

ADMINISTRATIVE JOURNAL ISSUES



October 13th-14th, 2011

CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS



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Letter From the Editor-in-Chief



As I have worked with our Editorial Board to complete our first issue of the Administrative Issues Journal (AIJ), my thoughts kept turning to the day in October 2009 when the idea first started to percolate. During a long car trip back from Kansas, Dr. Parker and I developed the mission that is the foundation for our current success: to expand the knowledge of current multidisciplinary issues in administration. The AIJ provides a platform for the publication and promotion of viable blind-reviewed research at small colleges and regional universities throughout the United States. This first issue is a culmination of that vision, and our editorial board is very proud of the end result.

As with all adventuresome ideas, there were many hurdles that had to be overcome to create this outlet for research. First, it takes a team to accomplish this type of endeavor. I want to give thanks to a dedicated Editorial Board: Patsy Parker, Kelly Moor, Trisha Wald and Lisa Appeddu. Without their hard work, this journal would not have become reality. Perhaps the hardest working members of our team are our student workers, Wendy Slater and Evan Jarrett. Their organizational skills, focus, and dedication have made this process much easier for all of us, and we are sincerely thankful. Of course, these are only a few of the individuals that have been instrumental in producing this inaugural edition.

Second, it is critical that university sponsorship be available. Southwestern Oklahoma State University has provided support, and we want to give special thanks to: Dr. Les Crall, Dr. Ken Rose, Dr. Blake Sonobe, Karen Wilson, Anjana Patel, and our talented graphic artist Kyle Wright. Special thanks to our Advisory Editorial Board, the reviewers who took time to select the articles for our first edition, and to the authors that put their work forward for consideration.

I hope that each of you will take pleasure in reading the first issue of the Administrative Issues Journal. Our goal is to e-publish two issues a year and sponsor one conference for discussion of research and networking with other researchers. We look forward to your feedback and hope to see you at our conference in October.

Sincerely,

Tami Moser, Ph.D.
Editor-in-Chief

Advisory Board Members

Dr. Les Crall
Associate Dean, Southwestern Oklahoma State University
School of Business & Technology
les.crall@swosu.edu

Dr. Mary Aspedon
Full Time Professor, Southwestern Oklahoma State University
Department of Education
mary.aspedon@swosu.edu

Dr. Jama Rand
President, Seattle Research Partners, Inc.
jamarand@seattleresearchpartners.com

Dr. Michael Williams
Dean, Touro College
Graduate School of Business
michaelwilliams4@comcast.net

Dr. Virgil Van Dusen
Bernhardt Professor of Pharmacy, Southwestern Oklahoma State University
College of Pharmacy
virgil.vandusen@swosu.edu

Editorial Board Members

Dr. Tami Moser
Editor-in-Chief, Southwestern Oklahoma State University
School of Business & Technology
tami.moser@swosu.edu

Dr. Patsy Parker
Managing Editor, Southwestern Oklahoma State University
School of Business & Technology
patsy.parker@swosu.edu

Dr. Trisha Wald
Senior Legal Editor, Southwestern Oklahoma State University
School of Business & Technology
trisha.wald@swosu.edu

Dr. Kelly Moor
Copy/Production Editor, Southwestern Oklahoma State University
Language and Literature
kelly.moor@swosu.edu

Dr. Lisa Appeddu
Research Editor, Southwestern Oklahoma State University
School of Allied Health Sciences
lisa.appeddu@swosu.edu

Graduate Student Perceptions of an Effective Online Class

Steve M. Bounds
Arkansas State University

Online learning is a growing trend within the higher education community. As more universities offer more graduate programs totally online for the convenience of the older student who often has a family and full-time job it is imperative that instructors give attention to what students believe constitutes an effective online class. This paper surveyed 36 graduate students to determine what they considered important in an online course. Students want a professor who uses multimedia effectively, who establishes social interaction among students, who has a well-designed online format, who has an online presence, and who is available to students.

Keywords: online learning, graduate, pedagogy, statistics

Research has found that students want their professors to use technology, but only if it is used well (Kvavik & Caruso, 2005). Some specific technology-use complaints expressed by students included professors filling PowerPoint slides with lots of verbiage and simply reading them verbatim; failing to moderate discussion boards; and not making good use of the learning management system, or LMS (King, 2007).

Student learning is supported by effective course design (Eastmond, 2000). The organization of an online course is very important and usually requires a considerable amount of time to design and develop (Smith, Ferguson, & Carris, 2003; Li & Akins, 2005). Course navigation is a concern expressed by students. Students appreciated instructors whose course was well organized, carefully structured in an easily-navigated manner, and contained a detailed syllabus (Brescia, Miller, Ibrahima, & Murry, 2004; Young, 2006). Simply converting lecture notes to a format that can be posted on the LMS may not constitute an effective course design.

Some suggest that perhaps the most important aspect of teaching an online course is for the instructor to establish an online presence by going online regularly. Quick response to student questions, timely evaluation of submitted work, and occasional contributions to student discussions help establish this presence. The goal is for the instructor to be perceived as a real person who is interested in teaching the student (Johnson & Aragon, 2003; Wallace, 2003). Students have a tendency to expect the instructor to be available 24/7 to provide feedback in an online environment (Hillstock, 2005).

Careful course design that ensures social interaction has been cited as essential to counteract the feelings of alienation and isolation (Li & Akins, 2005; Thurston, 2005). Several researchers have found that the greater the interactivity in an online course, the more the students were satisfied and the more they learn (Little, Titarenko, & Bergelson, 2005).

Methods

The Effective Online Class Survey instrument was developed based on the findings in the review of literature. Thirty-six graduate students in an online statistics course were surveyed using the instrument. The survey considered 20 components typically found in an online class and the respondents were asked to indicate the level of importance the component was to them personally. A Likert scale with 7 choices was used where 1 represented being very important and 7 being not important at all. For purposes of this study a choice of 1, 2, or 3 indicated the student felt the component was important and a 5, 6, or 7 indicated it was not important. A choice of 4 was considered neutral. Simple descriptive statistics were computed.

Findings and Discussion

Most of the students who completed the survey were older and held full-time jobs. A third listed their age as 36+ and only three listed their age as under 25. There were only six individuals who were in their first online class and five reported they had taken ten or more online classes.

All students reported they wanted a well-organized course that was easy to navigate and easy to find materials. In fact, 92% of the respondents chose 1 as their response. Likewise, they wanted a course syllabus with expectations laid out in meticulous detail and an easy to read textbook that explained the material well.

When asked how important it was to have optional supplemental materials on the site that covered the same material, 75% responded it was important but only 11% said very important.

Seventy-seven percent felt it was important that the instructor use relevant examples from newspapers, magazines, TV news reports, etc. to illustrate the concepts being presented.

Students were divided equally over the importance of having material presented in an audio format but 81% felt it was important to have the instructor to use video to explain the concepts. However, seeing the instructor on the video was very important to only 25% of the respondents. It was also important to have the ability to download the video material for viewing offline but not important to have it in a format to be used by MP3 players, iPods, etc.

Students preferred lessons to be presented in several relatively short chunks instead of one long session. They also preferred working independently instead of in groups with only 17% reporting it was somewhat important to work in groups. However, nearly two-thirds felt it was important to interact with other students via a discussion board. Likewise, two-thirds felt it was important to have a forum on the discussion board where they could post and respond to questions about issues without being graded on it. It was important to students that the instructor have a presence on the discussion board with 40% saying it was very important.

Prompt feedback within 72 hours on assignments was important to all students with 75% responding that it was very important. It was also important to 89% of the students that the instructor maintain "online office hours" to respond to questions and provide feedback. Likewise, students felt it was important for the instructor to use humor in the class and, especially, to show enthusiasm for teaching the class with 95% giving it a 1 or 2.

The results of this study mirrored many of the results of previous studies. Students like a well-organized class taught by an instructor who injects humor into the class and shows enthusiasm for teaching the class. They especially want quick feedback on assignments that have been submitted. One surprising response, at least to the author, was that students felt it was important that the instructor maintain online office hours to answer questions and provide feedback. The experience has generally been that students want immediate answers 24/7 and prefer not to wait for a certain time of the day or week.

In classes where video lessons are used students like to see their instructor but do not necessarily want just a "talking head". Students who responded to the survey in this class viewed numerous videos without seeing the instructor that demonstrated how to use the software to perform statistical tests. Students also like the idea of being able to download the video lessons so they can view them offline at their convenience.

The use of discussion boards was another interesting response to the author. Two out of three students responded that it was important to have interaction with other students in the class via discussion boards. Students apparently feel the need to have a social connection with other members of the class. They want to know the other students and become acquainted (Koontz, Li, & Compore, 2006). This topic, despite recent studies, might warrant further research into the types of interactions students want to have with one another.

While this study used a relatively small sample and did not reveal any significant deviations from previous findings it did confirm that students want a professor who uses multimedia effectively, who establishes social interaction among students, who has a well-designed online format, who has an online presence, and who is available to students. As more instructors migrate their courses to an online delivery format attention should be given to what students believe constitutes an effective online class.

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Steve M. Bounds, Department of Educational Leadership, Curriculum, & Special Education, Arkansas State University.

Creating Opportunities: Gerontological Service Learning in a Community Practice Project

Cindy Brown

Rosalie Otters

Carolyn Turturro

University of Arkansas at Little Rock

Ten graduate gerontology students volunteered for a service learning project, My Life: Connect with Me, which was developed, supervised and evaluated by a graduate social work intern in a community practice internship. The social work intern trained volunteers in interviewing skills at a continuing care retirement community. Student volunteers' self-reported confidence in interviewing older adults was measured by a questionnaire created by the social work intern, using Likert scaling and short qualitative responses, as well as journaling. All student volunteers reported increases from pre to posttest, and the social work intern successfully completed all community internship competencies (Council on Social Work Education, 2008). The stakeholders have moved toward a broader implementation of this project.

Keywords: gerontology, service learning, life story, interviewing, community practice

Since January 2011 Baby Boomers have started to reach age 65. In fewer than twenty years (2030) almost one in five Americans will be age 65 or older (Vincent & Velkoff, 2010). Research attention needs to be focused on these older adults, who will, on average not only live longer but also have more quality-of-life concerns. The likelihood of health challenges increases with age, especially chronic and terminal diseases as well as other limitations to independence (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2009). Other concerns for older adults may be losses of family and friends, depleted financial resources and a need for increased socialization and sense of purpose in the midst of change.

Though opportunities are increasing for professionals to work in the aging community, the gap is widening between the increasing number of older adults and the small number of professionals. At least for the near future, too few gerontologists, social workers or other allied professionals have shown the interest, knowledge, or skills for working with older adults (Clark, Golden, Kane, & Rosen, 2010; Hooyman & Unetzer, 2010; Rosowsky, 2004).

Our university social work/gerontology program, in a midsize southern city, has sought to encourage intergenerational learning through service learning projects. Service learning is an excellent way to develop students' interest and abilities for working with older adults, combining not only structured learning through the student learning project, but also valuable service to others in the community (Gutheil & Chernesky, 2006; Hegeman, Horowitz, Tepper, Pillemer, & Schultz, 2002). My Life: Connect with Me is a service learning project developed by a second year student in the masters of social work, management of community practice (MCP) concentration that prepares students for macro level practice. This internship site, a disability program in a medical university, encourages participation in the larger community. Since this project is a collaboration which includes two separate universities, they will be distinguished by University One (social work/gerontology program) and University Two (disability program).

Research Overview

Butler (1963) introduced life review and reminiscence therapy, using older adults' own resources to enrich their life perspectives through developing personal life evaluations for review and possible resolution of past conflicts. Life story study comes out of this interest in understanding one's unique life, both for oneself and for others, also commonly seen in biographies, autobiographies, memoirs and other reflections on individual lives. Possible personal benefits may include a better quality of life through raised self esteem, improved coping skills, increased mental alert

ness, and translation of the life story into care interactions. (Butler, 2011; Haight & Webster, 2002).

The present life stories research project measures the efficacy of a three-hour training session. We are reporting on Stage One, a pilot study with graduate gerontology students interviewing residents about their life stories. The interviewing site is a non-profit continuing care retirement community (CCRC) which includes several levels of care. These residents come from campus cottage living, independent living, and residential care (assisted care).

For Stage One of this pilot study, implemented in Spring 2011, gerontology graduate students were assessed on their confidence in interviewing older adults. Ten graduate gerontology students in a Biology and Psychology of Aging class took part in this project for class credit. There was also an alternative assignment for those not wanting to take this opportunity. Two students also decided to interview other older adults rather than the CCRC residents. Though both graduate student interviewers and older adult interviewees could decide at any time to discontinue the interviews, the project had a 100% retention rate.

The research question asked: Does the life story interview training adequately prepare gerontology students to effectively interview aging residents? Students participated in a three-hour training session on life story interviewing with aging adults. This training included a tour of the CCRC facility, a general interviewing lesson and role play, a guide for My Life: Connect with Me interviews (adapted with permission from The Benevolent Society, 2005), and an introductory visit with a selected older adult. Each student then interviewed their older adult from three to nine times on their own for about forty-five minute visits.

IRB approval had been previously obtained from University One. Student data was de-identified and kept in a locked file separately from the consent forms which had been processed with each student. Student progress was measured by six self-reported ratings of confidence in interviewing older adults (Likert scale, five responses from strongly disagree to strongly agree) as well as a short qualitative question at the end of each pretest/posttest. The social work intern, who was also the IRB primary investigator, administered both the pre and posttests in the gerontology class. In addition, SOAP notes (a brief assessment plan) and a short journaling form were completed after each interview session to monitor student experiences throughout the project; regular class visit follow-ups were also made for verbal progress reports.

Results

Self-reported student confidence in interviewing older adults increased substantially from pre to posttests (Table 1). The group of ten students showed a favorable double digit delta percentage change of average score between pretest and posttest on all six questions. ($\Delta\% = 100(\text{Post-Pre})/\text{Pre}$.) The questions asked: Feeling prepared to conduct an interview with aging adults (18% increase); Confidence in interviewing skills (18% increase); Knowing what to do to calm an upset resident during the interview (26% increase); Knowing what questions to use during an interview (41% increase); Being comfortable interviewing aging adults (18% increase); Feeling less fearful of interviewing aging adults (23% decrease).

Seven students (70%) had never worked directly with older adults. One student felt that the service learning project "prepared them [gerontology students] to work with aging adults and complemented traditional classroom learning." Another student reflected: "I learned that our feelings don't age like our bodies. They can become cooped up, isolated and sad, but they are still sensitive and alive. No matter our age, we are all people and in the end our similarities are much greater than our differences."

At the end of the gerontology class students offered a visual or oral presentation of their older adult's life story. Students shared poster boards, short life theme summaries and even a cook book. Five older adult resident interviewees also attended, coming to the class in the continuing care retirement community van with the CEO of the facility. In addition, another graduate class and professor attended the

class presentation. Residents reported that they enjoyed being interviewed since it made them feel “alive” and “useful.” As one resident commented, “Who doesn’t like to talk about themselves!” Staff and caregivers previously commented that they too had learned more about residents’ life stories, even though some had spent years caring for them. There has been such a positive response to this project that the CCRC is now working with both University One (social work/gerontology program) and the disability program at University Two, to move into Stage Two, training Certified Nursing Assistant (CNA) interviewers who work with residents at the skilled nursing care level. The information shared will be used to personalize and improve the quality of care for each resident. Also, the social work intern in community practice has grown in her skill development through this project in her concentration year internship. Her internship project competency goals and outcomes are listed in the Appendix.

Conclusion

This pilot study is an exploratory one with a small convenience sample. As we evaluate this life story project, we find that three outcomes merit further collaboration with stakeholders (the CCRC staff and residents, the social work/gerontology program at University One and the disability program in University Two). First, student interviewees have increased their self-reported confidence in interviewing older adults through service learning. Second, the social work intern has been successful in developing her community practice competencies and has now graduated from the MSW program (May 2011). She continues to maintain her interest in a Stage Two of the project. Third, we have discovered the great desire of both the residents and caregiving staff at the CCRC to be part of a larger community experience. Based on the success of this interviewing intervention, these stakeholders are now developing Stage Two, seeking a training grant.

Each story in the larger community is unique. We are all story tellers and learning about one another’s life story can help us better appreciate not only others but also ourselves. “From one generation to the next, people find meaning and connection within a web of storymaking, storytelling, and storyliving. Through lifestories, human beings help to create the world they live in at the same time that it is creating them.” (McAdams, 1996, p. 148) Community practice development in gerontology requires the ability to both tell stories and understand them. This Stage One report is our story.

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Table 1
My Life: Connect with Me Student Outcomes (N=10)

	Question # 1	Question # 2	Question # 3	Question # 4	Question # 5	Question # 6	Row Total
Pre Test Average	3.9	3.8	3.4	3.2	3.8	(Post) 1.7	19.8
Post Test Average	4.6	4.5	4.3	4.5	4.5	(Pre) 2.2	24.6
Change	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.3	0.7	0.5	4.8
Percent Change	18%	18%	26%	41%	18%	23%	24%

Question 1	I feel prepared to conduct an interview with aging adults.
Question 2	I am confident in my interviewing skills.
Question 3	I know what to do during an interview to calm someone who is upset.
Question 4	I know what questions to use during an interview.
Question 5	I am comfortable interviewing aging adults.
Question 6	I am a little fearful of interviewing aging adults.

APPENDIX: SPRING 2011 GRADUATE MCP STUDENT COMPETENCIES/OUTCOMES*

Advanced Competencies

Masters Social Work, Management and Community Practice (MCP) Track

The following are Advanced Competencies used for Service Learning Project:

- Advanced Competency #1: Identifies as a professional social worker and conducts herself accordingly.
- Advanced Competency #2: Applies social work ethical principles to guide professional practice.
- Advanced Competency #3: Applies critical thinking to inform and communicate professional judgments.
- Advanced Competency #4: Engages diversity and difference in practice.
- Advanced Competency #5: Advances human rights and social and economic justice.
- Advanced Competency #6: Engages in research-informed practice and practice informed research.
- Advanced Competency #7: Applies knowledge of human behavior and the social environment
- Advanced Competency #8: Omitted.
- Advanced Competency #9: Responds to contexts that shape practice.
- Advanced Competency #10: Engages, assesses, intervenes, and evaluates with individuals, groups, organizations, and communities.

<p>MCP 1.1 Identifies opportunities for social workers to initiate and guide change efforts in organizations and communities: Assess current agency programs for aging adults with disabilities and identify a potential long term project to address any gaps by January 21, 2011.</p>
<p>MCP 2.1 Applies ethical decision-making skills to those issues specific to macro-practice situations and settings: Create confidentiality processes for at risk group (aging adults) and students by January 30, 2011.</p>
<p>MCP 3.1 With client systems, evaluates, selects, and uses appropriate tools for assessment, intervention, and evaluation: Conduct lit review to inform and design intervention tool (interview training manual, SOAP notes, journal questions, and pre and post tests by January 30, 2011.</p>

<p>MCP 3.1 With client systems, evaluates, selects, and uses appropriate tools for assessment, intervention, and evaluation: Conduct lit review to inform and design intervention tool (interview training manual, SOAP notes, journal questions, and pre and post tests by January 30, 2011).</p>
<p>MCP 3.2 Communicates effectively through multiple mediums with a diverse range of stakeholders, partners, and collaborators: Use the framework of inter-organizational theory to coordinate a service learning project with a diverse interdisciplinary team from three institutions including students and professors from University Two, project directors from University Two; and the director, director of nursing, activities coordinator and chaplain of the Continuing Care Retirement Community.</p>
<p>MCP 4.1. Works with macro level client systems to help them recognize and engage diversity and difference in ways that further organizational missions and community goals: Develop and implement a multigenerational service learning project to teach gerontology students interviewing skills for interviewing aging adults with disabilities and/or dementia (January 6, 2011 – May 19, 2011).</p>
<p>MCP 5.1. Works with macro level client systems to help them recognize and challenge the manifestations of systemic oppression, discrimination, and disempowerment: Develop a pilot program that can be replicated by certified nursing aides to create opportunities for professional development, growth, and empowerment (January 6, 2011 – May 19, 2011).</p>
<p>MCP 6.1. Uses appropriate theories, models, and research methods to support their approaches to initial assessment, intervention, and evaluation: Apply theories, models, and research methods to effectively develop a training program to teach life story and reminiscence therapy interview skills to students for use in a service learning project with aging adults by February 15, 2011.</p>
<p>MCP 6.2. Works with client systems to clarify and deepen program logic models and to incorporate meaningful evaluation in their ongoing activities: Develop pre and post tests to measure the efficacy of the My Story: Connect with Me program by January 30, 2011.</p>
<p>MCP 7.2. Uses theoretical models and frameworks to understand and intervene in organizations and communities: Design an intervention based on life story and reminiscence therapy models for residents in a Continuing Care Retirement Community by January 30, 2011.</p>
<p>MCP 9.1 Helps macro level client systems observe, critically assess, and respond to changes, or need for changes, in the political, economic, social, technological, and cultural systems that affect them: Assist a Continuing Care Retirement Community determine opportunities for change to meet growing needs of disabled aging populations (January 6, 2011 – May 19, 2011).</p>

MCP 10.1 Substantively and affectively prepares for action with individuals, groups, organizations, and communities: Prepare a training class for graduate students to prepare them to intervene with older disabled residents by February 15, 2011.
MCP 10.2 Uses empathic responding and other interpersonal skills: Incorporate empathic responding and interpersonal communication skills into student training and practice these skills during follow up sessions with the students throughout the project (January 6, 2011 – May 19, 2011).
MCP 10.3 Develops with one's client systems a mutually agreed-on focus of work and desired outcomes: Develop and clarify project objectives with participants in the life stories project including University One Social Work/Gerontology Program and University Two Disability Program (where student interns), and the Continuing Care Retirement Community by January 30, 2011.
Assessment:
MCP 10.4. Collects, organizes, and interprets client-system data: Collect, organize, and interpret evaluation pre and post test data for student service learning project (January 6, 2011 – May 19, 2011).
MCP 10.5. Assesses client systems' strengths and limitations: Assess students' current experience and confidence levels in working with older adults and address gaps in training by February 15, 2011.
MCP 10.6. Develops clear and mutually agreed-on goals and objectives of interventions: Submit request to internal review board including research project goals, objectives, and interventions by January 21, 2011.
MCP 10.7. Selects appropriate intervention strategies: Research literature to determine appropriate intervention strategy for life stories project and document in weekly journal by March 31, 2011.
Intervention
MCP 10.8. Initiates actions to achieve group, organizational, and community goals, helping client systems to resolve problems and capitalize on opportunities: Initiate meeting with people from University One Social Work/Gerontology Program and University Two Disability Program who are interested in developing an intervention program based on person-centered care and document in weekly journal by February 15, 2011.
MCP 10.9. Increases client systems' own capacities to accomplish their goals: Develop a service learning activity that is sustainable over the long term to compliment classroom learning in the University One Gerontology Program (January 6, 2011 – May 19, 2011).
Evaluates:
MCP 10.10. Critically analyzes, monitors, and evaluates one's own practice interventions: Regularly monitor and evaluate the progress and impact of the service learning project including the training for students and the quality of student interaction with residents (January 6, 2011 – May 19, 2011).

