (Bowlby, 1979). This map gives children a script for how their relationships are supposed to work in intimate setting, in the treatment of others, and in self reflection. From this script children are able to form attachments with other adults who are significant in their lives, such as the teacher, a relationship which resembles in some ways infant-mother attachment.

Mary Ainsworth (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978) defined attachment as a bond, tie or durable relationship between the mother and child and stated that this bond forms

attachment behaviors that together act as a mediator in the relationship. To test Bowlby's theory of attachment, Mary Ainsworth and her colleagues (Ainsworth, et al., 1978) developed a procedure called the "strange situation," a series of eight 3- minute increasingly stressful episodes in which the child is present with the mother, a stranger, and alone in various configurations. From these observations, Ainsworth and her colleagues were able to categorize the children into three groups. The first group was labeled secure. Secure children are children who can explore their environment in a comfortable manner while the mother is there. These children also demonstrate distress when the mother is absent and can be comforted when she has returned (Ainsworth, et al., 1978). About 65% of American infants fall into this category. The second group was avoidant. In this group, children show indifference to the mother and may or may not respond to the absence of the mother. When the mother returns, they avoid or ignore her. About 25% of American infants fall into this category. The last group was the anxious-ambivalent group. In this group children are anxious in the mother's presence and are distressed at the mother's absence but are not comforted by her return. About 10% of American infants fall into this category.

More recent studies have found that attachment classification is related to academic and social competence, mental health, understanding of love, grief, and loneliness and romantic relationships (e.g., Armsden & Greenberg, 1987; Feeney & Noller, 1996; Laible, Carlo, & Raffaelli, 2000). It is the later studies on the working models of adult attachment in romantic relationships that are most related to the present study. Hazan and Shaver (1987) were the first to apply the mother-infant attachment research to adult relationships. Hazan and Shaver theorized that romantic love is in fact an attachment relationship that ties together sexual attraction and care giving. The romantic partner serves as the primary source of meeting the attachment needs for the other partner (1987). The partner provides a sense of security that is needed in the

attachment relationship. Branching off from Ainsworth's theory Hazen and Shaver found three styles of attachment relationships: secure, avoidant, and anxious-ambivalent. Persons who are securely attached are able to indulge in close and comfortable relationships with great ease, rely on others, and have little or no fear of being abandoned by their loved one (Hazen & Shaver, 1987). Avoidant persons find it uncomfortable being close to others, difficult to trust others completely, and difficult to allow themselves to depend on others (1987). Anxious-ambivalent persons are reluctant to get as close as they would like with others and they often worry that they are not good enough for their partner or that their partner does not really love them. This person also desires close relationships but often this strong need drives others away (1987).

Building on Hazen and Shaver's (1987) work, Bartholomew created a four-category model that considers one's view of self and others (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). When these two working models are crossed four attachment styles emerge: secure (positive view of self and others), fearful (negative view of self and others), preoccupied (negative view of self and positive view of others), and dismissing (positive view of self and negative view of others). In an empirical test of this model, Horowitz and Bartholomew (1991) found that people who were classified as fearful or preoccupied had lower self-concept scores than others who were not fearful or preoccupied. Secure individuals had a positive view of self and positive view of others with regard to trustworthiness, reliability, and availability. Individuals with a dismissing attachment style also had a positive view of self but scored low on the trustworthiness of others and had a tendency to score higher on avoidance of close and intimate relationships.

Numerous studies have been done on personality characteristics and their correlations with adult attachment style since Horowitz and Bartholomew's findings. Secure attachment has been linked to better coping styles (Rubenstein & Shaver, 1982), self-disclosure (Feeney et al., 1999), conflict resolution (Shi, 2003), and communication (Weger & Polcar, 2000). Weger and

Polcar (2002) found that differences in comforting ability are determined by one's attachment style. Secure individuals were more able to provide person-centered comforting and were able to provide better social support than avoidant, preoccupied, or dismissive individuals. Weger and Polcar (2002) reported that people who are securely attached are more willing to get close to others and have more effective method for doing so at their disposal. Attachment has also been associated with emotional well-being and marriage choice (Volling, Notara, & Larsen, 1998) stating that individuals in most relationships seek out a different attachment style from their own.

As described earlier, Bowlby's theory of attachment (1979) suggests that humans, particularly children, have an emotional bond with their caregiver and from that bond children form an inner working model system about themselves and other close relationships in their lives. The child-teacher relationship also influences emotional security, dependency, and socialization (Howes, 1994). All of these key components are the same aspects found in attachment style. If a teacher is seen as the stepping-stone for academic achievement, a bond between that teacher and child must be formed to reach that goal. Within a basic school day, a teacher spends seven to eight hours five days a week with their students. During this time, the teacher is integrating the roles, of instructor, tutor, and disciplinarian. Pianta, Nimetz, and Bennett (1997) found that teacher-child relationships have positive and negative effects on children. For example, they stated that if a teacher is warm and loving, the educational environment is seen as a positive and encouraging one, but if the teacher is hostile and rigid many factors like the overall academic success or failure of the student or competencies with their peers are affected (1997). It is imperative for the teacher to develop a positive relationship with each student to insure that each student's academic needs are met.

It is also important to realize that the teacher-child relationship continuously develops throughout the student's educational career. A study done by Wentzel (1996) found that when

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middle school students' teachers were able to openly communicate with students, the students felt that they benefited more from their teachers because they felt a sense of closeness and understanding. Other studies have found that the communication style of the teacher is particularly important in determining how teacher-student interactions are perceived. For example, Llatov and Shamai (1998) found that the most important factor in classroom interaction is the communication style of the teacher. If the teacher can clearly communicate academic instruction and management strategies to their students, then the teaching experience will be positive for both teacher and student (1998).

A major factor affecting communication is the attachment style of the communicator. Weger and Polcar (2000) found that the communicators' attachment style had a significant effect on how a communication was perceived. Weger and Polcar found that the internal working models of communicators define how they will behave in communication situations. They also found that secure individuals define communication situations in a much more positive light than those insecurely attached (2000). If communicators feel that their interactions are important, then they are more likely to reach their target audience.

A teacher's attachment style should be examined with regard to its association with effective teaching. Kesner (2000) suggests that the teacher's own internal working model influences the quality of relationship between the teacher and child (2000). For example, if teachers are faced with a disruption in class then how they perceive and handle that disruption is based on their own attachment style. One key situation where teachers apply their attachment style is in disciplining disruptive students.

Research over the past decades has shown that parental disciplining styles has influenced children's well-being. Diane Baumrind's (1966) studies have identified three types of parenting

styles: permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative (1966). With the permissive parenting style, the parent is rated high on warmth and acceptance and low on setting limits and maintaining demands. Permissive parents have little apparent control over their children's behavior, rarely use punishment in their homes, tend to avoid discipline as much as they can, and allow children to make their own decision. The authoritarian parenting style is rated low on warmth and acceptance, and high on maturity demands and control. These parents also have high expectations for their children and they have a tendency to favor more punitive measures of discipline. With the authoritative parenting style, parents rate high on warmth, acceptance, maturity demand, control. They tend to take time to explain rules to children, place less emphasis on strict obedience, and are more likely to encourage autonomy. Baumrind also found that these discipline styles are related to later life outcomes in the children. An authoritarian parenting style is associated with higher levels of aggression. An authoritative parenting style is associated. The permissive parenting style is associated with social immaturity and poor impulse control (Baumrind, 1991).

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationship between teachers' attachment style and use of discipline in the classroom. Two research questions were examined:

1. What is the distribution of attachment styles in classroom teachers? Are the various styles distributed similarly as in the general population?

2. Are teacher attachment styles related to the level and type of discipline a student will receive?

It was hypothesized that

1. Teachers who are identified as having secure attachment style would be authoritative in discipline style.

2. People who are identified as fearful would discipline students with a permissive style.

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3. Dismissing individuals would discipline with the authoritarian style

4. Preoccupied individuals would disciple students using the permissive style.

Method

Participants

The sample in this study consisted of 2 men and 27 women who were student teachers from a mid-sized state university, public school, high school and middle school teachers, and day care workers. The mean age of the participants was 35.09 years ($SD = 11.46$). Each school was contacted through the appropriate administrators to ask the teachers to volunteer their time.

Materials

Informed Consent. This informed the participants of their rights and obligations of the research study. See Appendix A.

Demographic variables. Age, sex, and grades taught were requested on a cover sheet.

Close Relationship Questionnaire. This instrument was developed by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) and is comprised of four paragraphs that describe each attachment style (secure, fearful, preoccupied, and dismissive). The individual is asked to rate each style as to how closely each describes the respondent on a 5-point Likert-type scale. The test is included in Appendix B. In the past there has been substantial literature on the reliability and validity of the Close Relationship Questionnaire (CRQ). One study stated that after eight months the attachment patterns were stable with almost 70% of the participants showing the same classification from the last questionnaire (Lapsley et al., 2002; Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1994). The CRQ has been linked with self-concept and interpersonal functioning, with peer attachment relations, and with family functioning (Lapsley et al., 2002). Past studies have found that in the general population

47% are secure, 21% are fearful, 14% are preoccupied, and 18% are dismissive (Bartholomew &

Horowitz, 1991).