MCP 10.11. Critically analyzes, monitors, and evaluates the effectiveness of social welfare programs: Complete data collection and evaluation of student learning project from pre and posttest results and from qualitative interviews by May 19, 2011.

MCP 10.12. Applies the findings of evaluation to make modifications in their own behaviors and choices, and in program design and implementation: Improve study design based on feedback from students and residents to be incorporated into step two of the project by May 19, 2011.

* Council on Social Work Education (2008). Educational policy and accreditation standards. Retrieved from <http://www.cswe.org/Accreditation/2008EPAS>

Cindy Brown is working towards a Masters in Gerontology, applying her skills from both a successful business career with Xerox and the competencies learned in a community practice MSW program to design and implement an ongoing service learning project with a continuing care retirement community.

Dr. Otters teaches in both the first year MSW social work program and the gerontology program (Graduate Certificate and MA). Social work courses: Foundations I (Individuals) and II (families and groups). Social work and gerontology courses: Aging and Social Policy I (Social Security and Retirement), Aging and Social Policy II (Medicare/Medicaid), Social and Emotional Implications of Illness and Disability, and Social Aspects of Death and Dying.

Dr. Carolyn Turturro is the coordinator of the Graduate Gerontology Program which offers a Graduate Certificate in Gerontology and a Master of Arts in Gerontology. The interdisciplinary program is housed in the School of Social Work. Dr. Turturro teaches coursework in the gerontology and graduate and undergraduate social work programs. Courses taught include Research Methods, Statistics, Evaluation Research, Biology & Psychology of Aging.

Anomalies in the System: Is a New Educational Paradigm Upon Us?

Ed Cunliff

John Barthell

University of Central Oklahoma

In this article, we describe the palpable changes of a paradigm shift in higher education. Although this shift has been described and/or predicted elsewhere, we affirm the transition from over 30 years of collective teaching and administrative experience at a predominantly undergraduate institution (PUI) with historical roots as a state normal school. In many respects, the anomalies that Thomas Kuhn predicted in such a transition are all the more evident given our institution's history. These anomalies include (but are not limited to) 1) the state of knowledge "ownership" (as mediated by the internet), 2) student-centered (vs. faculty-centered) educational practices, 3) the transition in student approaches to learning (primarily to technology), 4) organizational changes (including administrative ones) and 5) the change in public funding patterns for universities. We conclude that research-intensive and teaching-intensive universities are converging on a more process-oriented approach to education with less emphasis on prescriptive outputs while assuming a greater role in developing their own funding autonomy in response to the dwindling number of dollars taken in by public universities today. We recommend to readers a more rapid and explicit recognition of this paradigm shift, before we lose our existing educational missions to the consequences of this transition between paradigms.

Keywords: Higher Education, Internet, Knowledge, Paradigm, Student-centered

The educational system we participate in today is, in some ways, a relic of the medieval *universitas magistrorum* concept born of the European Renaissance period. With the assistance of tuition and fees, faculty members within universities deliver their lessons with the expectation that students will assimilate knowledge to their benefit for employment or for the purpose of becoming a more informed citizen. This system promotes an intellectual authority figure in the classroom who oversees the teaching process. However, we are seeing increasing signs that this traditional educational system may be changing. Barr and Tagg (1995) use Thomas Kuhn's notion of a "paradigm" to help describe this transition occurring in higher education.

In 1962, Kuhn published his treatise entitled "The Structure of Scientific Revolutions" (Kuhn, 1962). His basic premise was that ideas in the scientific community are restricted to broadly held models (paradigms) that are tightly governed by the adherents of these models; non-complying members of the community are often severely reprimanded for challenging the status quo. Conformity among members is facilitated through a "puzzle-solving" approach to highly tractable problems. All problems are therefore acceptable to the community as long as the self-referential rules of the model are not broken. However, as the rules of a given paradigm fail, and can no longer be obviated by experts, anomalies appear. Eventually, the accumulation of these anomalies generates a "crisis stage" within which the community must face the shortfalls of its model and reject it to accommodate a sudden and often sociologically traumatic transition to a new model.

It is fair to compare the developing transition in higher education to Kuhn's paradigm transition (Scientific Revolution). The "rules" of this model are embedded in centuries of practice and woven into educational methodologies that now exist in formalized curricula. This content-oriented model has actually been under scrutiny for some time. Nineteenth century higher education in the United States, for example, was influenced by people like John Dewey, Charles Pierce and others who wanted an experiential component to graduate education (Menand, 2001). Undergraduate education is now being re-examined for its relevance to the learning process as overviewed by the Boyer Commission (Kenny, 1998). Several versions of this theme exist as 1) practice-oriented education (Freeland, 2004), 2) high impact learning activities (Kuh, 2007), 3) experiential education (Dewey, 1938), 4) adult education or andragogy (Knowles, 1970) and 5) transformative learning (Mezirow, 2000). Below, we identify at least five areas ("anomalies")

that suggest that our current perspective on teaching is no longer relevant, affirming Barr and Tagg's perspective from 1995.

Knowledge Ownership

Knowledge Ownership. Perhaps the most significant shift between paradigms lies within the heart of the educational process itself – the transmission of knowledge. This change has occurred both in the ownership of knowledge and in the definition of how one acquires knowledge in the educational system. Knowledge, in the sense of information, has been the property of experts for centuries. The invention of the printing press in 1493 was the first step in creating widely accessible information. Even this invention was limited in its impact as there were limits to production of books and their cost put them out of reach for many people.

While a faculty member may carry years of well-synthesized information within his or her mind (and lecture notes), there is little that is not accessible to the student with a PC (or a PDA) and internet access. Knowledge (as facts) is no longer within the purview of universities. Rather, it is now at the fingertips of people throughout the world who only need to be able to type a keyword or phrase to assemble some of the most up-to-date information available on a subject. We see advantages and disadvantages to this new reality, including the threat of intellectual homogenization that accompanies the absence of physical barriers to communication (Friedman, 2005; Barthell & Wells, 2006). However, nobody can deny that the internet is here to stay and that it must be incorporated into our ideas of how to educate students. (No one over the age of forty can help but be somewhat astonished by the quick and easy access to information today. A Google™ search of the phrase “paradigm shift”, during the writing of this article, yielded 2,650,000 hits.)

Student Centered

The term “student-centered” has become more common in higher education and represents another significant shift in thinking from the early days of experiential education as promoted by Dewey (1938) and the Progressive Movement of the early 1900's. Malcolm Knowles and the concept of andragogy that he promoted was strongly based on student needs, but somehow was not applied to undergraduate students (1970). Johns Hopkins University was one of the original institutions to promote direct practice of and innovation of research with graduate students (Menand, 2001).

Student-centered has come to define different and potentially disparate perspectives (Malachowski, 2006). At its heart is the idea that students should be actively involved in their learning, an idea that most educators and citizens would support; at its extreme is the student as customer model. The advent of terms like “learning-centered” typifies a shift toward a greater focus on process and the active involvement of both faculty and students. Peter Senge's *The Fifth Discipline* (1990) and *Schools That Learn* (2000) provide a model for such a learning organization.

Not the Same Student

Not the Same Student. Can US higher education continue to serve students when many of those being “served” do not participate fully in classroom activities? Can an institution reliant on the interaction between faculty and students survive when one partner is only partially involved? Students who would give up daily luxuries for their higher education seem to exist outside of the USA, but it is relatively uncommon here. Today's student may not even list education as their top priority during the time they are enrolled. Education competes for their attention with jobs, families or other activities – sometimes provided by the institution itself. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (2007) 38% of enrollments in higher education are now over the age of 25. As evidence of this new reality, the United States, for the first time in history, may soon produce a generation of people less educated than their parents.

Higher education institutions are being asked to account for students' graduation rates. The standard four-year degree has now been accepted as six years for most institutions as evidenced by the Student Right to Know Act and the retention and graduation calculations we currently use in institutional research offices. Regardless of the origin of such a focus, would anyone argue that these are the same students who were so beloved by yesterday's lecturers?

Organizational Structure

The bureaucratic growth of academic institutions is visible in the increased growth on the administrative side of higher education. In addition, the number of non-tenure track faculty members (part-time and full-time adjuncts and lecturers) exceeds that of tenure track faculty at many institutions. The challenge for the future will therefore be how to better integrate this component of the faculty workforce into our academic institutions. Without this effort, the concept of "faculty governance" may recede in practice in higher education, reminiscent of health care forty years ago where physicians ran hospitals until they were overwhelmed with issues outside of their expertise and replaced by those trained in management.

Institutions have also chosen to partner with external entities for reasons ranging from a sense of social responsibility to the identification of revenue streams, to the value added to student learning. External entities, primarily sources at the state and federal levels, have sought greater accountability for the billions of dollars required to operate institutions of higher education. Any analysis of the Higher Education Reauthorization Act of 2008 makes it clear that more accountability for these and other revenue streams is part of the agenda for the future.

Public Support for Financing Higher Education

The decrease in state support for public education is well documented. At times the justification is competition from other state agencies, and other times it seems to stem from a lack of confidence in the productivity of institutions as evidenced through attempts at performance based funding. Regardless of the rationale, this funding environment has had an increasing influence on the Academy in the 20th and 21st centuries, yielding a delicate nexus of educational interests and those of external funding agencies.

Accompanying the pressure on institutions to find external funding is the rise in tuition and fees to compensate for the decrease in public funding. The point has been made that students pay for "a whole bundle of things, like student activities, parking, athletics, and health services, whether or not they want to buy them or can afford them" (Rinella cited by Dessoif in *University Business* March 2009), perhaps reflecting a diversification in the interests of the average undergraduate as well as those of the entrepreneurial nature of modern universities. These investments are often responsive to market shifts, but may also risk dilution of institutional commitments to core curricula.

Conclusion

In this essay we have identified five anomalies in the current educational paradigm. This paradigm is one that does not necessarily account for a growing independence of students from the traditional educational model. So what is the impending paradigm to which we are shifting in education? We may not be fully cognizant of it until it clicks into place and becomes a widespread reality among academicians. However, the outcome appears to be characterized by an independence of students from the traditional lecturer at the podium. The ease of retrieving large volumes of information on short notice through the computer-assisted world of the modern student (and faculty member) is nothing short of astounding when compared with only a few decades ago. The new paradigm seems to be one that will be defined more by outcomes of process than prescriptive standards for content.

Using Kuhn's model for understanding intellectual change, there may be more opportunities for writing our own response to the anomalies we are observing in higher education. Indeed, these anomalies may be as much a reflection of a change in technology as a misunderstanding about how to educate students. We can choose to delay the change and deny that it is a major shift in the educational playing field (just as scientists employ ad hoc

hypotheses to avoid conclusions about mainstream hypotheses). A second response is to flail about with quick fixes, searching for another survival mechanism (a “crisis stage” according to Kuhn). Lastly, following Galileo’s lead, those of us in higher education can make a conscious decision to accept that a paradigm change is occurring. At our own institution, we have made a conscious effort to move in such a direction (Barthell et al. 2010; Cunliff & Barthell, 2010). In this way we can produce a model for higher education that can be understood in the face of the anomalies we have described in this article. A first step in accepting such a new educational system is to begin discussing its emerging characteristics.

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Dr. Ed Cunliff has over 30 years experience in innovative organizational development. He has worked in social services, health care and higher education and has served in a consultative role with dozens of organizations. His areas of expertise include organizational development, planning for systemic change, creative problem solving and group facilitation. He is adept at systems thinking and quality improvement processes. He holds a Bachelors in Spanish, a Masters in Human Relations and a PhD in Adult Education. Ed is a strong believer in life-long learning for himself personally and professionally. In his spare time he practices Aikido and repairs guitars and mandolins.

Dr. John F. Barthell has served as the Dean of the College of Mathematics and Science at the University of Central Oklahoma (UCO) for the last four and one-half years, serving previously as Associate Dean of the same college and, previous to that, as the Assistant Dean of the Joe C. Jackson College of Graduate Studies and Research (also at UCO). A Professor of Biology, Dr. Barthell maintains an active, student-centered and international research program that involves nine collaborators from four countries (Bulgaria, Greece, Turkey and the United States). His interest in Transformative Learning emphasizes undergraduate research, and he is currently the PI or co-PI of three National Science Foundation grants that support such activities (including a "Research Experiences for Undergraduates" grant). As Dean, Dr. Barthell's focus has been on producing a faculty development model that supports the teacher-scholar role for faculty members in his college. He is the author of over 40 articles pertaining to the biology of insect invasions as well as other topics relating to Transformative Learning on the UCO campus. In addition to being a CUR Councilor, he serves as the Chair of the Deans' Council for the Oklahoma (NIH) IDeA Networks for Biomedical Research Excellence (INBRE) grant. Dr. Barthell received his BA (in Zoology) and PhD (in Entomology) at the University of California at Berkeley.

A Comparative Analysis of Cultural Competence in Beginning and Graduating Nursing Students

Deborah Davenport
Helen Reyes
Lance Hadley
West Texas A&M University

The ethnic proportions of the population in the United States are rapidly changing, with the nation's minority population at approximately 101 million. This is also true for the West Texas region, where locally in a city with 183,000 residents, 43 different languages are spoken suggesting that cultural education needs to be included in nursing program curricula. Therefore, a study was conducted during a period of curriculum revision to determine if the current nursing curriculum at West Texas A&M University offers enough education and experience for graduating nurses to care for such a diverse population by comparing their perceptions of cultural competence with beginning sophomore nursing students' perceptions. Participants were asked to complete the Cultural Competence Assessment (CCA) tool in order to evaluate perceptions of cultural competence. Upon analysis of the data, perceptions of cultural competence among graduating nursing students was significantly higher ($p=.002$) than the perceptions of cultural competence among beginning nursing students. These results support that nursing students perceive they become culturally competent during their nursing education, leading to implications of the need for continued education relating to this concept, beginning with the first course and continuing throughout the nursing curriculum.

Keywords: cultural competence, nursing education, research, policy

It is expected by the year 2050, the Black, Hispanic, and Asian ethnic group percentages within the population will rise dramatically, and the Caucasian population will drop to approximately 51% (Zoucha, 2000). Yet, it is estimated that only 10% of registered nurses in the United States come from a minority group. The lack of diversity in the nursing profession mandates a need for cultural competence education in order to provide culturally competent care to an ethnically diverse patient population that is increasing (Gonzalez, Gooden, & Porter, 2000).

Nursing curricula must provide a foundation for the development of cultural competence that allows for acquisition of knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Campinha-Bacote, 2006; Breier-Mackie, 2007; & Calvillo et al., 2009). In studies of cultural competence education in nursing, findings support that the addition of culturally competent content increases scores on culturally competence measures, as students gain experience during progression through the curricula (Majumdar, Browne, Roberts, & Carpio, 2004; Doorenbos, Schim, Benkert, & Borse 2005; Lampley, Little, Beck-Little, & Xu, 2008; & Brennan & Cotter, 2008). Similarly, qualitative studies that examined cultural competence discovered emerging models for increasing cultural competence through education based on the patients' perspectives, as well as that of nurses, and student nurses (Reeves & Fogg, 2006; Leishman, 2004; Upvall & Bost, 2007; Garrett, Dickson, Young, Whelan, & Forero, 2008; & Wikberg & Eriksson, 2008).

Purpose, Rationale, and Research Question of the Study

The research question which framed this study was: Is there a higher perception of cultural competence among graduating nursing students as compared to beginning nursing students? For the purpose of this study, culture was defined as beliefs and values of a particular group that are learned and shared (Leininger & McFarland, 2002). Cultural competence was theoretically defined as a process by which nurses strive to achieve the ability and availability to work within a cultural context of a patient, family, or community (Campinha-Bacote, 2003). Cultural competence was

operationally defined by a total score on the Cultural Competence Assessment (CCA) tool (Doorenbos, Schim, Benkert, & Borse, 2005). A beginning nursing student was defined as a nursing student in the first clinical semester and a graduating nursing student was defined as a nursing student in the last clinical semester of a baccalaureate nursing curriculum.

Theoretical Frameworks

Leininger's Transcultural Nursing Theory (1978) posits that caring serves to improve human conditions through behaviors, techniques, processes, and patterns. In addition, caring behaviors are illuminated as key concepts to providing quality care through the lens of culture. Culture is determined by one's personal life and worldviews. Caring and culture are linked to one another, and nursing education should be aimed at preserving, maintaining, accommodating, negotiating, and restructuring care patterns as these relate to the individual's cultural perspectives (Chinn & Kramer, 2004).

The 3-Dimensional Puzzle Model of Culturally Congruent Care was also chosen to guide this study. The four basic components of the cultural competence puzzle at the health care provider level include cultural diversity, cultural awareness, cultural sensitivity, and cultural competence (Schim, Doorenbos, Benkert, & Miller, 2007). This study tested quantitatively the fourth puzzle piece, cultural competence, using the CCA, as it measures perception to the actions taken in response to cultural diversity, cultural awareness, and cultural sensitivity.

Findings

The design of this study was a comparative, descriptive design, testing for differences between beginning nursing students ($n=46$) in their first clinical course and graduating nursing students ($n=53$) in a baccalaureate nursing program. The age range for the beginning nursing student participants was 19-35 years ($M = 22.54$) and for the graduating nursing student participants 21-65 years ($M = 27.53$). The average age of the graduating nursing students was statistically higher compared to the average age of the beginning nursing students ($t[df=97] = -3.617, p=.000$). The racial/ethnic self-identification of the beginning nursing students included 24% Hispanic/Latino, 61% White/Caucasian, 4% Black/African American, and 11% Asian. The racial/ethnic self-identification of the graduating nursing students included 4% Hispanic/Latino, 72% White/Caucasian, 19% Black/African American, and 4% Asian.

Mean scores for the beginning and graduating nursing students are reported in table 1. The graduating nursing students demonstrated a higher mean score for the CAS and the CCB (e.g., 6.018 & 4.590 respectively) as compared to the beginning nursing students (e.g., 5.695 & 3.453 respectively), indicating the graduating nursing students have greater perceived cultural awareness and sensitivity, and perceive that they demonstrate more culturally competent behaviors. However, it was noted the beginning nursing students demonstrated a lower score on the Marlowe-Crown Social Desirability Scale as compared to the graduating nursing students (e.g., 7.00 & 7.75 respectively). This indicates the beginning nursing students have a slightly less need for approval than do the graduating nursing students. Independent t test findings demonstrated that perceptions of cultural diversity were significantly higher in the graduating nursing student group ($t[df=97] = -3.233, p = .002$).

One confounding variable encountered was that the perceived cultural competence of the graduating nursing students was expected to be higher due to group's greater mean age, which was statistically significant. A generalized linear model was conducted, using the CCA scores as the dependent variable and age as a predictor ($X^2[df=23] = 22.47, p=.49$), which suggests older age alone is not a sufficient variable for being culturally competent. Univariate analysis of variance on the dependent variable of the CCA scores with age held as the covariate was not statistically significant ($F=0.60[df=1], p=0.80$). The amount of variance in the dependent variable that is shared with age is 0.1% ($R^2=.001$). Reliability statistics were completed on the CCA for this sample, which resulted in Cronbach's Alpha = .823.

See Table 1

Future Recommendations

The findings of this study cannot be generalized beyond the geographical setting, as these were specific to the nursing population at this university. An additional limitation was that only two cohorts were examined in one measurement in time; whereas, an ongoing analysis would provide stronger results. It is recommended that a longitudinal study be utilized throughout all levels of baccalaureate nursing education to measure progress of cultural competence education as each student cohort progresses through the nursing program.

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Table 1. Subscale Mean Scores

Student Group	CAS Subscale	CCB Subscale	Marlowe-Crown Social Desirability Scale
Beginning Student			
Mean	5.695	3.453	7.00
N	46	46	46
Standard Deviation	4.544	1.210	2.477
Minimum Score	4.454	0.000	1
Maximum Score	6.545	6.000	13
Graduating Student			
Mean	6.018	4.590	7.75
N	53	53	53
Standard Deviation	5.295	1.132	2.336
Minimum Score	4.727	2.142	3
Maximum Score	7.000	6.785	12

Dr. Deborah Davenport is the Associate Department Head for Undergraduate Nursing at West Texas A&M University. Her background is in critical care and complex situations and has been a nursing educator for 28 years.

Dr. Helen Reyes is the Department Head for Nursing at West Texas A&M University. She has a background in nursing administration and has been in academia for 14 years. She received her doctorate at Liberty University focusing on Educational Leadership.

A 3-Prong Approach to a Competency-Based Curriculum

Tina Fields

Texas State University – San Marcos

As job opportunities for health administration students become more competitive, it is crucial for departments to develop “cutting edge” opportunities for their students. Taking the lead from other health profession curricula, health administration departments are developing overarching competencies that demonstrate outcome qualities of their students. The competency-based curriculum results in students who can demonstrate specific competencies at the time of their graduation. For the past three years, the School of Health Administration at Texas State University-San Marcos has used a three-prong competency-based curriculum to ensure “career readiness” of students.

Keywords: competencies; competency-based curriculum; career readiness; curriculum development

As job opportunities for health administration students become more competitive, it is crucial for departments to develop “cutting edge” opportunities for their students. Taking the lead from other health profession curricula, health administration departments are developing overarching competencies that demonstrate outcome qualities. The competency-based curriculum is a focused effort of all faculty and results in students who can demonstrate specific competencies upon their graduation from the curriculum. An important component of this curriculum is a final demonstration of successful knowledge and skill sets. For the past three years, the School of Health Administration at Texas State University-San Marcos has used a required EXIT exam, along with a capstone course and field placement, to demonstrate student capabilities as they enter the workforce. As the paradigm has shifted from a knowledge-based curriculum to a competency-based curriculum, faculty has focused on curriculum adaptations that have resulted in students who are better prepared to enter the workforce.

The Competency-Based Curriculum

Competency-based curriculum (CBC), as opposed to outcomes-based curriculum, focuses on accountability and curricular outcomes that promote student-centered learning. It also focuses on the application, not merely acquisition, of knowledge (Ruddlesdin, Wentworth, Bhat, & Baker, 2010). Since competency infers the highest level of what students should demonstrate, CBC suggests a framework whereby skill sets are mastered, with these skills integrated through numerous courses. Instructors work together to identify skill sets that are paramount in the workforce and then develop individualized class activities that address the skills. In this way, instructors provide opportunity for students to recognize how the skill set can be applied in numerous courses. Students internalize that the competency, not mere knowledge, is what will be most important in the workforce arena (LeCuyer, DeSocio, Brody, Schlick, & Menkens, 2009).

Competency-based curriculum, a new approach in health administration, has been addressed in other disciplines for over fifty years. In the early 1970s, a new type of workforce was needed. Manufacturers no longer needed people who functioned in “conveyor belt” fashion but needed people who could solve problems and work in teams. This was the beginning of the competency model, which focused on outcomes (Harrison & Mitchell, 2006). Large corporations such as Toyota recognized the importance of this paradigm shift, and Toyota’s success in the twentieth century was attributed to revamping management toward outcomes-based work (Coffman & Gonzalez Molina, 2002). thinking.

Although touted as a revelation in the workforce, the concept of competency based curricula had been outlined as early as 1949 as a better approach to education (Tractenberg, Umans, & McCarter, 2010). However, the melding of the need for workforce competency and education competency did not occur until the workplace identified the

need to have a new workforce and called upon educators to train people with the abilities to analyze and synthesize information and not merely to “know” facts.

Competency-Based Curricula in Health Professions

Health professions began to incorporate competency-based training in the early 21st century (Frank et. al, 2010; Jippes, vanEngeden, Brand, & Oudkerk, 2010; LaCuyer, DeSocio, Brody, Schlick, & Menkens, 2009; Seale, Shellenberger, & Clark, 2010). With increasing use of technology in healthcare, physicians and other health professionals developed new skill sets that incorporated existing medical knowledge with new procedures and equipment. Health providers could not afford to rely on the “business as usual” format, as patients, savvy with the Internet, demanded procedures that were more current. Thus, health providers served as the motivation for health professions schools to address the need for curricula that better met the needs of the work environment.

The curricula at the health professions schools have continued to focus on competency-based outcomes. According to Weinberger et al. (2010), the education model has changed from acquisition to application of knowledge. Equally important, students are responsible for the speed of their learning, so those who grasp a concept easily can continue at one speed whereas others take more time to learn the concept. Because students assume more responsibility for mastering the content, the assessment of their skills is integrated with the learning process. Teacher and student work together to identify areas of need and then analyze the learning throughout the process and not merely at the end of the process. Thus, students are evaluated by how well they meet an objective (a criterion) and not compared to others within their class (norm or reference standards). This paradigm shift has placed more emphasis on self-analysis and self-learning, concepts that will be used throughout the students’ professional career (Bierer, Dannefer, Taylor, Hall, & Hull, 2009; Harrison & Mitchell, 2006).

Competency-Based Curriculum in Health Administration

With competency-based health professionals entering the workforce, health administrators were forced to analyze needs of the workplace environment. Health professionals demanded more accountability of the ancillary staff; they also demanded more intricate technology/equipment that necessitated team approaches to care. Ancillary personnel had to be able to work in teams, to adapt in an expedient manner, and to apply concepts to new situations. Administrators needed skills to motivate staff to work in teams and to address expediently problems heretofore never considered.

Based upon these identified skill sets, health administrators advised health administration schools/departments of the need to have managers/administrators that entered the workplace with an existing career skill set. Accreditation organizations have used this demand to create competency-based certification programs that ensure students who enter the workforce are “career ready.”

A 3-Prong Model of a Competency-Based Curriculum

The School of Health Administration (SOHA) at Texas State University-San Marcos has developed a conceptual model that addresses competencies. Three overarching activities have been designed to work cohesively to determine if SOHA students have the skill set needed to enter the workforce with a unique advantage over their competition. The three areas include a capstone course focusing on analyzing and synthesizing, a coordinated field placement that focuses on application, and a comprehensive EXIT examination.

These three areas rely heavily on the faculty working together to identify and develop career ready skill sets. Faculty have agreed to standardization within the curriculum and have worked together to create culminating events that ensure that students entering the workforce have a skill set that transcends courses and that can be applied to unique workplace situations.

Once this skill set had been identified, faculty worked together to develop a scaffolding approach whereby the needed skills were linked to courses and the level of proficiency was identified. Faculty defined proficiency by levels

– basic, intermediate, mastery – based on a standard definition. Having the same vision of the levels of proficiency, faculty could mesh competencies with proficiency levels for the courses they taught. Some courses, especially the first semester health administration courses, targeted introductory proficiency because faculty knew in which advanced course a higher proficiency level would occur. By using this scaffolding approach, faculty was then able to develop an EXIT exam that determined if students had the necessary competencies to enter the ever-changing workforce.

Findings

The capstone course, taken the senior year, allows students to synthesize information from previous courses as they address “real world” scenarios. Students apply foundation courses and writing skills as they individually address 10 scenarios and apply their team building skills as they prepare a final scenario. The EXIT exam, also taken the senior year, is a 200-item test that includes 12 questions from each health administration course and 8 questions on professionalism. EXIT questions are based on standardized class objectives and address key issues that should remain constant regardless of instructor or text selection. Finally, after successful completion of the capstone and EXIT, students participate in a 600-hour field placement. Field preceptors work closely with SOHA faculty to structure meaningful field experience, with the culmination being a project that students present to the agencies.

The outcome of the three-prong approach has been students who are better equipped to handle challenges in the real world. Student grades in the EXIT exam have improved since the inception of this model. Students have demonstrated better ability to synthesize material and have shown improvement in their writing skills through the capstone course. Finally, students have expressed more confidence in their skill sets, and this has been substantiated by preceptor feedback.

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Tina Taylor Fields, PhD, MPH is currently an associate professor at the School of Health Administration, Texas State University – San Marcos, San Marcos, Texas. Prior to coming to Texas State, Dr. Fields was the Director of the Center for South Texas Programs, The University of Texas Health Science Center – San Antonio. Dr. Fields uses her experience as a planner at the Brownsville Community Health Center (Brownsville, Texas) and as a public health administrator (Cameron County, Texas) to develop competency-based curricula for the undergraduate and graduate public health courses at the School of Health Administration. Dr. Fields has her M.S. and Ph.D. from Texas A&M University and a M.P.H. from the University of Texas School of Public Health. Dr. Fields remains active in maternal and child health issues along the Texas/Mexico Border.

Two Professional Learning Community Camps: Differing Opportunities

Glen Hartsoch
The University of Houston

One of the newest ideas du jour is the idea of the Professional Learning Community (PLC). Since the late 1990s, schools across the Southwest and the Heartland have been embracing the concept of the PLC at a fever pitch. Marketing materials and more recently empirical reports are beginning to surface describing what this concept is and how effective it is. It is certainly a concept related to many others that have come before. However, the literature on the idea of the PLC shows it to be something new and never really truly holistically explained in the past. Two camps have arisen to explain this concept. One concentrates on the community aspect of the PLC and the other concentrates on the learning aspect. Opportunities are offered to educators to take ownership of their practice and to students in having their educational needs truly met based on data. Educational administrators seeking to implement or support such an effort on their campus should have an understanding of the literature differences of the two camps or they might implement something other than a PLC based on the literature.

Keywords: Hartsoch PLC Professional Learning Community

There is some disagreement over what exactly constitutes a Professional Learning Community (PLC). There is general agreement about most of the broad characteristics or variables of a PLC but these minor disagreements blur the definition and cause educators some confusion when setting up PLCs on their campuses. Two schools emerge when one reads the literature on PLCs creating the proverbial apples and oranges. The first school centers on Shirley M. Hord (Hord, 1997) and consists of such persons as Delores B. Lindsey, Linda D. Jungwirth, Jarvis V.N.C. Pahl, Randall B. Lindsey (Lindsey, 2009), Jane B. Huffman (Huffman, 2003), Kristine K. Hipp (Hipp, 2003), and others. This school concentrates on the community part of the PLC and is more educator development focused. The second school centers on Richard DuFour (DuFour, 1998) and consists of such persons as his wife, Rebecca DuFour, Robert Eaker, Michael Fullan, and others (DuFour, 2005). This school concentrates on the learning aspect of the PLC and is more student development focused. Most literature on the subject is written by cohorts from either one of these groups, few literary pieces will mix the two groups. Although others probably exist, the author of this paper has only been able to locate one source which quotes both schools of thought (Lindsey et al, 2009). A second theme emerging from a review of the literature suggest that as the two cohorts further studied and contemplated the PLC phenomenon, they made small changes to their respective definitions, furthering the divide between the two camps. In both cases, PLCs are opportunities for teachers to take ownership of their professional practice and for students to learn, each just has a different focus.

While the idea of a PLC may be older than the term Professional Learning Community, a brief search of available literature shows Shirley Hord et al as being at least one of the earliest writers describing this concept using the terms professional learning community. Other have been writing about similar concepts for some time (Miller, 1968), but Hord appears to be the first one to describe in the literature the term PLC. She describes PLCs as communities of continuous inquiry and practice. They are opportunities for educators to grow and learn as a community. (Hord et al, 1997). According to this source, PLCs have the following characteristics:

1. A leadership that supports a collegial relationship with and among the led.
2. A community with shared values and vision.
3. Learning that occurs collectively as a community.

4. Professional interactions that support the work being done.
5. A shared personal practice deliberately created by a formalized structure.

A PLC is a place where continuous learning occurs according to this source. Hord et al also makes it clear that a PLC is not a program or a prescription. A PLC is a process involving a community.

In a later work, Hord et al (1999) describe the PLC characteristics she used for the Creating Communities of Continuous Inquiry and Improvement (CCCII) project. For her CCCII project she has dropped the characteristics of a collegial relationship, professional interactions, and a formalized structure and added shared leadership, and an application of learning. In an even later source, she changes shared values and vision to shared beliefs, values, and vision (Hord et al , 2008). By adding the word belief, she has changed her description of PLCs to include the acceptance of the same truths by all or most teachers in a PLC. It is important to note the differences in these characteristics as these characteristics are potentially variables which would have to be considered in any study of PLCs or PLC implementation.

Another relatively early group of writers describes PLCs existing in educational settings as having three big ideas (DuFour et al, 2005). These ideas seem to offer the opportunities more to the learner. The first of these ideas is that educators in PLCs work to ensure that students learn and are not merely taught. In other words, the educator is constantly checking for understanding and adjusting the lesson as required ensuring the student gets it. DuFour et al diverge in their writing from the Hord et al definition in this first big idea. Hord et al does not mention the need for a PLC to ensure students learn but is hard to believe she would disagree with this. Hord et al simply concentrates more on teacher to teacher interaction than student to teacher interaction. Secondly, a PLC is a culture of collaboration. Teachers communicate, share ideas, and essentially synergize. The final "big idea" ties in the first, but at more of a macro level. This idea states that PLCs focus on results and relatively less on process. In other words, data drives instruction. Opportunities are still there for educators to take ownership of their practices, but the real opportunities are geared toward meeting student needs based on what data tells the educator. DuFour et al have also proposed lists similar to those proposed by Hord et al . Like Hord et al , the DuFour et al lists also use differing terms across time. DuFour's first list of PLC characteristics was published in 1998 (DuFour, 1998) as follows:

1. Shared mission, vision, and values.
2. Collective Inquiry.
3. Collaborative teams.
4. Action orientation and experimentation.
5. Continuous improvement.
6. Results orientation.

In 2008, the DuFour et al list changes as follows (DuFour, 2008):

1. Shared mission (purpose), vision, (clear direction), values (collective commitments), and goals (indicators, timelines, targets)- all focused on student learning
2. A collaborative culture with a focus on learning.
3. Collective inquiry into best practice and current reality.
4. Action orientation: Learning by doing.
5. A Commitment to continuous improvement.
6. Results orientation.

The second list adds more variables which would need to be implemented into a school before that school could be considered a fully-functioning PLC.

Either camp offers professional ownership opportunities to educators and learning opportunities to students. Nevertheless, administrators seeking to implement or support a PLC in their school are faced with two sets of training manuals, marketing materials, and other such items. If they use materials from both camps they are in fact creating a new hybrid form of the PLC which may or may not work as they have in fact changed the variables originally studied

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I am descended from Dunkard Brethren who broke off the main congregation in the eastern U.S. and headed west to help settle the frontiers. Although my father and grandfather turned from the church as it disintegrated in the west and they were cut off from the east, many of those beliefs and ways live on in me. Family values are important. I am married to a wonderful woman and life partner, Lauri. We have three children in school: William, Hannah, and Kirsten. Education is important. I hold a Bachelor of Science in Political Science with a Minor in Information Systems Technology from The University of Houston, a Master of Education in the Gifted and Talented from The University of St. Thomas, and a Master of Business Administration from Texas A&M University at Corpus Christi. Finally, work is also important to my heritage. I started off working in the oil and petrochemical industries. A few years ago I changed careers to that of my Brethren Dunkard grandfather, education. Education had always been at least an avocation of Dunkards spread out on their isolated farmsteads across North America. I felt it as a calling. My philosophy is to teach where I am needed most. I take the assignments no one else wants. This has given me a broad experience base as a teacher as I have taught and am certified in multiple subjects including English, social studies, and business. Additionally, I hold a Texas administrator's certificate and a certificate in gifted and talented education. Mostly I work with at risk students as I get personal satisfaction in knowing that people are going on to better lives in small part to me. Currently I am in my last 12 hours of doctoral studies in educational leadership at the University of Houston. My goal is to go into administration of a high school campus with large numbers of at risk students, such as a DAEP or a School of Choice. I currently teach government at Windfern High School in Cypress-Fairbanks Independent School District. Windfern High School is a school of choice which offers opportunity to parenting teens and over aged high school students. Helping such good folk is central to who I am.

Designing and Implementing Two-way, Dual Language Programs: Issues to Consider

April Haulman

Regina Lopez

University of Central Oklahoma

With growing pressure on school administrators to close the achievement gap for English language learners, two-way immersion programs are being considered in increasing numbers across the nation. In this program design, language minority children are placed in classrooms with native English speakers and both groups of children learn and achieve in both languages. In well-designed programs the outcomes show that the program produces academic achievement across the curriculum that is equal or better than students educated in monolingual classrooms on standardized tests in English. Plus they also enjoy the benefits of becoming balanced bilinguals. This report reviews the literature on the rationale, challenges and considerations for administrators seeking to implement two-way dual language programs.

Keywords: English language learners, two-way dual language program, two-way immersion, bilingual/foreign language education

As the growth of English language learners continues to show dramatic increases in schools across the nation, up by 53% since the 1997-98 school year, (Education Week, updated June, 16, 2011 retrieved 7/31/11), and as schools and districts can no longer escape the accountability mandates of No Child Left Behind, administrators and policy makers are increasingly turning to the research on programs that have been shown to be effective in promoting academic success and closing the achievement gap. One such program receiving recent attention is the Two-way, Dual Language Program (TWDL), also sometimes referred to as Two-way, Immersion Program (TWI), or sometimes just Dual Language Program (DL). (Calderon & Minaya-Rowe, 2003) This model of education is not necessarily a new concept (Howard, Christian, & Genesse, 2004), but it has not had widespread attention in the United States until recently. More and more districts (<http://www.cal.org/twi/directory>) now are considering the potential impact and challenges of implementing this program model that specifically targets the language needs of language minority children in our schools, as well as provides enriching educational opportunities to English-speaking, majority children.

Two-way, dual language programs are designed to provide cognitive continuity for English language learners, building on the linguistic strength they bring to the school setting. Of equal importance is the effort to provide high-quality second/foreign language instruction for native English-speaking children. The goal is to develop bilingualism and biliteracy for all children in the programs, while, at the same time building academic success across the curriculum. (<http://www.cal.org/twi/FAQ>)

Programs generally start in kindergarten or first grade by providing instruction in using both English and the native language of the language minority children. Language is not directly or specifically taught, but rather is used as the medium of instruction. Literacy instruction is delivered in both languages, as is math, social studies, science, etc. Instruction is delivered through both languages but not translated. Lessons are not repeated in both languages, but rather taught through thematic teaching in which skills and knowledge taught in one language will be reinforced in the other language. (Freeman, Freeman, & Mercuri, 2005)

There are two basic model of program design. One is the 50-50 Model where children begin being exposed to classroom instruction 50% of the time in English and 50% of the time in the partner language. This begins in kindergarten and adds a grade level each year as students move up through the school grades. The other model is the 90-10 Model, in which they begin kindergarten using 90% of the non-English language and 10% English, changing the ratio by 10% each year until the 50-50 distribution of languages is reached—usually in the 4th (grade i.e., 80-20

in first grade, 70-30 in second, 60-40 in third, and 50-50 in fourth). (Calderon & Minaya-Rowe, 2003) Most programs extend at least through elementary school and a few have been extended into the secondary level as an extension of TWI programs at the elementary level. (<http://www.cal.org/twi/directory>) Both program models of language distribution have produced promising results so far. (Howard & Sugarman, 2001) Thomas & Collier (as cited in Howard, Christian, & Genesee, 2004) report

in their study of the long-term effects of two-way immersion programs in comparison with other approaches reviewed programs implemented 1996-2001, [they] found that English language learners were able to reach and/or surpass the 50th percentile in comparison to English speaking norms on standardized achievement tests in both languages. They also found that there were fewer dropout...[Additionally,] bilingually educated students continue to outperform their peers educated monolingually in all subjects after 4-7 years. (p.4)

In other studies, English speaking students also were found to perform at or above the English-speaking control group in English reading, math and other areas of the curriculum. (see for example, Cazabon, Nicholadis, & Lambert, 1998; Krashen, 2004) The research reported here assert that when the goals of the program are to develop high levels of literacy and academic content proficiency through two languages, students are able to develop "additive bilingualism." (<http://www.cal.org/twi/FAQ>) They are considered balanced bilinguals, being able use the target language for social and academic purposes equally well. Additionally, both groups of students enjoy the opportunity to learn from each other and develop positive, successful skills of cross-cultural respect and communication. (Soltero, 2004)

Most Dual Language programs in the US focus on English and Spanish, but "there are also programs that target Korean, Cantonese, Arabic, French, Japanese, Navajo, Portuguese, and Russian." (Garcia, 2005) As of July 8, 2011, the Two Way Immersion (another name used to describe the same approach) website for the Center for Applied Linguistics lists 395 programs in 29 states. (<http://www.cal.org/twi/directory>) In well-implemented programs, both native English speakers and language minority students tend to do as well or better than their peers in other educational programs. (<http://www.cal.org/twi/FAQ>)

The basic steps for implementation, as adapted from Carrera-Carillo & Smith (2006), include the following:

1. Planning and Organization: Policy makers must plan and organize strategies for implementation; identify resources, both local and national; identify personnel; establish recruitment and public relations strategies. They must begin by understanding second language acquisition and reaching out to the community.
2. Community Involvement- Stakeholders: To fully implement a TWI program, the school must convince parents, administrators, and teachers. They must engage and encourage children who will be educated through a language they do not know. ELLs have no choice but English speaking children do and without them it would not be two-way.
3. Physical Organization: The school environment and classroom environments must be structurally planned and organized to provide the most conducive environment for dual language instruction to occur.
4. Teaching Through Best Practices and Hands-on Activities: Teachers must receive professional development that will enable them to provide instruction that builds language skills and content concepts at the same time. Extensive instructional planning will be necessary that that provides hands-on, thematic instruction using research-based practices.
5. Assessment and Accountability: Plans for authentic assessments that hold teachers and students, schools and parents accountable must be undertaken. (p.vii)

School communities facing the issues of large language minority populations have many challenges. Two-way Dual Language Program is one model of a program that can benefit the district and the ELL students tremendously when strategically planned and implemented. One essential feature of the program is that effort is made to maintain an equal number of native English-speaking students as there are native speakers of the partner language, which can be a challenge in some communities where there is a low incidence of ELLs of the same language background, or in communities where there is a high incidence of mobility between schools. Other basic challenges include:

1. Finding highly qualified native language teachers for the appropriate grade levels
2. Getting a 4-6 year commitment from parents to keep their children in the program

3. Getting commitment from English-speaking parents to leave their children in classrooms where they only initially understand at most 50% of the language of instruction.
4. Getting buy-in from policy-makers, administrators and teachers
5. Identifying appropriate materials, assessments, and other resources.

Determining the right fit of program model, assessing the needs of the ELL students, and matching the research with the desires of the school community will ultimately enable administrators to design an effective Two-Way Dual Language Program to produce both academic gains for language minority and native English speaking children as well as develop bilingual-biliterate communities, and culturally enriching experiences for everyone.

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Dr. April Haulman , a Professor at the University of Central Oklahoma, has worked in bilingual education over 35 years as a teacher, curriculum developer, grant writer and administrator, and university faculty member. She has a Ph.D. from the University of Oklahoma as a recipient of the Title VII Bilingual Fellowship. Her classroom experience includes elementary, secondary, junior college, community education and university level setting. She has successfully written and administered federal grants, coordinated statewide and regional institutes and conferences, as well as published in professional journals and presented at national conferences. As a member of UCO teacher education faculty, she is the Coordinator and Academic Advisor of the Bilingual Education/Teaching English as a Second Language. Dr. Haulman has a long-standing reputation for her commitment to the educational needs of Oklahoma's limited English proficient children.

Ms Regina Lopez is currently an instructor at the University of Central Oklahoma for the Bilingual Education/Teaching English as a Second Language Masters degree program. She serves as Coordinator of the federally-funded National Professional Development Grant entitled Supporting Educational Excellence for Diverse Students (SEEDS). She has her B.A. degree in Spanish education as well as a Masters degree in education with an endorsement in ESL and bilingual education both from the University of Central Oklahoma. Gina holds certification as an Elementary, Middle and High School Principal. She is currently pursuing a doctorate from the University of Oklahoma. She has worked in many school districts as a paraprofessional, Spanish teacher and ESL teacher from elementary to adult education. Gina is the past president of the Oklahoma Association for Bilingual Education, a member the UCO Multicultural Institute planning committee. She is also a singer/songwriter, a member of The Latin Trio and Mariachi Lopez band.

The Leadership Triad: Identity, Integrity, Authenticity

David Henderson

Southwestern Oklahoma State University

The purpose of this qualitative intrinsic case study was to analyze how the inner lives of fifteen educational leaders impacted their leadership practice. The common experience of the Courage To Lead (CTL) program defined the case. This case study was bound by place as the cohort of educational leaders involved in this study were all from the Seattle area in Washington State and experienced the CTL program in 2002-2004 at the same venue. The study is bounded by time in that the analysis of the participants was from the beginning of their CTL experience in November, 2002 until January, 2007.

This research was framed by the following central question: How did the inner life impact the leadership practice of a group of educational leaders who experienced the Courage To Lead program? The following nine subquestions were used: How did these leaders perceive that their leadership practice was affected by: 1. Use of self examination? 2. The clarity of their own personal identity? 3. Personal authenticity? 4. Bringing heart to their work? 5. Integrity of their inner life to their leadership? 6. Inner life and relationships? 7. Inner life and the exhibition of courage? 8. Inner life and the ability to build community in their organizations? 9. Inner life in the current educational context?

Thematic coding analyzed three primary sources of data: individual interviews, categorical aggregation of those interview transcriptions based on the subquestions, and a focus group discussion.

Three key issues surfaced from the analysis and triangulation of the data. They are: 1. The inner life of these leaders was critical to their living and leadership revealing itself in a Triad of the Self: Identity-Integrity-Authenticity. 2. Looking inward was not the only direction for whole living and leading. The Identity-Integrity-Authenticity triad caused these leaders to recognize that their outer living reflected and affected the quality and ongoing development of their inner work. 3. The Courage To Lead program recognizes this individual inner journey and the communal outer journey and by design provides a unique environment for enhancing this inner-outer pilgrimage. In CTL the participants travel "alone together."