Discipline case scenarios. Six case scenarios dealing with three substantial and three

minuscule accidents that may require discipline were presented. See Appendix C. Each was rated

on a five-point scale for an authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive response. In these

scenarios three girls and three boys were presented in the study. Names of different ethnic

origins (Emily, Ashia, Billy, Hosé, etc.) were used to provide a diverse sample. Complete

counterbalancing was performed with these scenarios in order of discipline strategies.

Procedures

Participants first received and completed the informed consent forms. After the informed

consent forms were collected, each participant was handed the questionnaire packet. The packet

took approximately 12 minutes to complete. After participants finished their packets, they were

thanked for their participation and were handed a debriefing form.

Results

It was hypothesized that teachers who were identified as having secure attachment style

would be authoritative in discipline style, that people who are identified as fearful would

discipline students with a permissive style, that dismissing individuals would discipline with the

authoritarian style, and that preoccupied individuals would disciple students using the permissive

style. Of the 29 participants, there were 11 individuals categorically classified as secure, 2 as

fearful, 3 as preoccupied, 6 as dismissing, and 7 that could not be classified. Means and standard

deviations are given in Table 1 for authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive discipline style by

attachment style.

To determine whether attachment classification was related to discipline style, a one-way

ANOVA was conducted for each of the discipline outcomes,

$F(4, 28) = .645$, $p > .05$ for authoritative discipline style,

$F(4, 28) = .923$, $p > .05$ for authoritarian discipline style, and $F(4, 28) = 3.89$, $p < .05$ for permissive discipline style. Thus, there was a significant effect only for permissive discipline style. Post-hoc analyses showed that dismissing individuals were more permissive than those in other attachment categories.

To determine whether discipline style was related to attachment style self-ratings, Pearson Product Moment Correlations were conducted. Dismissive ratings were positively correlated with permissive discipline style, Pearson $r(21) = .679$, $p < .001$. Permissive discipline style was also negatively correlated with preoccupied ratings, Pearson $r(20) = -.454$, $p < .05$.

Discussion

The present study explored the effects of teachers' attachment styles and their choice of discipline styles and the attachment style distribution among classroom teachers. It was hypothesized that teachers who were identified as having secure attachment style would be authoritative in discipline style, that people who were identified as fearful would discipline students with a permissive style, that dismissing individuals would discipline with the authoritarian style, and that preoccupied individuals would discipline students using the permissive style.

The first research question to look at is the distribution of attachment styles in comparison with the general population. In this study the distribution of attachment styles reflected 37.9% of participants classified as secure, 6.9% as fearful, 10.3% as preoccupied, 20.7% as dismissing, and 24.1% could not be classified. Past studies among adults 19 to 40 years of age reported that 47% were secure, 21% were fearful, 14% were preoccupied, and 18% were dismissive (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Other studies suggest that securely attached individuals are close to half of the population. Diehl, Elnick, Bourbeau and Labouvie-Vief

(1998) found while using the Bartholomew and Horowitz scale that 50.7% of the sample were classified as having a secure attachment style, 25.3% as dismissing, 15.8% as fearful and 8.2% as preoccupied. The proportion of the present study was similar to past findings.

The second aim of this study was to examine if teacher attachment styles were related to the level and type of discipline a student would receive. The results indicated that this was the case only for individuals who were identified as having a dismissive attachment style. In contradiction to the proposed hypothesis of dismissing individuals adapting an authoritarian discipline, style they instead used the permissive discipline style. An explanation of this could be that dismissing individuals desire to contribute less to close relationships, so they limit their contacts with their students. Hazan and Shaver (1990) found that avoidant individuals like to use their work to distance themselves from others in relationships. In similar findings Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) found that dismissing individuals view close relationships as obstacles that prevent them from reaching their ultimate goals in life. In regard to the teachers who are dismissive, it might be easier for them to ignore a child's disruptive behavior than to be forced into having a relationship with that child. Howes et al. (1994) found that for many teachers it is easier to neglect, isolate, or ignore a difficult child than to take the time to explore ways that they can improve their teacher-child relationship.

Even though this study did find some significant effects, there were some limitations to it. The first limitation is the participant sample size. The study produced a relatively small sample and because of this perhaps only a limited view of attachment styles among teachers. Another limitation is the unequal proportion of day care workers, public school teachers, and college students. A more diverse sample of teachers at different levels of their career could have produced a more informative view of what discipline tactics are used in their classrooms. Lastly, the wording of both the Close Relationship Questionnaire and the discipline survey may have

been confusing to some participants. Data from seven participants had to be omitted from analysis.

In summary, the above results and past research studies have shown that attachment styles do affect other areas of one's life. This study can help teachers understand what attachment is and how their own attachment style affects their teaching and how they discipline their students. In efforts to stop teacher burn-out and to achieve optimal student success in the classroom, the results of this study can lead to embedding attachment theory in teacher training as a useful tool in classroom management. Above all, it is imperative that future studies be done on the role of teacher attributes and children's success in the classroom.