Keywords: Hartsoch PLC Professional Learning Community

The Identity that the study's participants valued and struggled to clearly define surfaced as the "I am" of the deepest sort – as Rachel called it, "my who." But this who was more than even Descartes' famous cogito, "I think; therefore, I am." This sense of Identity went deeper than thought, logic, reason, intellect or values/belief systems for most of these participants and certainly so for some. It was akin to Greenleaf's (1977) intuition of the servant leader. It seemed to fall into what some scholars and writers have called the Real Self (Merton, 1967) or the self-no self (Thompson, 2000). This Identity as articulated by these participants resonated with the intersection of Jung's individual self with the collective unconscious Self considered by Jung to be God.

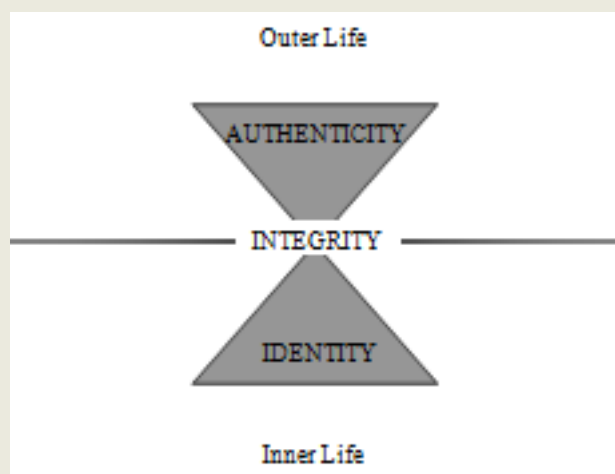
Although these participants struggled to articulate their internal and uniquely personal Identity, it was expressed within the framework of a variety of faith structures: some were nonreligious, some were Buddhist or Hindu in their beliefs, some were American Christian evangelical, and some were Roman Catholic. The Identity of these participants did not seem to be bound in the confines of religious structures. It seemed to exist individually transcending creedal differences. As the poet and founder of the mystical Islamic Sufi sect, Rumi, suggests, "Out beyond ideas of wrongdoing and right-doing, there is a field. I'll meet you there." These participants were of significantly different religious

or philosophic ilk yet seemed to grasp Rumi's concept in explaining their Identity and also as evidenced in the uncommon community they experienced in the Courage To Lead program that bound the case.

The second part of this leadership triad of the self was how this Identity began to surface in these participants' lives and was best described as Integrity. This word seemed to aptly define that juncture where these participants chose or willed or as Alan stated, "bridged" their Identity to their world. Integrity, as such, was more than simple honesty for these participants. It was a conscious yet driving force for bringing their Identity to their world, a will to beingness or wholeness or congruence of their inner world with their outer world.

Finally, this triad of the Self is completed by the Authenticity of these participants' lives and their specific behaviors and attributes that make their Identity real in their world. It is here in Authenticity that a pantheon of potentially good attributes and behaviors surfaced: realness, awareness, presence, uncommon listening, connection, balancing paradox, servanthood, leading and learning as bi-directional, courage and taking a stand in the face of injustice, and uncommon relationships and community. It was also here in Authentic living that the inner recognition of the shadows and limitations of their Identity resulted in the balance, health, honesty, and humility that this inner recognition brought. The following Figure 1 is a simple – overly simple as will always be the case when one tries to distill the complexity of a human being into a diagram – visual presentation of the Identity-Integrity-Authenticity triad as explained in the previous paragraphs. It is offered here to augment the verbal explanation already presented.

Figure 1
Identity-Integrity-Authenticity Triad



But what can be said about the level of actualization by these participants in realizing this triad of the Self? Some seemed to be further along than others or were, as alluded to earlier, at least more capable articulators of their own triad. Tom openly admitted having resisted self examination and absolutely refusing to reveal his Identity. He knew this and lived and led successfully for a number of years. His Identity was absent yet his Integrity and Authenticity seemed to be intact. By his own admission he realized that he could in fact live and lead from an Identity that was not his own, a false self. Why change his outer world drastically to accommodate a truer Self when most lauded the Authenticity of his existing leadership? It was an intriguing question. It prompted the understanding that one might live and lead from a false Identity and that one might even live and lead from a true Identity but fail in willing it into the world with courageous Integrity. But either dynamic requires a toll be paid in health, spiritual and otherwise, and in realizing true Authenticity. Both of these observations about missing elements in the Triad of the Self suggested, as discussed in the focus group, an almost mathematical relationship of Identity + Integrity = Authenticity. As expected and demanded by the Triad of the Self, this discussion must turn outward.

The Outer Work

In examining this case, it became clear that these participants recognized that their Identity-Integrity-Authenticity triad was affected and in some ways defined by their interaction with their world. In other words, there was an outward direction to their journey as well as the critical inward journey. This too has been articulated by various thinkers such as Thomas Merton (1967) and others previously mentioned but this study has served to empirically validate this reality within this case study. These participants recognized firsthand that their inner work was only as valid and indeed reflected their outer work evidenced in behaviors, attributes and relationships. And that as their inner life deepened, so did the depth of their capacity for more meaningful relationships and community in their living and leading, therefore, expanding their outer life.

So, did the lives and leadership of these participants exceed what might be called common Authenticity? Not always and that was by their own admission and through their own stories. What can be concluded here? Although these participants who valued and engaged the inner life were by their own description flawed individuals, there was humility in recognition of this and an appreciation for deepening the discovery of the real Self and how it could better realize Authenticity.

This relationship between the inner and outer might be visualized by a comparison to a tree, the tree of wholeness in living or leadership perhaps. As a tree's root system deepens, expands, and widens over time so does the limb system above the ground. Our Identity is like the root system and as it deepens into the "ground of all being" and discovers increasing connection and oneness there, it also grows upward and outward through the trunk, our Integrity, creating in direct proportion a limb system just as wide, expansive, embracing and discerning as the root system. This limb system is analogous to the outward behaviors of Authenticity - courage, listening, connection, and meaningful relationships. As our root system reaches into the darkness of the deep, so do the branches of our limbs open and expand into the light - like the mighty oaks of the South.

Not to overextend our metaphor, from botany we know that trees exchange nutrients absorbed from the underground through the root system which are channeled upward through the xylem in the trunk and in similar fashion, the products of the photosynthetic process carried on in the limb system are channeled to the roots through the phloem of the trunk. The metaphorical tree of wholeness of Self grows and diminishes as one is willing or not willing to absorb the nutrients discovered deep in the darkness of inner work and as one is willing to bring those nutrients into the light of living and relationships where they can be transformed into products that in turn feed our Identity at its deepest definition. Both are required - the mining of the depths within in the dark and the exchanges outside found in the light. What many seem to discover is a mystery where the Dark and the Light can complement one another.

This analogy might border on the poetic but so must the language of understanding this inner-outer relationship. Scholars, philosophers and mystics have always turned to poetry and metaphor to articulate this inner-outer relationship. Greenleaf (1977) turned to Robert Frost to articulate this dynamic for discussing the foundation of servant leadership. Plato used an allegory about a cave to illustrate the character of the kind of leader needed for his ideal republic. This study and this tree analogy accept this company.

Another visual representation for this inner-outer dynamic can best be understood with drawings. As depicted below in Figure 2, the horizontal line represents the boundary between one's inner Identity and their outer Authenticity. For most of us our Identity begins relatively shallow and often narrow but as we mature and realize something bigger than ourselves we begin to deepen and perhaps even connect with the Ultimate Reality or ground of being within. We may not completely comprehend such oneness or Ultimate Reality. And our Authenticity will often reflect the shallow and narrow nature of our Identity.

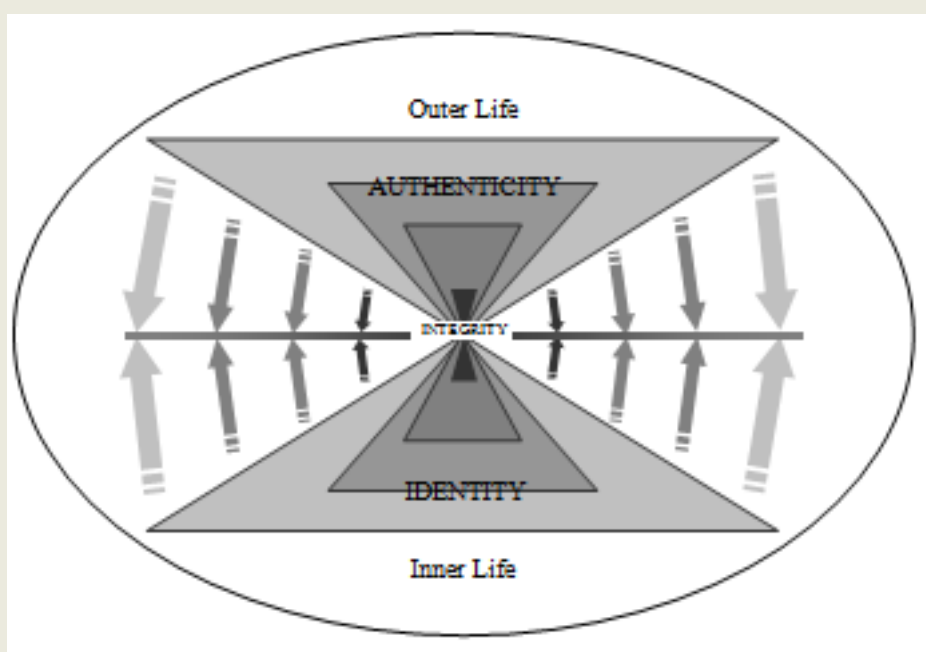
Fortunately, we can change this dynamic as we choose to deepen, broaden and expand our Identity with inner work as shown by the triangles below the horizontal line. In so doing, the triangles defining our Authenticity above the horizontal line reflect our expanding inner life with an increasing capacity for meaningful and uncommon relationships and community out in the world as well as a broadening perspective.

The final implication of this inner-outer dynamic is perhaps the most intriguing and brings to mind Kohlberg's

Stage Six of Moral Development or Merton's (1961) definition of a saint or the Buddhist's definition of enlightenment. If one is willing to do the often frightening, unsettling pilgrimage deep within, one can experience what can only be described mystically as absolute immersion in the ground of being so that Thompson's (2000) self-no self or Merton's (1967) Real Self is revealed. The triangles below the horizontal line defining our Identity extend out and broaden to such a degree that they approach the line separating our inner from our outer. At the same time, the triangles defining our Authenticity above the horizontal line expand and widen and deepen into the world such that they too approach the horizontal line separating our outer from our inner and we see an individual with no separation between their inner Identity and their outer Authenticity – they "flatline" as it were into an uncommon congruence and Integrity.

Figure 2

The Inner-Outer Flow



As Merton said about saints in his Christian context, "It was because the saints were absorbed in God that they were truly capable of seeing and appreciating created things and it was because they loved Him alone that they alone loved everybody" (1961, p. 23). Perhaps we have all caught glimpses of such individuals and they certainly exist across all wisdom traditions. Greenleaf (1977) and Burns (1978) would both recommend Gandhi as an example approaching this distinction and Palmer has provided a similar visual using the Mobius Strip to illustrate a person whose inner and outer domains flow beautifully and seamlessly into each other (2004, pp. 45-49). These congruent individuals become uncommon leaders with an uncommon courage in the face of daunting odds.

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David Henderson, Ed.D., grew up in Memphis, TN and was a high school chemistry and biology teacher after completing a B.A. in science education at Harding University where he later completed an M.Ed. in English education. He studied theology and served as a minister for a time. He worked in the software industry in Dallas, TX from 1981-1993 as a technical writer, software developer, product manager, and eventual manager of a software research and development team. In 1993 he left Dallas for Yaak, MT (the very northwest corner of the state) where he taught 5th-8th grades in the last one room school in Montana that still met in its original log cabin. From 1993-2007 in Montana he was a public school educator and high school principal, completed his doctorate and taught at The University of Montana in Missoula, and co-founded Montana Courage To Teach. Currently he lives in Oklahoma where he teaches graduate courses in educational leadership at Southwestern Oklahoma State University and continues facilitating Courage To Teach, Courage To Lead and Circles of Trust retreats. He continues to study and research the intersection of the inner life of leaders with their practice of leadership grounded in a heart striving for integrity and authenticity.

Factors Contributing to Successful Transitions into the Role of a New Superintendency in Texas: A Mixed Methods Triangulation Convergence Inquiry

Nancy Jones

Beeville Independent School District, Beeville, Texas

The study used a mixed methods research design, employing the triangulation convergence model, to investigate the possible factors contributing to successful transitions into the role of a new superintendency. Participating superintendents indicated that the training and education they received had adequately prepared them for the role of a new superintendent. Also, participants indicated that school board relations were important during the entry period and that their interaction with the board played an important part in the entry plan. Analysis of qualitative data resulted in three themes, namely, community, learning, and goals and expectations. In accordance with the convergence model, the quantitative and qualitative findings were synthesized and discussed.

Keywords: superintendent, entry period, leadership, mixed methods

The superintendent position is like that of a Chief Executive Officer (CEO) in the corporate world. In terms of accountability and responsibility, the job is ever-demanding. Although there are programs, graduate courses of study, and professional development to assist people who want to become superintendents, there appears to be very few that provide guidance for the transition involved in the entry period to a new superintendency. There is a small amount of literature-based research on the entry period of a superintendent. However, the reviewer of literature on leadership has no difficulty finding numerous articles and studies for the business world that can be appropriately tailored to the superintendent position.

Suggestions for transitions and change vary in the number of steps and details from different authors, but all of them are fairly consistent in their basic ideas. This tends to indicate that there may not be one correct approach to this type of transition, but that certain key steps need to be in place to be effective. Kotter (2007) stated that the change process goes through a series of phases, which includes eight steps to transform an organization. Sharp and Walter (2004) listed 11 suggestions for new superintendents. Other authors provided various steps to facilitate change or transformation (Collins, 2001; Watkins, 2004). This would tend to indicate that there is no one correct approach to the transition, but that knowing and implementing a type of process or steps into a new position would be key to a successful transition.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to examine the factors contributing to a successful transition into the role of a new superintendency. The study utilized information gathered from urban, suburban, and rural school district superintendents in Texas

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework used in the study was that actions by a new leader (such as a superintendent or CEO) in the first 90 days of a new position will largely determine whether he/she succeeds or fails in the position over the long term. This is documented from research of business practices by Watkins (2004) and Kotter (2007). Their re

search shows that the goal should be to have a formal plan to accelerate an effective transition in a new position and that there are certain steps that most successful leaders take in the beginning of a new position, such as developing the same terminology with others in the new position, creating a collaborative vision for the new school district, creating coalitions, and negotiating or building early successful achievements (Watkins, 2004; Kotter, 2007).

Kotter (1996) discussed an eight-stage process dealing with change. The steps are 1) creating a sense of urgency, 2) establishing a guiding coalition, 3) developing a vision, 4) communicating the vision, 5) empowering employees for action, 6) producing short term successes, 7) combining the gains, and 8) generating additional change and securing the new approaches in the culture of the organization. Kotter indicated that these steps are sequential and that it is important not to skip any in the process.

Watkins (2004) proposed 10 steps to accelerate change, namely, 1) promoting oneself, 2) accelerating one's learning, 3) matching strategies to situations, 4) secure early successes, 5) negotiating success, 6) achieving alignment, 7) building the team, 8) creating coalitions, 9) keeping one's balance, and 10) expediting everyone in the organization. Several of these steps are similar to Kotter's. These include securing early successes, building the team, and creating coalitions and expediting or empowering everyone. Additional similarities between the two include both authors' view that learning should be ongoing.

Design

This was a mixed methods descriptive study. Specifically, a triangular designed mixed methodology with a convergence model was employed. Triangulation design is the most common and well-known approach to mixing methods. The purpose and intent of this design is to best understand the research problem and to bring together differing strengths and weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative methods. The design is used to expand quantitative statistical results with qualitative results. In the convergence model, quantitative and qualitative data are collected separately at about the same time and then the different results are converged or joined during the interpretation. The purpose of the triangular designed mixed methodology with a convergence model is to give both quantitative and qualitative data equal emphasis, to converge the results during the interpretation, and to draw valid and well-substantiated conclusions about the research problem (Creswell & Clark, 2007). In this mixed methods design, the qualitative and quantitative data were collected separately and then the results were converged by comparing and contrasting both results during the interpretation of data.

Data Collection

The study used an electronic survey to collect the quantitative data. The instrument consisted of six sections: 1) demographic information, 2) preparation for the superintendency, 3) current superintendency prior to entry by new superintendent, 4) current superintendency entry or transition plan, 5) current superintendency entry or transition strategies, and 6) opinions on superintendent's current leadership. There were 289 respondents.

The study employed the use of a focus group with a non-probability sample of superintendents ($n = 8$) who served in urban, suburban, and rural school districts to collect the qualitative data. The following areas were addressed: 1) preparation, 2) importance of entry period, 3) transition plan, and 4) strategies during transition plan.

Summary of Quantitative Results

Due to page limitations, a brief summary of the results is presented. The quantitative results indicated that the respondents felt an entry plan was important. Nearly 33% had been in their current position for one or two years. The respondents had an average of 7.4 years of superintendent experience. Over half of the respondents felt that their professional development had prepared them for the superintendency. Most felt that studying the district's budget and student achievement levels were most important in analyzing the district's situation prior to entering the new position. In working with groups during the entry period, most indicated that interacting with colleagues, board members, and the district leadership team was important. Of the respondents to the survey, over 75% had an entry plan.

Summary of Quantitative Results

Three overall themes emerged from analyzing the qualitative data. The first theme was community. Within this theme, the participants discussed relations with the board of trustees, listening to members of the school community, and developing trust and relationships with the school community. The second theme was learning through on-the-job experiences. Although the participants said they did not receive any formal training on the entry period through their college or other courses, the majority said that the most important guidance or training they had received on the first 90 days was through a mentor of some type that they had or learning on the job through experience. The third theme was setting goals and expectations, not only for themselves, but for the district. This involved finding out what goals and expectations board members had of the new superintendent and the school district, as well as the superintendent setting goals for him or herself.

Significance of the Study

Results revealed that superintendents in Texas did believe that the entry period to a new superintendency is critical, that a plan is important, and that there are certain critical factors to that plan. The study revealed important information related to the entry period of a new superintendent, and in particular the type of entry plans, and their implementation for a superintendent. The study also revealed the need for emphasis in both professional development and education in the preparation for aspiring superintendents.

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Nancy B. Jones has an undergraduate degree in vocal music education from Louisiana State University and a graduate degree in educational administration from Texas State University. She received her doctoral degree in education from Texas A&M University—Corpus Christi in 2008. She has been a music teacher and a math teacher and has taught grades K through 12. She is currently Assistant Superintendent for Curriculum and Instruction for Beeville Independent School District in Beeville, Texas.

Testing the Efficacy of Self-Affirmation in Improving Student Performance in a Business Law Course

Lynn M. Murray
Christine E. Fogliasso
Pittsburg State University

The authors explore the effects of a self-affirmation exercise on upper level college students in a business law class. Students from three business law sections were randomly assigned into one of two groups: one group was to write about a personally important value before exams and the other group was to write about a value not important to them but important to others. A third group emerged as some students chose to ignore the assignment. Contrary to expectations, students writing about others' values performed better on most exams than did those who did not complete the exercise. It may be that writing about others' values forces students into considering other people's viewpoints, a finding consistent with Kohlberg's theories of moral reasoning.

Keywords: business law, self-affirmation, moral reasoning, at-risk students

Recent research indicates that a simple self-affirmation exercise can improve performance among at-risk students: Cohen et al (2006; 2009), for example, found that when students wrote about one of their most important values reduced the racial achievement gap in underperforming minority grade school students. More recently, the same short values affirmation exercise conducted among college physics students also indicated the exercise's efficacy in reducing a performance gap between women and men in an introductory physics course (Miyake et al., 2010). This research explores whether the same exercise can improve performance of upper level college students enrolled in a business law course.

The exercise is derived from self-affirmation theory. Self-affirmation theory holds that in the face of threats to one's self-integrity, a person will respond in a manner to mitigate the threat; one such response is through the affirmation of alternative sources of self-integrity, one's sense of self as a good and moral person (Sherman & Cohen, 2006). These self-affirmations allow a person to realize that his or her worth isn't derived from the outcome of the threat. In the case of a student in a challenging course such as physics (Miyake, et al., 2010) or business law, negative feedback such as an exam score can threaten a student's self-integrity, driving a student to resist processing threatening information. The use of a positive defense mechanism, such as self-affirmation, can allow a student to distance him- or herself from the perceived threat and to process the information much more objectively. The research discussed here explores whether the values affirmation exercise can help business law students improve their performance as well.

The study was conducted at a mid-sized public institution. Business law is a required course for all college of business undergraduate majors and minors and it is a pre-requisite for entry into the MBA program. Typically, four sections of the course are offered each semester. Enrollment in each section ranges from 38 to 55 students; each section reaches capacity quickly. Three of the sections are taught by a full-time tenured faculty with a juris doctorate who holds the rank of University Professor; the remaining section is taught by an adjunct, a local practicing attorney. The intervention was administered only in the sections taught by the full-time faculty member. The vast majority of a student's grade in this course is dependent upon the student's performance on four exams and a comprehensive final exam. As a lecture course, there is little leeway for extensive intervention.

The business law class was chosen because of the difficulty of the course: most students struggle in understanding and applying the concepts. Applying the language and principles of the law requires a change in how students think – they must think logically and they must divorce their personal opinions of fair play. Additionally, the business

law course is a stand-alone course: it doesn't build on a student's previous knowledge, as a business statistics course builds on elementary statistics, nor is it required for any other courses in any major.

Sample

All students enrolled in any one of the three sections were assigned to one of two conditions. In all aspects the two conditions were identical except for the wording of the exercise. In both conditions students were presented with a list of values (attached). In the values affirmation condition students were asked identify the two or three values most important to them. Students were then asked to describe in a few sentences why these values are important to them. Further, students will be instructed that this is a free-writing exercise – spelling, grammar, and other writing mechanics will not be assessed. As the final reinforcement of the experiment, students were asked several likert-type scales.

In the control condition, students were asked to identify the two or three values least important to them, to discuss why these values might be important to someone else, and were asked several likert-type scales. While students were initially assigned to one of two conditions (Own and Others), there were essentially three conditions, as some students from each exam refused the extra credit opportunities (None). Because of the struggle most students face in this course, no group of students (men and women, racial) was identified a priori as more likely to benefit from the intervention.

Procedure

The course lecturer, who was privy to the experiment and process, but blind to individual student conditions, offered students course (not exam) extra credit for each of administration of the intervention. The exercise was administered via Survey Monkey. Each student was sent emails with a personalized link five days before each exam. Reminder emails with students' personalized links were sent to those students who had not completed the individual exam's intervention. Availability to the intervention closed before any student took the exam. The intervention was administered for the four regular exams but not the comprehensive final.

Results

One-way between groups analyses of variance were conducted to explore the effects of the intervention on test scores of those students who had taken at least four of the five exams. The intervention conducted before the first exam saw a significant difference between the groups on the test scores of the first exam [$F(2, 114)=8.357, p=.0001$] (see Figure 1). This effect seemed to carry over: a significant difference also appeared between groups on the third exam [$F(2, 114)=5.113, p=.007$] and on the comprehensive final [$F(2, 114)=4.824, p=.01$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the exam 1 mean score for the NONE group ($M=56.04, SD=7.235$) differed significantly from the exam 1 mean score for the OTHERS group ($M=64.4, SD=8.489$). The OWN group ($M=60.82, SD=8.988$) did not differ from either the NONE group or the OTHERS group. For the third exam, the NONE group mean ($M=47.81, SD=9.397$) differed significantly from the OTHERS group ($M=55.09, SD=8.921$) but not for the OWN group ($M=51.91, SD=9.793$). Similarly, the comprehensive exam scores differed significantly for the NONE group ($M=83.96, SD=14.429$) than for the OTHERS ($M=93.44, SD=12.55$) group but not for the OWN group ($M=88.76, SD=11.676$).

The intervention conducted before the third exam also saw significant difference between groups on the third [$F(2, 114)=7.413, p=.001$], fourth [$F(2, 114)=4.838, p=.01$] and final exams [$F(2, 114)=8.119, p=.001$] (see Figure 2). Post hoc comparisons for the third exam indicate that the scores for the NONE group ($M=49.61, SD=9.362$) differed significantly for both the OWN group ($M=55.2, SD=9.661$) and for the OTHERS group ($M=57.33, SD=8.015$). For the fourth exam, the NONE group ($M=50.58, SD=7.338$) differed significantly from the OTHERS group ($M=56.1, SD=9.57$) but not the OWN group ($M=54.2, SD=7.921$). For the comprehensive final, the NONE group ($M=85.85, SD=13$) differed significantly from both the OWN group ($M=93.48, SD=10.108$) and the OTHERS group ($M=96.86, SD=12.523$).

The analysis of variance for the second exam was not significant. No analyses were conducted for the fourth exam as the samples for the OWN and OTHERS condition were too small.

Discussion

Although past research indicated that students who affirmed their own values rather than someone else's values would perform better, the results from this study differed. In our sample, students who wrote about other people's values performed significantly better than those students who wrote about neither value. Why might this be so? It may simply be that at the level this course is taught (junior, senior, graduate), students already have extensive practice in protecting their self-integrity and what they actually need is less focus on the "I" and more on "We" or "Them". Some research has found that students who wrote about other people's values exhibited less confirmation bias and were able to assess correlation more accurately than did those who wrote about their own values (Munro & Stansbury, 2009). Kohlberg's work in moral reasoning may also provide some insight (Kohlberg, 1981).

The idea of looking to others' values when an individual is confronted with a decision about how to act in a particular situation is not new. This groupthink ("everybody's doing it") is a type of group-centered reasoning described in Kohlberg's classic work as a low-to-middle development stage in moral reasoning (Kohlberg, 1981). While not the highest level, group-centered reasoning is nevertheless regarded as a higher stage of moral development than the lowest, ego-centered reasoning ("what do I want to do?").

Studies have reported that interaction within groups can provide an environment that improves the level of moral reasoning. In other words, our reference group can help raise our moral development from ego-based justification to group-based justification (Lawrence & Weber, 2008). The act of thinking and writing about other people's values appears to move a student from the ego-centered reasoning in which only the "I" is important to a broader reasoning in which others' opinions and values are considered.

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Figure 1: Results of first self-affirmation exercise iteration

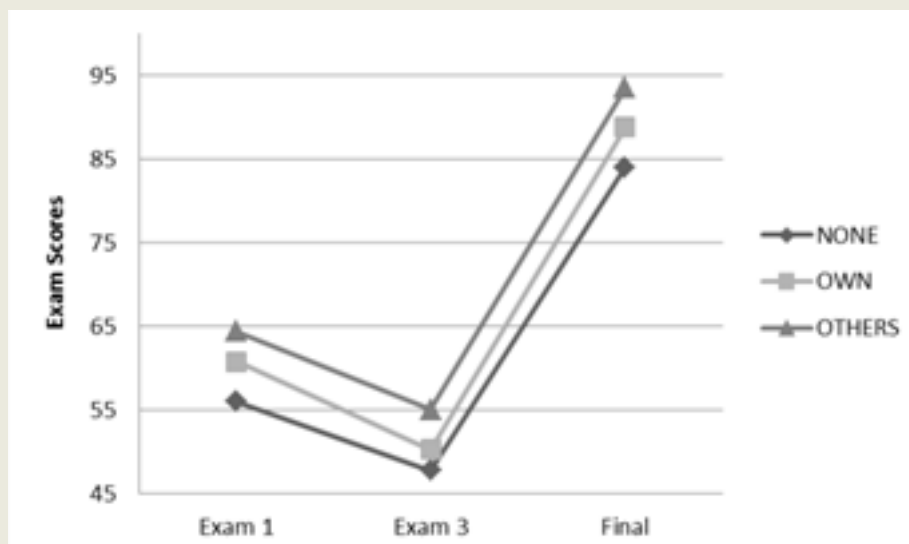
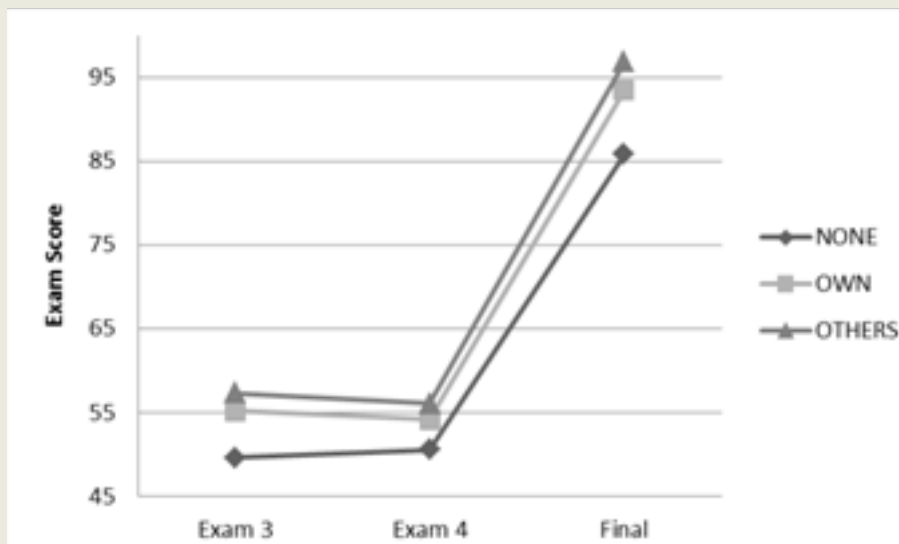


Figure 2: Results of third self-affirmation exercise iteration



Lynn Murray is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Management and Marketing at Pittsburg State University. She joined the faculty in August of 2007 after completing a Ph.D. in Marketing from the University of Missouri. Her teaching areas include marketing management, sales management, and retail management; her research interests include services marketing and marketing and business education.

Christine Fogliasso is a University Professor in the Department of Management and Marketing at Pittsburg State University. She has been on the faculty since 1979. Her Bachelor's degree was earned at Pittsburg State University, and her Juris Doctorate at the University of Kansas School of Law. Her teaching and research areas are business law and ethics.

Marketing Internships: The Role of Introspection in Students' Satisfaction Reports

Flor Ornelas

Fernando Jiménez

The University of Texas at El Paso

Despite the learning advantages of internship opportunities, many former interns bitterly complain about the dull tasks they had to perform during the internship. We argue that students' satisfaction ratings with an internship are influenced by the current descriptive approach of final reports. When students list the tasks that they performed (i.e., what did you do?), they only engage in concrete thinking, missing the big picture. We contend that when an introspection approach is used (i.e., why did you do it?), students engage in abstract thinking, realizing the implications of the tasks they performed and hence, rating the internship experience more favorably. An experimental study supports our contention. We propose that colleges should include introspection questions rather than descriptive questions in their final report outlines. By so doing, students will better realize the value of internship opportunities.

Keywords: pedagogy, internships, research students, thinking, learning

Seventy-five percent of the 10 million four-year college students in the United States will work as interns before walking on graduation day (Silverman, 2011). An internship is "any monitored work or service experience in which an individual has intentional learning goals and reflects actively on what she or he is learning throughout the experience" (Gault, Redington, & Schlager, 2000). In 2000, Gault et al. showed that business students who interned before graduation had several advantages over students who did not. They conducted a survey of intern and non-intern business alumni of a northeastern U.S. university and compared their early career paths. The results indicated that those alumni who participated in an internship when in college spent less time finding a job, had higher compensation, and reported greater job satisfaction. Despite the benefits associated with internships, many students still feel frustrated about their intern experiences. Students complain that it is not uncommon that companies ask them to do dull tasks such as photocopying, organizing, or scheduling. Many students do not feel that they acquired substantial applicable and transferable knowledge ("My internship," 2010).

The current descriptive structure of internship reports lead to a myopic perception of learning gained during internship programs. Colleges often require students who complete an internship to write a final report, especially if the student attempts to obtain college credit hours for the experience. Colleges provide a guide for the final report which includes questions that are descriptive in nature. For instance, a former intern is commonly expected to describe the organization for which the student interned and the activities performed as an intern. Students' responses to these requirements often results in a laundry list of operational activities such as: photocopy, organize files, input data, call clients, etc. After students provide a list of activities, they are asked to self-assess their learning by answering questions such as: What did you learn? How can you use the acquired skills in your career? How did your education at our college prepare you for the job? The reader can imagine students' thoughts when they are assessing their learning and matching the list of activities with their educational background and aspirations. Thus, students who write descriptive reports question educational value of the skills acquired during the internship. Furthermore, students often feel the work performed was not useful, transferable, motivational or instrumental in achieving their desired career goals.

We argue that final reports that ask questions requiring introspection generate abstract thinking and enlighten students about their learning. The definition of an internship, in fact, includes active reflection as a requirement of the internship process. Introspection refers to the careful reflection on one's actions (Tordesillas & Chaiken, 1999). Introspection is posited as an active learning tool because it requires students to reflect not only about the activities

being performed but also about the purpose of the tasks (Altman & De, 2010; Felton, 2011). Questions aimed to generate introspection include: Why are you doing the tasks you are doing? Why does the company want you to perform such activities? Why is your work relevant for the organization? How do you feel when performing the work? What questions come to your mind about the purpose of your work? The answers to these questions are likely to result in abstract thinking. Abstract thinking refers to the conceptualization of ideas rather than to the description of situationally-specific attributes of a task. Abstract concepts operate cross-situationally and encompass a larger number of phenomena while a concrete attribute is context specific (Mowen & Voss, 2008; Hunt, 2010). For instance, imagine the case of an intern who is asked to print lists of customers according to their zip code. When thinking concretely, a student can report that he or she learned to organize customers and use database software. The intern would then want more training in computer skills. When thinking abstractly, however, interns can realize that they were grouping customers by geographic location. This activity is related to segmentation which is a topic taught in marketing classes. Therefore, abstract thinking helps students relate activities to course material. A great deal of content in marketing courses deals with abstract concepts such as customer segmentation, customer satisfaction, customer needs, and so on. Hence, we propose that introspection rather than description will lead to higher evaluations of internship opportunities. Thus:

H1: Students who think abstractly about an internship will report higher satisfaction with their internship experience than students who think concretely.

Method

A hundred and thirteen undergraduate students at the University of Texas at El Paso participated in an online experiment using Qualtrics in exchange for extra credit. The instrument included an internship description, a manipulation check, satisfaction measures, and demographics. The students were first presented with an Internship description. Then they were asked to imagine they were actually going to perform those tasks. Then participants were randomly assigned to a manipulation group: concrete or abstract thinking. If a student was assigned to the concrete thinking group the student was asked to list the activities previously presented. If the student was assigned to the abstract thinking group the student was asked to list the previous activities and explain why those activities were important to the company. After the manipulation, students answered measures of expected satisfaction, manipulation checks, and demographics.

Results

One hundred and forty nine students answered the online survey. We excluded 33 cases due to severe missing data. A final set of 116 responses were included in the analysis (concrete = 57, abstract = 59). We compared the two groups by using a one-way analysis of variance with satisfaction ratings as the dependent variable. There was a significant difference in satisfaction with the internship between the two groups ($F=5.031$ $df=1,111$, $p < .03$). That is, the students in the abstract thinking condition ($M = 5.76$) reported higher satisfaction than the students in the concrete thinking condition ($M= 5.34$), thus, supporting our hypothesis. When we checked the manipulation checks, interestingly we did not find a difference in thinking style between the two groups. Thus, we cannot attribute the findings to abstract versus concrete thinking. An alternative explanation may be that the why question made the association between the internship and the goals salient. Also, we may have primed the desirability and the importance of the internship by the wording of the question.

Conclusion

In sum, our research shows that students who report why the internship is important for the company are more satisfied with the internship than students who solely report the activities performed. We recommend that internship reports should include questions about why the activities were important, rather than just asking students to report what they did. Furthermore, in order to increase the attractiveness of internship opportunities, employers should list the activities to be performed and a state the relevance of such tasks for the company. By so doing, the internship will be more appealing to the students.

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Flor Ornelas is an undergraduate business student in the College of Business Administration at the University of Texas at El Paso.

Fernando R. Jiménez has a PhD from Oklahoma State University and is an assistant professor in the department of Marketing at The University of Texas at El Paso. His research interests include customer co-creation, research methodology, and international marketing. His work has been published in *Journal of International Marketing*, *Journal of Service Research*, and *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*. His work has also appeared in peer-reviewed conference proceedings at the American Marketing Association, Association for Consumer Research, and Academy of Marketing Science, among others. Before joining academia, Fernando worked in the field of exports, and marketing consulting.

Complexity, Knowledge and Structure: A Systemic Understanding of Organizational Learning

Justin D. Walton
Cameron University

Organizations are among the most socially complex institutions within modern culture. As corporations face the challenges of technological change and globalization, it becomes essential that they find new ways and forms of fostering knowledge sharing and creativity. Challenging the age-old belief that employees should “dominated and directed,” complexity theory challenges the classic machine metaphor of organizational structure with a view that conceptualizes them as nonlinear systems that fluctuate between conditions of stability and chaos. This model offers new and exciting opportunities for exploring the dynamics of organizational learning. Toward this end, this paper examines the systemic features of organizations with a particular focus on knowledge generation.

Keywords: systems theory, complexity, knowledge management, learning

Organizations are among the most socially complex institutions within modern culture. As corporations face the challenges of technological change and globalization, it becomes essential that they find new ways and forms of fostering knowledge sharing and creativity. Ralph Stacey (1992, 1995) argues that traditional emphases on standardization and control are no longer effective for managing organizational change within an increasingly interconnected global environment. Drawing on chaos theory and complexity science, he presents a view of organizational life that is in stark contrast to the classical principles of scientific management—one that portrays “organizing” as a dynamic, nonlinear process that fluctuates between conditions of chaos and stability. Challenging the age-old belief that employees should “dominated and directed,” this theoretical approach challenges the classic machine metaphor, suggesting instead that organizations are nonlinear systems that fluctuate between conditions of stability and chaos. This model offers new and exciting opportunities for exploring the dynamics of organizational learning. Toward this end, this paper examines the systemic features of organizations with a particular focus on knowledge generation. I recommend that managers promote learning climates congruent with the systemic, relational qualities of organizations.

Organizations as Complex Systems

Advancements in quantum physics and physical science suggest that the Newtonian principles of linearity, prediction, and control hold limited understandings for the complexities of open systems. This paradigm shift, influenced by postmodernism, New Science and chaos theory renounces the reductionistic philosophies of Newton and Descartes in favor of a more ecological, interconnected worldview. Thus, systems thinking focuses on sets of relationships among interdependent, interacting forces:

The basic tension is one between the parts and the whole. The emphasis on the parts has been called mechanistic, reductionistic, or atomistic; the emphasis on the whole holistic, organismic, or ecological. In twentieth-century science the holistic perspective has become known as “systemic” and the way of thinking it implies as “systems thinking.” (Capra, 1996, p. 17)

From a systems perspective, relationships among objects are more meaningful than independent analyses of the objects themselves. Consequently, ecological thinking provides a rich framework for understanding the behavioral complexities of living systems and the transactional relationships they have with their environments.

Systems-based approaches are certainly not new for organizational theorists (e.g., Katz & Kahn, 1978; Weick, 1979; Thayer, 1968). In fact, Rogers and Rogers (1976) note that systems theory is one of three dominant schools of thought in organizational research (the others being scientific management and human relations). Most of these models rely heavily on Bertalanffy's General Systems Theory as a way of describing the interactive components of organizational behavior (e.g., leadership, networks, small groups, subsystems). However, recent developments in New Science have enhanced the theoretical assumptions of Bertalanffy's work:

New science examines systems as self-generating, historical, contextual, relational, and interdependent. The emphasis on system relationship, the focus on transformative process, and the implicit notions of self-generation and creativity of the self-actualizing process are key components of the logic of systems underlying New Science. New Science, as described, may be a revolutionary way to approach and extend our understandings and how we interact with each other and in the world. (Fleener, 2002, p. 108)

In his book, *Managing the Unknowable: Strategic Boundaries Between Order and Chaos in Organizations*, Ralph Stacey (1992) argues that organizations exhibit such features—i.e., organizations are dynamic systems which generate unstable, nonlinear patterns. This proposition implies that organizations have unpredictable long-term properties that develop through irregular periods of chaos, which in turn, produce new self-organizing structures. Consequently, attempts to control the long-range direction of organizational change is bound to fail.

Organizations, as nonlinear feedback systems, exhibit qualities of complex adaptive systems (Stacey, 1992, 1995; Pascale, 1999). Consequently, one relatively small alteration can have substantial impacts on the rest of the system. Complex systems also display self-organizing qualities. Drawing on Wheatley, Stamp (1997) notes that the dynamics of a complex adaptive system add inherent indeterminacy to patterned unfoldings. This order emerges out of complicated feedback fluctuations and adaptive networks. Capra (1996) reasons that:

Because networks of communication may generate feedback loops, they may acquire the ability to regulate themselves. For example, a community that maintains an active network of communication will learn from its mistakes, because the consequences of a mistake will spread through the network and return to the source along feedback loops. Thus the community can correct its mistakes, regulate itself, and organize itself. Indeed, self-organization has emerged as perhaps the central concept in the systems view of life, and like the concepts of feedback and self-regulation, it is linked closely to networks. The pattern of life, we might say, is a network pattern capable of self-organization. (p. 82-83)

For this reason, managers must pay particular attention to organizational feedback. Nonlinear systems operate by two basic forms of feedback loops—negative (stabilizing) and positive (amplifying). Negative feedback allows a system to maintain a state of equilibrium while positive feedback, in its purest form, pushes a system toward extreme instability. Stacey (1992) contends that it is the interface of these two feedback boundaries that creates a third condition, namely chaotic behavior. This behavior becomes bounded instability as contradictory forces create unpredictable patterns of creativity. For this reason, managers working within the new paradigm “must create, invent, and discover their destinations as they go” (Stacey, 1992, p. 4). The framework for such an endeavor is innovative strategic direction.

Factors Relevant to Knowledge Generation and Organizational Learning

Creative Expression

Creativity and innovation supply energy for organization change and innovation. Unfortunately, traditional managerial perspectives can hamper these processes. Regularity and uniformity keep systems in states of equilibrium (negative feedback), which are often reinforced by the accustomed principles control, measured decision-making, and unified visions.

In a chaotic framework, organizations driven to a “far-from-equilibrium” state result from the creative energies released in self-organization. As Stacey (1992) emphasizes, creativity is generated and released as systems transition through dialectics of stability and instability:

In chaos then, creativity is a potentially ongoing process that is internally generated in a spontaneous manner. It is neither proaction according to some prior design nor reaction to environmental change, but rather continu-

ing interaction with other systems in the environment. A system in this state creates its own environment and its own future. (p. 83)

From this perspective, creativity is not something “decreed” (or even a material “thing”), but rather a natural outcome of the system’s ongoing interchanges (between stability and instability) and reciprocities with its environment (i.e., structural couplings).

The imaginative processes connected to creativity are co-created in informal group networks. These spontaneous forming groups emerge from natural communicative interaction and have no centralized core governing their actions. Through dialogue, unstructured brainstorming, and critical questioning, these groups self-organize to deal with strategic issues.

Interpersonal Spaces

A number of strategies exist for knowledge generation and transfer. Most invoke the value of small group dynamics and interpersonal conversation. For example, Davenport and Prusak (2000) recommend managers supporting various types of “talk communities” in which physical space and time are set aside for employee dialogue. Cafeterias, and break rooms are two illustrations. Groups can also self-organize by common interests (i.e., “communities of practice”) by regularly communicating reflections, impressions, and ideas via email, conversation, and memorandums. Another possibility entails sponsoring knowledge fairs and forums where a variety of groups (from different levels) interact in real-time, face-to-face venues to discuss innovative concepts and research subject. Idea sharing and problem-posing have both systemic and intellectual value; for this reason, managers should not view “talk time” and casual interchange as a waste of time, but rather as a natural property of dynamic innovation. Opportunities for knowledge generation and sharing should be encouraged by reinforced throughout all levels of the organization.

Conflictual Learning

Many view conflict as an uninviting consequence of interaction. In actuality, conflict has a meaningful role in learning dynamics:

The important point is that, far from being harmful, the instability of multiple cultures and conflict around issues and careers, as well as lack of cohesion, consensus, and commitment, is vital to the continual provocation of new perceptions and ideas. In a successful organization this instability is bounded, not explosive. (p. 95)

Drawing on Senge, Stacey (1992) emphasizes the importance of “double loop learning” over “single loop learning.” Single loop learning is characteristic of most group problem-solving models; a problem is identified, alternatives are considered, and a solution selected. In contrast, double loop learning fosters imaginative contemplation, as well as innovative discovery. Double loop learning is a process that can be encouraged, but not necessarily measured or regulated.

Facilitating a Constructive Climate

Managers can promote encouraging climates in which they exert “influence by operating on the boundary conditions surrounding the learning process in the organization, that is, the context within which it occurs” (Stacey, 1992, p. 164). In an eight year study of group dynamics, Gibb (1961) found six behaviors that contributed to supportive climates: (a) descriptiveness, (b) collaboration, (c) spontaneity, (d) empathy, (e) equality, and (f) provisionalism.

Conclusion

Complexity theory offers new and exciting opportunities for the study and practice of organizational learning. This paper examined the systemic features of organizations with a particular focus on knowledge generation. Specific implications are made concerning elements of management, principles of organizational structure and communicative attitudes, and knowledge management.