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Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations for Attachment Styles by Discipline Styles.

	Attachment Styles				
Discipline Styles	S	F	P	D	<u>M</u>
Authoritarian	13.27^a	15.00^a	15.67^a	10.83^a	13.14
	(3.72)	(1.41)	(6.51)	(4.02)	(3.95)
Authoritative	27.55^b	29.00^b	26.00^b	24.83^b	26.76
	(4.63)	(1.41)	(4.00)	(3.44)	(3.88)
Permissive	11.27^c	10.50^c	6.67^c	15.83^d	10.76
	(5.39)	(2.12)	(3.06)	(4.58)	(5.09)

[1] Note: Standard deviation are given in parentheses.
Means sharing the same superscript within a row do not differ from one another.

Appendix A

Attachment and Discipline

Dear Research Participant,

My name is Mary Ukuku. I am a current member of the McNair Scholar's undergraduate summer research program at Georgia Southern University. I am interested in finding out whether teachers' attachment styles are associated with the grade level that they teach and how they discipline disruptive students.

In this study you will be asked to fill out one questionnaire about your current teaching status and you will be ask to complete an attachment style survey. After you have completed the questionnaires, you will be asked to read five case scenarios about different disruptive behaviors and what action you would take to discipline the children. The duration of these tasks will be approximately 20 minutes. There is no penalty if you decide not to take part in this study or choose to later withdraw from the study. Be assured that all responses will be kept confidential and that no one will be able to identify your response from those of others in the study.

If you have any questions or concerns about this research project, please call me at 404-931-7685 or email me at ub_1@yahoo.com. If you have any questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant in this study, they should be directed to the IRB Coordinator at the Office of Research Services and Sponsored Programs at (912) 681-5465.

Thank you for your participation in this study. If you would like a copy of the results, please indicate so in the space provided below.

I would like to participate in this study

(Sign) _____ (date)_____

Researcher _____ (date) _____

I would like to receive a copy of this results____ P.O.box_____

Appendix B

Please answer the following questions

Age___   Gender__   Classification:___

1. **What   grade   are   you   currently   student   teaching?**
   _____
   _____

2. **What   grade   do   you   eventually   want   to   teach?   Why?**
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

Please read each of the following statements and rate the extent to which you believe each statement best describes your feelings about <u>close relationships.</u> The scale is1- strongly agree; 2-agree; 3-neutral; 4- disagree 5- strongly disagree. Please indicate in the blank provided what number represents you.

___ It is relatively easy for me to become emotionally close to others. I am comfortable depending on others and having others depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having others not accept me.

__ I am somewhat uncomfortable getting close to others. I want emotionally close relationships, but I find it difficult to trust others completely, or to depend on them. I sometimes worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others.

__ I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others, but I often find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable being without close relationships, but I sometimes worry that others don't value me as much as I value them.

__ I am comfortable without close emotional relationships. It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on others or have others depend on me.

---
1 Bartholomew and Horowitz, (1991)

Appendix C

Case Scenarios

Please read the following case scenarios on disrupted behavior. After reading the scenarios you will be asked to indicate the appropriate discipline measures that need to be taken. Please read the case thoroughly and answer as honestly as you can.

Billy's third grade teacher announces that it is time for recess. She asks that the children quietly line up by the door. Billy is so excited that he doesn't hear the teacher's directions. He runs to the front of the line, nearly knocking down another child.

Rate each of the following disciplinary tactics according to appropriateness:

Rate each of the following disciplinary tactics according to appropriateness:

1= totally inappropriate, 3= somewhat appropriate, 5= totally appropriate

__ Explain to Billy that he must listen to instructions, and then make him go to the end of the line.

__ Refuse to allow Billy to have recess and send him to the Principal's office instead for punishment.

__ Ignore the behavior because you know it was unintentional.

Emily and Aisha's tenth grade class has gone on a field trip to the city museum. The girls' teacher has given strict instructions that all of the students are to stay with the group. However,

Emily and Aisha decide to explore the museum on their own and wander off for the remainder of the trip. The girls do not rejoin the group until five minutes before loading the bus.
   Rate each of the following disciplinary tactics according to appropriateness:

   1= totally inappropriate, 3= somewhat appropriate, 5= totally appropriate

__ Yell at the girls for holding up the rest of the group and warn that upon arrival that not only will their parents be called but they will also have a week's detention.

__ Pull the girls aside and express your disappointment in their behavior, and then tell them that their parents will be called and that they must apologize to the rest of the group for holding them up.

__ Say nothing directly to the girls because you feel that at least they made it safely back to the bus.