Conclusion

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Dr. Justin Walton is an Associate Professor of Communication Studies at Cameron University in Lawton, Oklahoma. He completed his undergraduate education at Oklahoma State University and received his M.A. and Ph.D. from the University of Oklahoma. He frequently teaches coursework in presentational speaking, small group dynamics, research methods, communication theory, and multicultural communication. His scholarly interests include critical approach to communication pedagogy, citizenship education, and instructional leadership. In addition to his teaching and research, Walton serves as the department's mentor for students concentrating in communication education.

Service-Learning as a Professional Development Tool

Lillian Wichinsky

Carolyn Turturro

University of Arkansas, Little Rock

The authors examined students' attitudes towards grant writing and program evaluation when service learning was integrated into the assignment. Over a two-year period, 71 graduate students participated in an online survey responding to both qualitative and quantitative items. Students overwhelmingly reported that they learned more through the service-learning experience than they would have doing the assignment as an academic exercise. It is recommended that all disciplines seek out service-learning opportunities to promote professional development.

Keywords: Service-Learning, professional development, student attitudes, curriculum development

Service-learning is a form of experiential learning that combines community service with academic instruction. Service learning affords students the opportunity to connect theory to practice in a way that is different from other forms of experiential learning (Brown & Kinsella, 2005; King 2003). Integrating service-learning into "the social work curriculum builds upon the traditional internship by providing students with additional exposure to real world problems experienced by communities" (Scott, 2008, p. 216). Service-learning tasks are paired with structured opportunities that link the tasks to reflection, self discovery, and the acquisition and comprehension of knowledge, values and skills. According to King (2003), service learning embodies specific social work values, such as respect for diversity, self-determination, collaboration, social justice, a person-in-environment focus, and accountability. A successful service learning experience changes both the student and the recipient of the service. A fully integrated service-learning course teaches community-based social work skills by linking classroom-learning objectives and social work competencies to service learning experiences in the community (Scott, 2008).

By integrating service-learning into the framework of community practice, students can acquire skills in grant writing and program evaluation, while simultaneously providing a service to an agency that may not have the staff or time to carry out these tasks. Skills in grant writing and evaluation are desirable for every social work practitioner. Yet, often these skills are acquired through "hypothetical" assignments. The purpose of this paper is to describe the service-learning assignments used in two MSW courses at a metropolitan university and to discuss findings from a student survey that measures their perceptions about service learning.

Foundations of Community Practice Course Description

Foundations of Community Practice (Foundations III) is a core requirement of the first year curriculum. The major assignment is a grant (service learning component). Students are asked to collaborate with the agency in which they are interning and identify a need. If the agency has already established a need, the student must carry out the project based on the agency's preference. As part of this assignment, students must sign an agreement with the agency to complete a grant application or proposal, complete a client profile, and identify three funding sources. It is the responsibility of the agency to submit the final grant proposal and to provide the student with the information necessary to complete the work. If the student is not currently enrolled in a field placement then various projects are available through other organizations located in the district. The grant writing component of the community practice class has been in place for the past fifteen years, however, it has only been in the past two years that students have been required to complete a "real life" grant as part of the service learning component. The students have only eight weeks to complete their assignment. They are required to present the final grant proposal to the class and agency. The projects in which students have been involved are varied. Three grants have received funding, ranging

from \$500 received by a neighborhood association for a web based newsletter, to \$2,000 for symphony members to visit public school children and finally \$20,000 to develop the infrastructure of a new agency for youth aging out of foster care. Even when grants are not funded, the agency or organization has the foundation for future grant proposals and applications.

Evaluation Research Course Description

Evaluation research is a core part of the curriculum in the second year of the Community Practice Track of the MSW curriculum in. The course is offered over two semesters. During the first semester, students from the fields of social work, gerontology, and non-profit management learn approaches to evaluation and as their major assignment develop a proposal to carry out a “real life” evaluation. Students work closely with the field instructor to identify a need or area of interest for the agency or organization in which they will perform the evaluation. The second semester is the implementation phase, where students carry out the evaluation. They are responsible for collecting data, analyzing results, and reporting their findings in a professional report which they deliver to the class and the agency. The evaluation assignment has been integrated into the curriculum for the past 15 years.

Students have carried out process, outcome, and program evaluations as well as needs assessments in numerous agencies and programs throughout the state. These projects have ranged in size and scope. Some examples include; an evaluation of foster parent training offered through the Department of Human Services, an evaluation of adult dental services offered through Medicaid, an evaluation of an Employment Assistance Program offered through a university medical center and a needs assessment of services offered to youth aging out of foster care. Students learn not only how to carry out an evaluation but learn the pitfalls as well.

Research and Methodology

During the academic years 2009-2010 and 2010-2011, a total of 71 graduate students taking either the Foundations III course (N=58), or the Evaluation Research course (N=13) participated in an online survey about the inclusion of service learning in their coursework. The anonymous survey was approved by the university’s Institutional Review Board. At the end of the semester, instructors emailed a link to Survey Monkey, requesting students to fill out the survey. Participation was not mandatory, although over 90% of the students in the courses completed the survey. The survey contained both open and closed-ended (Likert scale) questions about their experience of doing a real grant proposal or program evaluation for an actual agency.

Findings

Table 1 shows students’ ratings of the service learning experience, Foundations course and Evaluation Research course responses were aggregated. It can be seen that while most students rated the experience somewhat to very difficult, tedious, and time-consuming, the majority of students from both classes rated the experience as very interesting and genuine, and not at boring.

Responses to qualitative items were overwhelmingly positive. The question “Do you think you learned or gained more from your service learning experience than you would have gotten if the time spent on the project was spent in the classroom or done as an academic exercise?”

The Foundations III course respondents were enthused:

YES! Dealing with a real agency, real problems, real people with real time constraints and other bumps in the road. It wasn’t as smooth and easy as I thought it was going to be. And very good learning opportunity! Glad I didn’t just spend it in the classroom or make it up.

Or as another student pointed out:

Definitely! The exercise was academic in nature anyway. I did as much secondary research for this project as any other paper I have written. So if the project is a learning exercise and requires academic creativity, why not spend the time doing it for a real agency out of the classroom. Getting out of the classroom and networking was a great

way to do real world work!

The majority of respondents from the evaluation course preferred the service experience. For example, this student who wrote:

I don't feel that I would have understood all that goes into planning and carrying out a program evaluation from just discussing it in class. I really dislike doing something as just an academic exercise and often lose interest and get frustrated. I very much enjoyed having a useful product at the end of this process.

Limitations

This was an exploratory study that utilized a convenience sample with measures developed by the researchers. During the two years of data collection, there was only one instructor responsible for both courses. There were no incentives offered to students for responding to the survey however, results may not generalize to other instructors.

Discussion and Implications

This preliminary study found that students overwhelmingly preferred to apply skills and knowledge gained in the classroom to real world settings. Although students found the tasks difficult and time-consuming, they also found the assignments extremely interesting and rewarding. The authors recommend that all disciplines seek out service-learning opportunities for preparing students for professional work in their field and carry out research investigating the influence of service-learning on skill acquisition and competency.

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Table 1

Overall on a scale of 1 to 5, please rate how the addition of the service learning component affected the course, (n = 71)

	1 None	2 a little	3 somewhat	4 much	5 a lot	Response count
Difficulty	4.2% (3)	12.7% (9)	35.2% (25)	21.1% (15)	26.8% (19)	71
Interesting	4.3% (3)	2.9% (2)	5.7% (4)	45.7% (32)	41.4% (29)	70
Genuine	2.9% (2)	1.4% (1)	12.9% (9)	38.6% (27)	44.3% (31)	70
Time-consuming	0.0% (0)	1.4% (1)	11.3% (8)	29.6% (21)	57.7% (41)	71
Tedious	4.2% (3)	9.9% (7)	35.2% (25)	19.7% (14)	31.0% (22)	71
Boring	67.6% (48)	15.5% (11)	11.3% (8)	2.8% (2)	2.8% (2)	71

Dr. Lillian Wichinsky is currently an Assistant Professor in Social Work at the University of Arkansas in Little Rock. Dr. Wichinsky teaches in the Masters Program and areas of concentration include: Evaluation Research, Research Methods, and Foundations of Community Practice, Diversity and Oppression, Social Welfare Policy, and Global Perspectives in Social Work. Areas of research, evaluation and publication center around service-learning, organizational culture and climate, early childhood education and global perspectives on social work.

Dr. Carolyn Turturro is the coordinator of the Graduate Gerontology Program and offers a Graduate Certificate in Gerontology and a Master of Arts in Gerontology. The interdisciplinary program is housed in the School of Social Work. Dr. Turturro teaches coursework in the gerontology and graduate and undergraduate social work programs. Courses taught include Research Methods, Statistics, Evaluation Research, and Biology & Psychology of Aging.

Service Learning and Student Practitioners: Contextual Learning and Portfolio Building

Dana Moore Gray
Rogers State University

Service learning and student practitioners: Partnering RSU business majors and local entrepreneurs for service learning, portfolio development, and economic growth. Since 2005 RSU business majors in two upper-level courses (Marketing for the Entrepreneur and Marketing Management) have partnered with small businesses in the community. Students self-select small businesses either through their own contacts or as facilitated through the RSU Innovation Center. During the courses they learn and write marketing plans including research, market strategies, and implementation plans. The plans in Marketing Management are presented to clients. Plans that are well developed are prepared as artifacts in the students' portfolios of professional experience.

Keywords: service learning, economic development, entrepreneurship, portfolio, experience

Much has been researched and written regarding the concept of service learning including its design, effectiveness, benefits, and results for students, communities, and universities. Rooted in pragmatist and humanist philosophical perspectives, the pedagogy of service learning involves some type of instructional learning and theory further explored through hands-on experimentation (Farazmand, Green, & Miller, 2010). The learning experience is designed to help students translate and transfer theory to application, reinforcing first-hand understanding.

Definitions

Definitions of service learning typically focus on serving the community and nonprofits while reinforcing the values of good citizenship. Mennen (2006) said the central concept of service learning is provides a “win-win for students (applying their knowledge and skills in the real world) and service clients (receiving extra assistance), (p. 192). Jacoby (1996) wrote that service-learning was “a form of experiential education in which students engage in activities that address human and community needs together with structured opportunities intentionally designed to promote student learning and development” (p. 5).

Bingle & Hatcher (2009) noted that service learning experiences strengthened awareness and citizenship values. Note that service learning differs from volunteering in that the academic work is intentionally designed to enrich, enhance, and re-enforce specific learning objectives.

A similar term is active learning, defined by Keyser (2000) as “any teaching method that gets students actively involved . . . including working closely with [a] business owner or non-profit to resolve a real world issue/problem . . . (Yates & Ward, 2009). Service learning falls within the scope of active learning.

Pedagogy

The pedagogical concept of active learning moves learners from passive receivers of information and theory to active users who are engaged in solving problems and performing higher-order thinking skills including analysis, synthesis, and evaluation – essentially learning activities that include the student reflecting about what they are doing (Bonwell & Eison, 1991). The concept is based on the argument that learning requires more than just listening to hone higher order thinking skills listed in Bloom’s taxonomy (Mungaray, et al., 2007).

A related concept is entrepreneurial learning, which builds on the notion that true entrepreneurs are lifelong learners who glean information from customers, suppliers, competitors, employees, and other entrepreneurs. They learn from experience and learn by doing as well as learning from what doesn't work (Pittaway & Cope, 2007).

Service/entrepreneurial learning strategically blends education, experience, and service to create "a sense of achievement, satisfaction and effectiveness as a community member, in addition to fulfilling degree requirements (Farazmand, Green, & Miller, 2010).

The research literature provides a theoretical foundation supporting the value of service learning in upper level business courses. Service learning has been linked to developing higher-order thinking skills (Abrahams & Singh, 2010; Anderson & Kratwohl, 2001), improving students' knowledge and skills (Eyler & Giles, 1999), enhancing student learning and personal growth (Farazmand, Green, & Miller, 2010), and empowering students to search for and maintain a successful career (Elam et al., 2003). Sternberger, Ford and Hale (2005) referred to service learning as a powerful teaching method promoting students' learning and personal transformation (Farazmand, F. A., Green, R. D., & Miller, P. (2010).

Philosophical Perspective

While knowledge precedes skills (Willingham, 2009), enhancing knowledge, skills, and personal development are benefits and key aspects to successfully competing in the job market. Service-learning provides this experience and the students' personal and professional development. In short, service learning helps develop lifelong learners. From a pragmatist perspective, educators are tasked improving learning outcomes and better preparing graduates for successful careers. In today's economic recession, that is not a task to be taken lightly.

In an era of greater accountability and social responsibility, universities have an increasingly important role in developing meaningful courses that prepare students for jobs as well as for active community leadership (Brower, 2011). Schools have increasing competition and higher expectations from employers to better train and prepare students for successful careers (Blankinship, 2007), and one strategy used is service learning – bringing the real world to the classroom (or the classroom to the real world) so students can apply theory to practice, discuss critical issues, and better understand strategic decision making.

Instructional Design

While the research literature indicates there is no single process for designing a service learning project (Kahne, Westheimer, & Rogers, 2000), Bringle & Hatcher (1999) described the instructional design process in a series of six steps. The first step is to identify a course or course objective that lends itself to service learning. The second step is to brainstorm service-learning projects that could be designed to meet course objectives. Next is to identify a community agency to partner with for the service learning project and then to design the learning experience as a win-win for the students and the community. Domegan & Bringle note that the service learning project should be a collaborative effort between the community and the instructor (2010). Bringle & Hatcher (1999) then advise to focus on developing a relationship with a single agency, starting small with a single project that one course can manage.

The service learning project closes with an evaluation step that includes and fosters reflection. This allows students to further link academic content to real-world activities experienced during the service learning project.

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Dana Moore Gray, Ph.D., APR
Assistant Professor, Rogers State University

Education PhD, Occupational Education, Fall 2007, Oklahoma State University. Numerous scholarships. Master of Science, Telecommunications Management, Oklahoma State University, 1998. GPA: 3.8. Pipe Liners Academic Scholarship Recipient, Spring 1997. Bachelor of Arts, The University of Tulsa, 1979. President's List, Dean's List, GPA 3.28. Double Major: Advertising/Public Relations, Mass Media News

Professional Accreditation APR, International Accreditation, Public Relations Society of America, 1990.

Professional Teaching Experience Rogers State University, 2009-2010, assistant professor
o Marketing, public relations, business courses Rogers State University, 2005-2009, instructor
o Marketing, public relations, computer applications courses Rogers State University, 2004-05, adjunct instructor
o Marketing and computer applications courses

Leveraging the MBTI to Affect Change

MaryRose Hart
Rogers State University

This presentation will discuss how the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) instrument can best be used to facilitate positive change in an organization. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is an instrument based on research conducted by Carl Jung and Isabel Briggs Myers. Briggs originally developed the concept to better understand the behaviors of normal individuals.

The strength of the MBTI instrument lies in helping managers understand preferences, nuances, behaviors, and mental processes of individual employees. By using the MBTI, a person can predict what types of information disparate individuals prefer, the format and delivery, and orientations toward change. This insight can better assist the manager in preparing employees for positive change. Change is more effective when participants buy into it. By recognizing people are different and use information differently, we can more effectively facilitate positive change.

In this presentation I will discuss the different profiles revealed by MBTI, how each profile relates to change, and the needs of each when dealing with change.

Keywords: MBTI, change, human resources, Myers Briggs type indicator

MaryRose L. Hart, Ph.D., was the first person in Oklahoma to earn both the Senior Professional in Human Resource Management and Global Professional in Human Resource Management certification from the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM). Today she is one of three Oklahomans to have achieved this status.

She has taught for 29 years at graduate and undergraduate courses at major and regional universities and has a decade of professional experience in the compensation field. She served four years as an Air Force Officer and is a patented inventor. She has consulted in the areas of compensation, staff development, and ethical issues with fortune 500 companies for more than 20 years. She also led St. Louis University's Business Internship Program with more than 120 interns per semester.

Novice Principals Need Peer Mentoring

Rosalinda Hernandez

Velma Menchaca

The University of Texas Pan American

In this era of accountability, principals are now responsible for student achievement on high-stakes state-mandated assessments and the No Child Left Behind Act. The novice principals who enter the profession today face a multitude of issues as they learn on the job. Skills necessary to lead highly complex schools are not learned in traditional principal preparation programs, therefore, it becomes essential to support and assist novice principals at the beginning of the principalship career with a peer mentor, a more experienced school leader. Peer mentoring allows the principals to be socialized into the profession they are about to embark on and it also allows them to have a smooth transition into the principalship. There are peer mentoring strategies discussed in this article considered highly effective throughout the United States.

Keywords: mentoring, novice principal, peer mentoring, mentors

Historically, principals have been rewarded for their work as managers, disciplinarians, and fiscal administrators (Flanary & Terehoff, 2001). However, the role of the principal has evolved over the past 30 years from manager to instructional leader in this era of accountability where high stakes testing and the No Child Left Behind Act have exacerbated the difficulty in sustaining effective performance by school leaders (Darsch, 2004; DiPaola & Hoy, 2008). As instructional leaders, principals are now responsible for student achievement on high-stakes state-mandated assessments. This development of increased standards for principals such as the heightened accountability by legislative and regulatory bodies, reform efforts and the complexity of changing demographics, places the principal in an isolated position where the expected role demands multiple definitions.

Highly trained and proficient principals are not born as leaders nor do they learn all the skills necessary to lead highly complex schools in traditional principal preparation programs (Southern Regional Education Board, 2007). Therefore, it becomes essential to support and assist novice principals at the beginning of the principalship career, with a peer mentor, a more experienced school leader, during their first few years in public school administration. Many novice principals are “tossed into the trenches” unprepared for what is to come and are left to survive alone. These newly appointed principals feel overwhelmed and isolated, yet they are expected to lead schools that have become very “...complex organizations with unpredictable demands” (Lovely, 2004, p. 10).

Today’s novice principals work long hours and are challenged to address and resolve a multitude of issues simultaneously. Not only must they be an expert in state and federal regulations, they must also be informed on local school board policies. Novice principals differ greatly from veteran principals with 20 or 25 years of administrative experience in multiple schools settings. The knowledge, skills, and values that new principals acquire will develop over time as they gain experience. Yet, there is little doubt that strong effective novice principals are prerequisites to school improvement and these principals are crucial to the development and preservation of effective schools (Bloom, Castagna & Warren, 2003). So, new principals are expected to hit the road running immediately.

As the many baby boomers leave the profession, new principals are entering the role of principalship with less experience. Unlike other jobs, principals have no “incubation period”; they are expected to perform all duties of the office and have the same if not more skills than the principals they are replacing (Bugbee, 2006). Malone (2001) supports the dilemma that not only is there a shortage of principals to fill current vacancies, but approximately 40% of the current principals are nearing retirement. Some of the factors include the increasing workload and stress that is often associated with the position (Hansford & Ehrich, 2006). During the past decade most of the principal’s time was spent on personnel management, student interaction, and observation and feedback (Bugbee, 2006). Today, the role of the principal has undergone dramatic changes. Most recently, a study conducted in Texas found that the most

serious concerns the principal faces today include role expectations, time commitment, lack of support, and community politics (Simieou, Deeman, Grigsby and Schumacher, 2010). Due to these demands, principal retention rates are heavily influenced by the level of student achievement and principals who leave as the leader of a school, leave the principalship profession altogether (Fuller & Young, 2009). Therefore, it is incumbent upon school districts to respond to the challenge of supporting principals and especially novice principals through a system of peer mentoring.

Elements of Peer Mentoring

New principals need guidance, support, and reassurance if they are to become effective leaders in today's multi-complex schools. Mentoring allows the principals to be socialized into the profession they are about to embark on and it also allows them to have a smooth transition into the principalship. One way to assure the success of new principals is through principal mentoring programs.

Many states require that new principals be mentored during the first two years of their careers. In fact, "Corporations have long used mentoring -- either formally or informally -- as a career-development strategy in which experienced executives offer developmental assistance to their less experienced protégés" (National Association of Elementary School Principals & Collaborative Communications, 2003, p. 9). Mentoring provides constant and current professional development for both novice and veteran principals. Some districts provide all principals with mentors, whereas other districts only allow novice principals to be mentored.

Strategies for Peer Mentoring

In a recent study, ten novice principals were mentored by two university faculty that had experience as public school administrators. The novice principals, from the same district, had two years or less experience as principals. The faculty acted as coaches and mentors to 10 novice principals. They organized structured bimonthly meetings for one year. The ten principals began to see that they had similar issues and concerns. The principals learned as much from their peers as they did from the coaches/mentors (Simieou, Decman, Grigsby, and Schumacher, 2010).

University faculty can assist school districts in providing successful induction and mentoring programs. Both of them have a vested interest in the success of the novice principals. Licata and Ellett (1988) discuss how university and school districts work together to provide novice principals with clinical induction programs.

Many states, professional associations, and public school districts, have created mentoring programs to certify and train mentors. In fact, by 2006 roughly half the nation's states enacted requirements that all new principals undergo mentoring (The Wallace Foundation, 2007). The Wallace Foundation published a report highlighting several mentoring programs considered highly effective throughout the United States. One of those is the New York City Leadership Academy where trained active and retired mentors provide professional support to both new and experienced school leaders, with particular emphasis on how they could enhance student achievement (Strong, Barrett & Bloom, 2003).

Another mentoring program was developed in 2002 by the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) in partnership with Nova Southern University whereby retired and experienced principals were trained to become mentors/coaches. The program was designed to create a cadre of mentors whose training and expertise was channeled to support both first-year or newly assigned principals. The training integrated mentoring best practices with participants' experiential knowledge (Brown, 2005). The mentoring program advocated that the mentor and the new principal review circumstances surrounding problems and determine methods of resolution (Brown). New principals understand the importance of reflecting on the methods of resolution (Brown).

Another model for peer mentoring was the San Diego Mentor Program. The San Diego City Unified School District approved a plan to provide administrators with "job-embedded training" to give them opportunities to build on existing strengths. Successful former administrators were selected to mentor principals. On-site mentors were responsible solely to mentor principals and assist in shaping them into strong instructional leaders. The development of this trusting and respectful relationship was the key to the success of the San Diego Mentor Program. Both the on-site mentor and the principal together made classroom walkthroughs and then analyzed how to best assist the

teachers. Developing a pool of on-site mentors who were exceptionally successful leaders were “key” to a successful mentoring program (Barry & Keneko, 2002).

Conclusion

A 2003 Public Agenda report showed that 52% of principals felt that the mentoring and guidance they received from colleagues was their most valuable preparation (Farkas, Johnson, & Duffett, 2003). Yet, compared to other education topics, there is very little written about principal mentoring. This relatively new approach to supporting our novice principals is an outgrowth of several stimuli, one of which is the impending shortage of qualified candidates for the principalship (Educational Research Services, 2000).

The mentoring of novice principals is an emerging national trend today. It is what the mentoring of teachers was years ago. If mentoring programs for principals can be as successful as structured mentoring programs for teachers, principals can become successful quickly to address today’s multi-complex schools.

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Rosalinda Hernandez, Ph.D., has been an elementary principal and has held numerous central administrative positions in public education before joining the faculty at The University of Texas Pan American. She teaches courses in the principal preparation and doctoral program. Her research interests include redesigning high schools, mentoring and leadership of principals in areas of high concentration of minority and limited English proficient population.

Velma Menchaca, Ph.D., has been a teacher leader and has held faculty positions in three Texas universities. Most recently she was department chair and interim dean for the College of Education at The University of Texas Pan American. Her research interests include mentoring, culturally relevant content, multi-cultural education and migrant education.

An Interprofessional Education Opportunity for Future Health Care Leaders

Denise Neill

Jere Hammer

University of Houston-Victoria

Increasing emphasis on interprofessional collaborative practice to improve health care delivery quality and safety led nursing faculty in a small liberal arts university to explore a unique educational initiative with School of Business Administration faculty. While developing a master of science in nursing administration option, the opportunity to create a collaborative undergraduate health care administration concentration with the School of Business Administration developed. Common competencies and potential shared courses were identified. After launching the initiative, faculty from both schools collaborated to evaluate outcomes. Student response has been overwhelmingly positive. The ability to examine health care issues from both business and clinical perspectives broadened the views of students in both majors. Challenges encountered and lessons learned that strengthened the intercollaborative project are identified. Ev!

aluating and strengthening the partnership using the Interprofessional Education Collaborative Expert Panel guidelines is discussed. Advice and encouragement are offered to others considering similar non-clinical collaborative opportunities.

Keywords: Interprofessional education, Nursing, Health care administration, Collaborative learning

Opportunities for interprofessional education (IPE) are often abundant in urban universities and health sciences centers, but for our small, rural academic institution the chance for collaborative study in the school of nursing (SON) seemed a remote prospect. An unexpected invitation to partner with the school of business administration (SBA) to develop and implement a health care administration (HCA) certificate program made the distant possibility an immediate reality. The purpose of this paper is to share our journey into non-clinical collaborative education.

The decision to work with the SBA was an easy one based on full accreditation by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) and a highly credentialed business faculty. The graduate nursing faculty included two required business courses in the administration track that added value to the MSN program. The HCA certificate program was a chance for the SON faculty to give back to their business colleagues by admitting HCA students into existing nursing courses.

After the health care administration certificate program was approved by the university and higher education coordinating board, the faculty developing the curriculum identified student competencies and outcomes, selected courses, and verified AACSB faculty qualifications. HCA competency domains were initially drawn from the state's nursing facility administrator (NFA) examination domains of management theory and practice, concepts of aging, resident care, financial management, state regulations and laws, human resources, physical plant, and legal issues (Texas Department of Aging and Disability Services, 2009). Four existing courses that conclusively addressed HCA competencies included health care informatics, health care finance, health care delivery systems, and the leadership practicum. The business faculty also suggested the role, policy, and ethics course to meet ethics and policy role competency requirements for HCAs. The nursing faculty agreed to include the course in the collaborative on a trial basis.

The next step was course preparation. The lead faculty member in the nursing administrative track, who has a terminal degree in nursing and a master's degree in human resources administration, modified course descriptions and objectives to meet the needs of the HCA students and developed a separate syllabus for each cross-listed course. Module objectives and assignments were adapted to reflect NFA competencies and core knowledge areas covered by the American College of Health Care Executives (ACHE) credentialing examination (ACHE, 2008). Course textbooks

were examined for appropriateness for the blended group of students. Required journal article reading assignments were added to HCA and MSN syllabi that targeted health care leaders in general rather than nursing leaders alone. Articles geared to nurse administrators were included in the HCA syllabi as recommended readings. During course orientation, the faculty planned to explain the collaborative nature of the course and emphasize the mutual benefits of IPE.

The first collaborative courses were offered in the summer semester of 2008 using a hybrid delivery method with 50% of the course contact taking place in the classroom and 50% completed online. Students were challenged to seek and provide explanations for new or confusing concepts during classroom or online discussions and group assignments. Group membership was determined by the faculty to ensure even distribution of HCA and MSN students. The presence of non-nursing students changed the dynamic in both learning environments. Nurses were forced to translate health care jargon and processes while HCA students helped their nursing colleagues understand business and accounting principles. Classroom and online discussions encouraged students to express personal views about health care and pushed them to consider the perspectives of another discipline.

Course instructors evaluate courses each semester. End of course reports indicated acceptable outcomes in most courses requiring minor adjustments or enhancements. However, the role, policy, and ethics course results did not meet nursing faculty expectations. Although MSN and HCA students engaged in lively ethical and policy discussions and enjoyed written assignments, neither group was informed enough about their new roles to ascertain collaborative responsibilities. Approximately one-third of the course content was originally dedicated to introducing MSN students with varying degrees of professional work experience to new role expectations and responsibilities accompanying advance education. The majority of HCA students had no health care work experience. Feedback from three different nursing faculty members suggested that HCA students needed to have a more in-depth introduction into the roles and responsibilities of the health care administrator before they could benefit from collaborative discussions. Based on instructor feedback, the role, policy and ethics course was reviewed first to determine if course expectations were being met. Representatives of both schools determined that the roles content needed to be discipline specific and removed the course from the collaborative course options. The other four collaborative courses were also evaluated and continue to work well with both groups of students as they learn with and from each other. The faculty posits that these courses are successful because the content is new to both groups of students so they are entering at the same level and their diverse work experiences enhance rather than hinder the acquisition and exploration of new concepts.

The overall IPE experience with the SON and SBA has been positive based on anecdotal comments, course evaluations, and faculty observations. One group of HCA students seemed to struggle more and voiced feeling more overwhelmed than other groups. Further investigation revealed the students struggling the most were primarily junior level students with limited work experience in general or with weak academic credentials upon entering the HCA concentration. SON and SBA faculties agreed that for all students to achieve the maximum benefit, HCA students must be classified as seniors to register for the collaborative courses.

Faculty understanding of interprofessional collaborative competencies was essential for successful IPE endeavors. The recent work of the Interprofessional Education Collaborative Expert Panel (IPEC) (2011) emphasizes the importance of a team approach for meeting the complex demands of health care in the future. Interprofessional collaboration promises to improve health care quality, cost, and safety (Institute of Medicine [IOM], 2003; IPEC, 2011; Zwarenstein, Goldman, & Reeves, 2009). The IPEC (2011) report identified 38 competencies in four domains - values and ethics, roles and responsibilities, interprofessional communication, and teams and teamwork. Sponsors of the IPEC panel included professional organizations from a variety of clinical disciplines. Health care administrators need to collaborate with clinical professionals in practice and would benefit from IPE during training. The same competencies identified by the IPEC panel for clinicians are appropriate to guide the current MSN/HCA collaborative. The systematic process used by the IPEC panel to develop their list of competencies gives us more confidence in our collaborative and helps ensure all faculty members teaching in the collaborative are using a common set of competencies.

Additional time for course preparation and faculty support were crucial during collaborative course development and implementation as even experienced faculty members reported feeling inadequate in their first exposure to IPE with non-clinically focused students (Anderson, Cox, & Thorpe, 2009; "Team Based Competencies," 2011).

Courses appropriate for interprofessional learning opportunities concentrate on the common competencies across disciplines. Extremely important and timely reports by several respected groups are now available to guide IPE initiatives (IPEC, 2011; "Team Based Competencies," 2011). Although this information was not available when we began our IPE collaboration, we are using the recommendations during course and curriculum revisions.

For IPE to be successful, collaborating faculty must identify courses appropriate for diverse health professionals. As is the case in any curriculum venture, multiple trips to the drawing board will be needed to refine the curriculum. We learned that MSN and HCA students benefit from shared learning opportunities; however, care must be taken when selecting courses that include pre- and post-professional students. Outcome evaluation and modification to meet changing needs are vital in business and clinical health care related disciplines. Discipline specific competency must be considered when designing and evaluating a collaborative curriculum.

The single greatest benefit identified in the MSN and HCA IPE collaborative is the increased opportunity for understanding the perspectives and contributions of each profession to safe, quality patient outcomes (MacDonald et al., 2010; Suter et al., 2009). Well-planned course assignments and activities create opportunities for learners to view another's world. Faculty members were thrilled to see MSN students expand their views beyond nursing. Expanded views increase understanding. Understanding brings respect; respect improves collaboration; and collaboration leads to the ultimate goal of improved patient outcomes.

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Denise Neill, Ph.D., RN, CNE is an Assistant Professor in the School of Nursing at University of Houston-Victoria (UHV) where she coordinates the RN-BSN and MSN programs. She has more than 16 years experience as an educator and program coordinator. As program coordinator she seeks innovative education opportunities. She has worked with community colleges and other schools in the university to increase the educational opportunities available to students in the UHV service region. Her research interests include both education and practice issues and nursing workload concerns and the impact on quality, safe patient care and retention of nurses. In addition to her work at the university, she is a member of the Texas Nurses Association and has served on the staffing committee and as District President in the Victoria area.

Jere Hammer, Ph.D., RN is an Assistant Professor in the School of Nursing at University of Houston-Victoria (UHV) where she serves as lead faculty in the MSN administrative track. She has more than 20 years experience in nursing education. Dr. Hammer has a master's degree in human resources administration.

Reengineering Hospital Systems

Uche Nwabueze
University of Houston-Victoria

The paper suggests that effective systems implementation of Business Process Reengineering (BPR) is only possible in hospital organizations capable of building open, honest, and lasting relationship with employees, suppliers, customers, and business partners. The paper suggests that the use of Inter-relationship management is the most effective approach for reengineering. It is noted that interrelationship management is not customer relationship management (CRM), nor is it relationship marketing (RM); it is about managerial governance involving three inter-related parts: process planning, process improvement, and process redesign.

Keywords: Reengineering, Inter-relationship Management, Implementation

Starting a Business Process Reengineering Program (BPR) in any hospital system takes capital, knowledge, and managerial commitment. Succeeding with BPR, however, requires inter-relationship management skills based on designing productive business and organizational processes that consistently deliver on customer and patient expectations. To be consumer and patient focused, every hospital system would need the support of management, customers, suppliers, employees, and value chain partners. No healthcare organization can compete and excel on the competitive factors that are important to patients: quality of care and caring, cost of care, flexibility of medical services, service delivery, speed, and reliability of care without the right combination of leadership, strategy, operations, engaged employees and organizational agility. Before implementing BPR, it is absolutely important for healthcare organizations to ensure that they have in place the support of key stakeholders: doctors, nurses, and other medical and non medical staff. This would ensure the attainment of the main objectives of BPR – the creation of a value added, high performance and robust service organization possible. However, the high failure rate of most BPR programs, the author suggests; is as a result of the lack of alignment between people/operations, operations/strategy, and people/strategy. It is about time that hospital organizations recognize their folly – no amount of process renewal can compensate for marginalizing patients, employees, and business partners.

What is Business Process Reengineering

There are as many definitions of the term BPR as there are commentators resulting in a lack of an agreed definition or a specific 'can-do' model for its implementation. Thus, the interpretation of the definition and implementation of BPR is left to the idiosyncratic nature of managers. Consequently, many managers have tended to label any change program as BPR. Nevertheless, the most commonly used definition of BPR is that provided by Hammer and Champy (1993): "the fundamental rethinking and radical redesign of business processes to achieve dramatic improvements in critical, contemporary measures of performance, such as cost, quality, service, and speed".

The essence of this definition is the suggestion that incremental improvement – looking for better ways of doing what we already do becomes redundant. What organizations, particularly hospitals need to do is find new ways of making and delivering products and services; concentrating on what should be, rather than on what is. An obvious problem, however, is the fact that most hospital organizations are not imaginative enough to find new ways of doing things. The mantra still is: Can we do better what we already do, regardless of effectiveness and relevance. Hammer and Champy (1993) argue that a business process is a sequence of activities that result in the delivery of valuable products or services to the customer. This definition, to say the least, would not result in delighted customers. For example, when organizational activities are preformed sequentially; physical and mental "walls" tend to build up between functional areas and departments. As a consequence, the output from one work station is "thrown over the wall" to the next stage, with little discussion or feedback. This is the reason why hospital processes are based on a

Just-In-Case basis. A more enlightened definition of a business process is the inter-relationship of activities that result in the 'efficient' production and 'effective' delivery of products or services to the customer. It is important to note that the essential activities that make up a process are not supposed to be sequential, but concurrent; requiring the inputs and involvement of process owners, suppliers, employees, customers, and partners. In the global arena, it is evident that customers are totally in charge. They determine the survival of firms, and as a result, building solid business relationships must become a company's most prized asset. Thus, cross and lateral relationships should be nurtured to ensure that value is provided each and every time a customer triggers action along the value chain by wanting to purchase a product or service.

THE OBJECTIVE OF BPR

Ruchala (1997; love et al 1998; Mckay and Radnor 1998; Talwar 1996; Coulsen-Thomas 1997; and Slack et al 1998) all agree that the primary objective of BPR is to add value to the customer and meet their needs. This is further endorsed by Soliman (1998) who cites Scully and Fawcett (1993) in classifying the key factors which affect the competitive position of healthcare organizations as 'cost, quality, delivery dependability, flexibility, and innovation'. Meeting these specific competitive factors fundamentally requires the redesign of processes to ensure an environment free of waste and non-value adding activities. The objective of BPR, however, is best described by Childe et al (1996) as seeking improvement across and within processes by examining flows of information and materials.

How Do You Redesign A Business Process?

For Stevens (1994) and Soliman (1998) it is essential to first start with mapping the current process. This allows for the identification of duplication of effort, bottlenecks, and waste. A view supported by Hammer (1990) who asserts that a process must be fully understood before it can be reengineered. Although nobody disputes the need to scrutinize current processes, Talwar (1997) raises the question of timing stating that some methodologies focus on the definition of strategy prior to the analysis of current operations. A key step for process redesign, as far as the author is concerned, from an organizational perspective, is to use a basic process flow chart to understand the current process, redesign and then configure the ideal process that would exceed expectation. In addition, the critical stages for redesigning processes are:

1. Process Planning
 - a. Establish process objectives
 - b. Identify process customers
 - c. Determine customer needs and expectations
 - d. Evaluate process limitations through the use of process flow charts or mapping
 - e. Diagnose the causes
2. Process Redesign
 - a. Determine idea process
 - b. Totally redesign with emphasis on designing out failure points
 - c. Set new process goals
 - d. Establish process controls
 - e. Choose units of measure
 - f. Create process sensor
3. Process Improvement
 - a. Measure actual performance

- b. Interpret the difference
- c. Institutionalize change
- d. Hold the gains
- e. Identify new processes
- f. Find new ways and not better ways for improvement

The Confusion – No Specific Plan for BPR Implementation

The lack of a specific action plan for BPR is indicative of the general confusion over the subject of BPR, and much of this hinges on the importance attached to deep and radical change. Biazzo (1998) agrees with Hammer and Champy (1993) that BPR is the radical transformation of a firm that offers a revolutionary, non-incremental approach to change. This is supported by Coulson-Thomas (1997) who breaks it down further into the radical redesign or rebuilding of individual processes, whole organizations or relationships between suppliers and customers. Despite this academic view, most practitioners within organizations are likely to pursue a more 'ad-hoc or pragmatic path' because the associated risk is far lower. Willocks (1995) undertook a study of BPR initiatives in 168 UK-based organizations (cited in Petu et al 1996), of which 46% reported achieving anticipated benefits from completed BPR programs and only 5% failure rate. However, Fitzgerald and Murphy (1997) contradict this by stating that the majority of BPR projects fail or are abandoned without achieving the desired objective. This discrepancy occurs because of the fundamental lack of clarification on how BPR implementation should be approached.

Coulson-Thomas (1997) states that in the UK almost any successful change program is labeled as reengineering, therefore the impetus for radical change is lost. Davenport (1993) takes a different perspective in stating that 'reengineering and quality improvements can exist in tandem, with BPR only applied when absolutely necessary. The implication being that BPR is nothing more than a short term strategy for organizational transformation (Nwabueze 2001). For effective implementation, Coulson-Thomas (1997) is an advocate of the radical approach and states that there are actually few independently validated cross-functional examples of BPR that have run full course. He believes that where incremental improvements are the required outcome, then change strategy undertaken is not BPR, but 'process simplification', 'process improvement' (Talwar 1997) or 'continuous process improvement (Nwabueze 2001). Other studies (Childe et al 1994) refute this argument identifying more than one acceptable approach depending on the extent of change required and the mechanism for intervention based on the needs and limitations of the business at the time of implementation. Grover et al (1993) cited in (Biazzo 1998), suggest that effective BPR implementation reflects a planned alignment between business process and information technology infrastructure as opposed to a simple automation of current processes'. However, it is important to note that the use of computer simulation models to enable a representation of a real-life system must not be understated, and studies such as Faraj et al(1990; Soliman and Youssef 1998; and Biazzo 1998) support this view. Whatever the academic persuasion of BPR there seems to be a common agreement that the implementation of BPR involves several critical factors:

1. Radical transformation
2. Vision-led
3. Review framework
4. Introduce new technology
5. Change attitudes and behavior
6. Director led
7. Limited number of corporate initiatives

For the author, whilst these factors may be essential for BPR, many writers fail to take account of what should be the most important ingredient for success – 'Inter-relationship Management'. This is demonstrated using the transformation framework:

See Figure 1

The suggestion therefore, is that organizations embarking on BPR must ensure; effective relationship in the form of suppliers, processors and customers working together in a coordinated manner by sharing and communicating information and by talking to one another. It is the sustenance of good relations between manufacturers, customers, suppliers, distribution centers, and transportation systems that has enabled some companies to consistently meet or exceed the needs of their customers. Effective relationship ensures that an organization and its partners in the value chain share the same goals. This level of interdependence and goal sharing makes the building of relationship an important strategic decision for any company embarking on BPR. However, to succeed, organizations must control the bane of inter-relationship management – poor management. This would require identifying and understanding the causes of poor management, determining how it affects other activities across the organization, and then formulating ways to reduce or eliminate it.

THE PHILOSOPHY OF INTER-RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT

Inter-relationship management rests on the analysis of what does work operationally rather than mere good intentions and promises by management of what should work because they would like it to. It is based on the concept of managerial driven governance. This means that organizations exist to serve customers. And yet most companies in the Western world are customer blind. The greatest irritant most customers in the West experience in dealings with manufacturing, service, or public sector organizations is the blatant disregard for their needs and unwillingness on the part of western industrial management to serve.

Principles of Inter-relationship Management

Inter-relationship management is underpinned by four elements:

See Figure 2

Using figure 2 as a basis for explanation, the author is of the opinion that effective organizations first and foremost, need great, visionary leadership. The problems facing organizations today are; poor quality, lack of agility, poor service, unreliability, and customer exploitation. How would these problems be best solved? These problems can be overcome by key stakeholders acting collectively under a focused, customer centric leader.

It is also the author's suggestion that engaging and building a loving relationship with employees is critical to organizational performance – take care of your own and they would take care of the customers. To achieve an employee centric environment in organizations would require the redesign of managerial systems (style of management, management work methods, attitudes, and behavior). This would ensure that employees play an empowered, supporting role in the attainment of organizational goals.

The achievement of consistency in operation performance would require that organizations have in place a set of values and guiding principles in the form of a core strategy. In an age where customers are in charge, it is my belief that strategic blindness is a deadly flaw.

See Figure 3

To succeed in the global environment organizations must be extremely flexible, nimble, and adaptable to changing customer requirements. This requires an explicitly, well executed strategy; ensuring a clear business purpose and matching competencies to the needs of the market place. The fourth element of inter-relationship management as evidenced in figure 2 is organizational agility. This element is the most important driver of performance because the environment within which people work shape attitudes and this environment is made up of systems and structures. However, a fundamental hindrance to performance is the fact that the operating system in most companies reinforces the mentality that change, particularly radical change is not necessary. Thus one of the most important jobs of a leader in the implementation of BPR is to encourage and facilitate an organizational environment where people

continuously challenge, and are fundamentally empowered to redesign those systems and structures that prevent great performance. The key is to never allow organizational systems serve themselves.

Applying the Principles of Inter-relationship Management in a BPR Environment

BPR in the author's opinion is about liberating an organization like a hospital to do what is required of it by the customer/patient in the most effective manner; it is therefore a weaving of relationship rather than down-sizing or right-sizing. BPR should also include the mobilization of the intellectual capital within the organization; letting people take control of processes, identify gaps and limitations, and then renew processes for competition. This however, is not the case with most BPR organizations; they are big, complex, messy, and heavily layered with too many chiefs and not enough Indians. What is needed is an inter-relationship management based BPR program:

See Figure 4

Conclusion

It is the suggestion of this paper, that a better future for any organization in terms of customer centric processes and systems cannot be attained when sought after directly. It would only come as a by-product of providing an employee – centric leadership through inter-relationship management. The relatedness of the four elements of the new philosophy, inter-relationship management, should enable a healthcare organization understand that implementation of BPR must begin with a picture of the destination and the process of getting to the destination, which must be shared by everyone – process owners and key stakeholders. Also to be included in this picture is the critical activities to be redesigned, redefined and refocused.

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Figure 1

Reengineering the Supplier Process	Reengineering the Productive Process	Reengineering the Delivery Process
To acquire materials in the right quality, quantity, and on-time delivery requires open, honest, and reliable relationship with suppliers.	To enhance the productive process to meet consistently manufacturing specification requires a loving relationship with employees.	To effectively deliver products undamaged, on-time, when, where, and at affordable cost to the customer requires effective relationship with value chain partners.

Figure 2

Leadership	People	Strategy	Organizational Agility
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Figure 3

American companies have explicit strategy, but operationally incompetent	British companies, no explicit strategy and operationally incompetent
Japanese companies have explicit strategy and operationally competent	German companies, operational competent with explicit strategy

Figure 4

Organizational Agility	Operational Effectiveness (people, suppliers, partners)	Strategic Thinking
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> v This is who we are v This is what we are about v This is what we stand for v Systems redesign 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> v Reengineering all work processes to be customer centric v Culture change in people's attitude, beliefs, and behavior v Effective supplier – processor – customer interface 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> v A clear sense of purpose in what we are trying to achieve through clearly defined goals and objectives and how to achieve them v Choosing to run a different race every time

Dr. Uche Nwabueze is a visiting professor at the school of Business Administration, University of Houston, Victoria. A career management consultant, Dr. Nwabueze has dedicated his life to the implementation of quality improvement programs in healthcare organizations across four continents. He enjoys playing soccer and travelling. His students often describe his classes as an adventure in critical thinking, problem solving and practical application of theoretical concepts. A tireless advocate of change in his home country of Nigeria, Dr. Nwabueze is a weekly contributor to the Daily Champion Newspaper in Nigeria.

School Leadership's Trials and Trails: A Hundred Leadership Paths Diverged, Intertwined and Bifurcated, Sometimes Coming Out At the Same Place

Charles R. Waggoner
Eastern New Mexico University

School Leadership comes in many manifestations and nomenclatures. Though the course of a day, a school year, or a lifetime an individual's leadership style will emerge in a variety of diasporic ways that will encompass the unique individual who has the title of school administrator. The literature is replete with leadership terms and stories. All of the leadership paths and stores are instructive to those who pursue a lifetime of learning and leading in this business we call "school administratin."

Keywords: school leadership, principals, school boards, leadership

During one of those interminable committee meetings that all university instructors are required to participate in for the "service contribution portion of the contract," a colleague remarked to us how tired he was due to the fact that he had spent so much time grading papers. In my irreverent style I told him, "Isn't it much better teaching college classes and grading papers than being one thousand feet underground in a coal mine bent over at the waist?"

He looked at me like the pariah that I sometimes can be and said, "I'm not so sure." Not so sure indeed. I retired as a school administrator after having been a superintendent for thirty years. I have not worked a day since I procured my job as an associate professor of educational administration in January of 2004. Being a university professor is not work in any conventional sense of the word; this is fun. This is part of what is wrong with many college professors today. They have no notion of the real world of work. President Harry Truman perhaps said it best, "All that changes in history is the name we give things." In my forty year career in education I have seen the emphasis go from small high schools and school districts are best, to larger high schools are more economical, can offer many more electives, and pay higher salaries to attract better teachers and administrators, back again to smaller schools are much more student and community accessible and personal. The large school small school issue is just one of many "hot button" topics that ebb and flow in the world of educationalese.

There were approximately 180,000 books published in the United States last year, or about 490 per day. Almost 4,000 dealt with the subjects of management and leadership in a substantive way. Several hundred of these titles dealt specifically with the leadership role of school administrators. A few of these titles go on to best-seller acclaim, while the preponderance remains largely unread and unutilized. In addition to the books published on this topic, there are thousands of journal articles and popular articles published annually and archived.

There are so many titles and articles about leadership and management available that is impossible for any one individual to have read or even sifted through, or even be aware of, any significant number of them. We try as best we can to be aware of the literature in the leadership-management field, but it is a very difficult assignment. On occasion, a book about leadership will make the New York Times bestseller list for nonfiction. This was the case, albeit briefly, for Nassir Ghaemi's book, *A First-Rate Madness: Uncovering the Links Between Leadership and Mental Illness*. Ghaemi's thesis is that when a crisis looms, it is the leader who struggles with aspects of lifelong mental illness who leads best. Any leader will do when things are going well, but only a leader with mental illness can achieve greatness in the most difficult and trying of times. This book may provide school boards with new criteria when looking at administrative candidates.

The value of contemplating leadership for anyone who aspires to be or has ever been a leader is the metacognition factor, the analytical process of trying to figure out the entire topic. Reflecting on my role as a school district superintendent and my current role of teaching graduate students who aspire to become school principals about the subject of school leadership, I have come to wonder if I was a leader, a manager, or just the guy in charge. Just as Nassir Ghaemi has attempted to redefine what constitutes a leader, I have also redefined my idea of what makes a person a leader, or a manager, or just in charge of something.

Whether the school board consists of five, seven or nine members, keep in mind that all school board members are rabid political animals who have made themselves available to the electorate for a very specific reason or reasons. This elected political group employs a superintendent and sometimes the entire administrative team that they believe will best serve the collective interests of the school board. The administration will stay in place as long as the board is "satisfied." Officially, the reason that an individual seeks a seat on a school board typically goes along the lines of "I am running for the betterment of the district," or "I am seeking a seat on the board to better serve the students and parents of the community."

Seldom to ever will you hear a board candidate say something to the effect of "I am running because this district is so amazingly wonderful that I wish to help the administration and teachers to continue to do the stellar job that is currently being done." The reality is that folks run for a school board seat because they want something. This something may be nothing more than local acclaim or seeing their names in the paper upon occasion. Typically, board candidates want something much more concrete. I have seen them desire to add female soccer to the athletic program because they had a daughter that was prolific in that sport. I have known some to wish to add vocational classes for their children or more AP classes for their children, or a dual enrollment program at the community college, once again for their children. It is true that other children will benefit from the board members' desires; however, there is an absence of truth in the political advertising.

More often than not, a reason for seeking a school board seat is to run a coach out of town, or "get" a particular teacher or school administrator fired. Former Speaker of the House of Representatives Tip O'Neal once said that "All politics is local." Boards of Education represent local politics at its very worst when it consists of nothing more than a self-serving tribe of opinionated obsequious buffoons. Once school administrators accept the fact that the school board is political, we can come to understand the reality that leading a political configuration is difficult. President Obama could speak to this reality with the legislative group that he must lead.

There are those who say that leadership does not exist apart from management, and do not stress about the difference between the two concepts. Most authors make much ado about contrasting the different roles of management and leadership. The focus of principal education has typically been to stress the role of leadership over the role of "just being the manager." The literature of leadership rarely if ever covers the concept of "just being in charge" of others. Is a school manager in charge? Are the terms synonymous or can they even be considered in the same sentence? Can the school manager be a leader? If the principal is in the process of giving the due process rights to a student who is about to be suspended, is the principal a manager or a leader, or just in charge of the suspension process?

I have arrived at the position that principal candidates wish to become school leaders, not because they know what they mean, but due to the fact that the literature tells them that this is the way they should think.

One of my projects is for the students in principal preparation classes to discuss the differences between a principal as a manager and a principal as a leader and the experiences that they have had with both types. The discussions are both interesting and instructive. A few examples:

"Leadership is a culture of mentorship. The movie *Lean On Me* demonstrated the difference between management and leadership."

"I see principals that have taught in the classroom for a minimum amount of time. How can they be a leader if they haven't taught or worked with students in years if not decades?"

"Managers are always on the defensive and pointing fingers. They cannot step-up to owning their mistakes. Leaders say thank you for your help and continue to make changes for the better."

"Managers just keep the status quo, while leaders look to the future."

"Leaders are not afraid to share the success with the employees."

"Managers are the ones who direct, delegate and ensure that operations run smoothly. Leaders are the people who make a difference."

Another favorite discussion of mine is for the students to consider a person, living or deceased, whom most of the class would be familiar with, that they consider a great leader. A small pool of names is brought forward each semester. These are some of the typical responses on the discussion board:

"The leader who I think has continued to influence our county is Franklin D. Roosevelt. Being elected four times as our president is a true reflection of his leadership. Moving our country out of the depression and through WWII to become an eventual world power speaks volumes to the leadership he provided during those difficult times."

"To me Bill Gates is one of the most respected men in the world. He creates many great situations that people from all over the world benefit from. The Bill Gates Millennium Scholarship and the Gates Foundation are just two examples of Bill Gates' leadership."

"Martin Luther King, talk about a leader who stood for what should be right for all citizens. He faced many obstacles and never wavered in his quest for fair treatment and justice for all people."

"Abraham Lincoln is a true leader. He was able to guide a divided nation to a successful conclusion of the war."

Conclusions are as follows: Abraham Lincoln, Martin Luther King, Bill Gates, Franklin D. Roosevelt, and occasionally Ronald Reagan are named as examples of people who most exhibited leadership. Any discussions concerning the differences between leadership, management, being a boss, or being in charge become confused in the literature, to the point where a new bricolage is necessary. The term that we have arrived at for the rest of the twenty-first century is 'Lenager'. A person has to have the appearance of being a leader and manager, and also leave a legacy.

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Charles R. Waggoner is an Associate Professor Educational Studies at Eastern New Mexico University. He retired from Illinois school administration after twenty-eight years as a district superintendent of schools, two years as a K-12 principal, and three years as a full-time middle school teacher. He received his Ph.D. in Education Administration from the University of Iowa.

Mentoring Post-Secondary Tenure-Track Faculty: A Theory-Building Case Study and Implications for Institutional Policy

Dannielle Joy Davis

Alabama State University

Patricia Boyer

University of Missouri at St. Louis

Isela Russell

University of Texas at Arlington

The featured research uses theory-building case study to understand the experiences of junior faculty in a mentoring program. Findings suggest the importance of professional interaction for faculty members' integration into their campus communities. An explanatory model illustrates the findings and supplements discussion of the implications for administrators in terms of retention of new faculty members in postsecondary settings.

Keywords: faculty, mentoring, tenure-track, theory

Isela Russell is a doctoral candidate at the University of Texas at Arlington.

Dr. Dannielle Joy Davis is representing the University of Texas at Arlington. She has studied and conducted research in Ghana, South Africa, Egypt, Germany, the Netherlands, and Belgium. Her interdisciplinary, K-20 research examines the experiences of marginalized groups in educational settings, including women. She has published over 20 refereed journal articles, book chapters, academic commentaries, volumes, and reviews.

A Comparison of Urban, Suburban, and Rural Principal Leadership Skills by Campus Student Achievement Level

Susan Erwin

Pam Winn

John Erwin

Tarleton State University

Because of the importance of developing highly skilled school leaders, statewide assessments of 784 Texas public school administrators were compared to determine how leadership skills varied by type of campus (urban, suburban and rural) and by campus student achievement ratings. Important findings indicate differences exist by campus type and by campus student academic achievement as measured by state accountability ratings. In particular, leadership skills of urban, suburban, and rural principals at campuses with the state's highest student academic achievement ratings differ from skills of principal at schools with lower student academic achievement ratings.

Keywords: Principals, Leadership skills, Urban schools, Suburban schools, Rural schools

In spite of overwhelming evidence (Winn, et.al, 2009 a, 2009b) that principals have an essential role in creating effective schools (Marzano, et.al., 2005; Leithwood, et.al., 2004; Lesotte, 1992, 1991), comparisons of leadership skills in terms student academic achievement and type of school population (urban, suburban, or rural) have not been conducted. Because of the urgent need for highly skilled school leaders, this study compared the leadership skills of practicing urban, suburban, and rural administrators to determine to what degree their skills differed by campus student achievement.

Method

Principal Assessment of Student Success (PASS), provided the data for this study. PASS data accessed from Texas principal evaluations conducted state-wide from 2006 through 2008 yielded records of 784 elementary, middle, and high school principals from 248 urban, 277 suburban, and 259 rural schools (see Appendix B).

Leadership skill was assessed using records provided by principals (campus improvement plan, state accountability data, Adequate Yearly Progress, phone interview, teacher performance data, and student performance data) PASS assessor teams (two assessors per principal; recruited among Texas veteran campus and central office administrators, and university educational leadership departments) rated principal leadership skills within three domains: functional, programming, and interpersonal (see Appendix A).

The assessor-identified leadership skills were compared to Texas public school accountability ratings (from low to high): Academically Acceptable (AA), Recognized (R) or Exemplary (E).

Descriptive statistics were used to calculate principal and assessor rankings. Chi-square cross tabulation tables used to determine dependence/independence by school accountability ratings and principals' NPBEA skill rating frequency counts were not found to be statistically significant and, thus, were not reported.

Results

Assessor ratings of the top five skills by campus accountability ratings produced 672 ratings for 244 urban principals (see Appendix C), 711 ratings for 277 suburban principals (see Appendix D), and 714 ratings for 259 rural principals (see Appendix E). The five most frequently rated skills by campus type (urban, suburban, or rural) and state

accountability group (AA, R, E) are listed in Appendix F. Of the 14 NCBEA skills assessed, five did not appear (Problem Analysis, Curriculum Design, Measurement and Evaluation, and Resource Allocation) among those most frequently observed.

Assessors consistently highly rated AA campus leaders on three functional domain skills (Leadership, Sensitivity, Information Collection and Organizational Oversight) and one interpersonal domain skill (Sensitivity) regardless of campus type (urban, suburban, rural). Only Student Guidance and Development (urban), Judgment (suburban) Instructional Management (rural) differed among AA campus leaders. Notably, these skills all fall within the programming domain. Six of the 14 NPBEA skills were exhibited most frequently among AA campus leaders.

At R rated campuses, urban, suburban, and rural principals were rated the same in two functional domain skills (Leadership, Organizational Oversight) and one interpersonal domain skill (Sensitivity). Information Collection, a functional domain skill, was rated highly for all except urban campus principals, and Judgment, a programming domain skill, was common to all except suburban campus principals. Unique skills exhibited by only one R campus type were Oral Expression (suburban), an interpersonal domain skill, and Student Guidance and Development (urban), a programming domain skill. Seven of the 14 NPBEA skills were exhibited most frequently among R campus leaders.

Leaders from E rated campuses shared two functional domain skills (Leadership, Information Collection) and one interpersonal domain skill (Sensitivity). Organizational Oversight, a functional domain skill, was rated highly for all except urban campus principals, and Student Guidance and Development, a programming domain skill, was common to all except suburban campus principals. Unique skills exhibited by only one E campus type were Oral Expression (urban), an interpersonal domain skill, Instructional Management (suburban), a programming domain skill, and Staff Development and Judgment (rural), both programming domain skills. Nine of the 14 NPBEA skills were exhibited most frequently among E campus leaders.

Significant Conclusions

Of the 14 NPBEA skills assessed, only nine were consistently identified among the top skills of sampled Texas principals. Regardless of school type (urban, suburban, and rural) or campus achievement rating (AA, R, E), sampled principals were rated highest in the same four of the 14 NPBEA skills assessed (Leadership, Sensitivity, Information Collection, and Organizational Oversight). This indicates the importance of these skills in school leadership. However, the absence of Problem Analysis, Curriculum Design, Measurement and Evaluation, and Resource Allocation also has strong implications. Four of the five are programming domain skills requiring systemic campus leadership and holistic perspective, enabling principals to develop frameworks, design anticipated outcomes, implement supervision, set goals, and utilize inferential thinking.

Differentiated by only two skills per campus type (urban, rural, suburban), leaders at AA rated schools were more likely to exhibit similar skills than their counterparts at R or E rated campuses. Among leaders from R rated campuses, suburban/rural leaders were most alike, differing by only two skills; whereas, urban/rural leaders differed by three skills, while urban/suburban leaders differed by four skills. The greatest differences in leadership skills were exhibited among E campus leaders. Three skills differentiated E leaders in urban/suburban and urban/rural comparisons, while four skills differentiated E leaders in suburban/rural comparisons. Overall, AA campus leaders were most similar regardless of campus type, supporting studies indicating when schools face sanctions, principals utilize management versus systemic leadership strategies (Anagnostopoulos & Rutledge, 2007).

The largest differences among leadership groups were found between suburban/rural E campus leaders. These differences may result from differences in suburban/rural financial resources (Hill, 2009; Warren & Peel, 2005) and suburban demographic changes more comparable to urban, rather than rural, schools (Howard, 2007; Nevarez & Wood, 2007).

Recommendations

Study findings indicate that principals from all campus achievement levels demonstrate functional domain (managerial) skills; however, as principals increasingly demonstrate programming domain (systemic) skills, campus student achievement increases. This finding suggests the need for professional development aimed at nurturing systemic practices among campus leaders. In addition, clear communication, both individually (i.e. Oral Expression) and within groups (i.e. Staff Development) appears to differentiate leaders at more highly rated campuses, indicating a need to develop these skills to a greater extent.

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Appendix A

National Policy Board of Educational Administration (NPBEA): Knowledge and Skill Domains

Functional Domain Skills comprise base-level management and organizational structure to supervise daily, routine campus business (e.g. to run the buses on time, schedule classes, or maintain order). Evidence of effectiveness is typically quantifiably measurable (e.g. attendance records, disciplinary referrals).

1. Leadership: Providing purpose and direction, formulating goals with staff and setting priorities based on community and district priorities and student and staff needs.
 2. Information Collection: Classifying and organization information for use in decision making and mentoring.
 3. Problem Analysis: Identifying problems, identifying possible causes, seeking additional needed information, framing possible solutions.
 4. Judgment: Giving priority to significant issues then reaching logical conclusions and making quality decisions.
 5. Organizational Oversight: Planning and scheduling own and other's work so that resources are used appropriately and monitoring priorities so that goals and deadlines are met.
- Programming Domain Skills provide systemic campus leadership requiring a holistic perspective that incorporates but surpass functional domain skills. More complex and difficult to quantify, these skills enable principals to develop frameworks, design anticipated outcomes, implement ongoing supervision, set goals, and draw inferences.
6. Instructional Management: Ensuring appropriate instructional methods are used to create positive learning experiences.
 7. Curriculum Design: With staff, planning and implementing a framework for instruction and aligning curriculum with anticipated outcomes.
 8. Student Guidance and Development: Enlisting the support and cooperation of diverse professionals, citizens, community agencies, parents and students to promote the growth and development of all students.
 9. Staff Development: Supervising individuals and groups and providing feedback on performance and initiating self-development.
 10. Measurement and Evaluation: Examining the extent to which outcomes meet or exceed previously defined goals, or priorities and drawing inferences for program revisions.
 11. Resource Allocation: Allocating, monitoring and evaluating fiscal, human, material and time resources to reach campus goals and objectives.

Interpersonal Domain Skills employ functional and programming domain skills, but are subject to individual perception, making measurement more difficult. For example, principals may perceive themselves to be sensitive while faculty members disagree. Nevertheless, these skills improve effective implementation of both functional and pro-

gramming skills.

12. Sensitivity: Perceiving and responding to the needs and concerns of others.

13. Oral and Nonverbal Expression: Making oral presentations that are clear and easy to understand.

14. Written Expression: Expressing ideas and appropriately in writing for different audiences.

(Thomson, 1993)

Appendix B

Sample

Urban Principals by Texas Accountability Ratings and School Type; Frequency count and percentage (N=248)

Urban Campus Type	AA Count %	Of Total AA %	R Count %	Of Total R %	E Count %	Of Total E %	Total Table Count	Total Table %
Elementary	68 39.3%	27.4	48 76.2%	19.4	12 100%	4.8	128	51.6
Middle School	39 22.5%	15.7	11 17.5%	4.4	0 0%	0	50	20.2
High School	66 38.2%	26.6	4 6.3%	1.6	0 0%	0	70	28.2
Total	173 100%	69.8	63 100%	25.4	12 100%	4.8	248	100

(Lowest to Highest: AA = Academically Acceptable, R = Recognized, E = Exemplary)

Suburban Principals by Texas Accountability Ratings and School Type; Frequency count and percentage (N=277)

Suburban Campus Type	AA Count %	Of Total AA %	R Count %	Of Total R %	E Count %	Of Total E %	Total Table Count	Total Table %
Elementary	43 31%	16	63 61%	23	31 94%	11	137	49.5
Middle School	39 28%	14	27 26%	10	2 6%)	1	68	24.5
High School	58 41%	21	14 13%	5	0 0%)	0	72	26.0
Total	140 100%	51	104 100%	38	33 100%	12	277	100

(Lowest to Highest: AA = Academically Acceptable, R = Recognized, E = Exemplary)

Rural Principals by Texas Accountability Ratings and School Type; Frequency count and percentage (N=259)

Rural Campus Type	AA Count %	Of Total AA %	R Count %	Of Total R %	E Count %	Of Total E %	Total Table Count	Total Table %
Elementary	27 18.9%	10.4	62 64.6%	23.9	19 95.0%	7.3	108	41.7
Middle School	40 28.0%	15.4	23 24.0%	8.9	0 0.0%	0	63	24.3
High School	76 53.1%	29.3	11 11.5%	4.2	1 5%	0.4	88	34.0
Total	143 100%	55.2	96 100%	37.1	20 100%	7.7	259	100

Appendix C

Urban Principal NPBEA Skills by Texas Accountability Ratings (N= 244 teams)

Functional Domain Skills *322/672 (47.9%)	AA	R	E	TOTAL RATINGS
Leadership	86	28	3	117
Information Collection	51	13	4	68
Problem Analysis	15	8	2	25
Judgment	29	14	2	45
Organizational Oversight	50	16	1	67
Programming Domain Skills *197/672 (29.3%)	AA	R	E	TOTAL RATINGS
Instructional Management	32	11	1	44
Curriculum Design	17	10	1	28
Student Guidance & Development	49	17	4	70
Staff Development	11	3	0	14
Measurement & Evaluation	19	6	2	27
Resource Allocation	11	3	0	14
Interpersonal Domain Skills *153/672 (22.8%)	AA	R	E	TOTAL RATINGS
Sensitivity	67	26	7	97
Oral & Non-verbal Expression	29	12	4	45
Written Expression	8	2	1	11

Note. *= Total by Domain; AA=Academically Acceptable, R=Recognized, E = Exemplary.

Appendix D

Suburban Principal NPBEA Skills by Texas Accountability Ratings (N= 264 teams)

Functional Domain Skills *440/711 (61.9%)	AA	R	E	TOTAL RATINGS
Leadership	70	64	11	142
Information Collection	49	37	11	97
Problem Analysis	18	16	6	40
Judgment	39	21	4	64
Organizational Oversight	33	35	9	77
Programming Domain Skills *147/711 (20.6%)	AA	R	E	TOTAL RATINGS
Instructional Management	29	20	14	63
Curriculum Design	9	2	4	15
Student Guidance & Development	16	6	4	15
Staff Development	4	4	1	9
Measurement & Evaluation	15	7	1	23
Resource Allocation	7	4	0	11
Interpersonal Domain Skills *144/711 (20.2%)	AA	R	E	TOTAL RATINGS
Sensitivity	42	34	10	86
Oral & Non-verbal Expression	23	22	7	52
Written Expression	3	2	1	6

Note. *= Total by Domain; AA=Academically Acceptable, R=Recognized, E = Exemplary.

Appendix E

Rural Principal NPBEA Skills by Texas Accountability Ratings (N= 259 teams)

Functional Domain Skills *365/714 (51%)	AA	R	E	TOTAL RATINGS
Leadership	71	59	7	137
Information Collection	45	39	7	56
Problem Analysis	16	12	5	33
Judgment	26	28	8	62
Organizational Oversight	37	29	11	77
Programming Domain Skills *204/714 (28.5%)	AA	R	E	TOTAL RATINGS
Instructional Management	34	20	3	57
Curriculum Design	27	2	0	29
Student Guidance & Development	27	14	15	56
Staff Development	13	6	8	27
Measurement & Evaluation	18	4	0	22
Resource Allocation	7	3	3	13
Interpersonal Domain Skills *145/714 (20.3%)	AA	R	E	TOTAL RATINGS
Sensitivity	48	36	7	91
Oral & Non-verbal Expression	20	15	2	37
Written Expression	8	6	3	17

Note. *= Total by Domain; AA=Academically Acceptable, R=Recognized, E = Exemplary.

Appendix F

Table 1

Comparison of top five Urban, Suburban, and Rural Principal NPBEA Skills by Texas Campus Accountability Rating

Top 5 Ratings (5= Highest)	5	4	3	2	1
<u>Urban</u> (AA) Campuses	Leadership (FD)	Sensitivity (ID)	Information Collection (FD)	Organization Oversight (FD)	Stud/Guid (PD)
<u>Suburban</u> (AA) Campuses	Leadership (FD)	Information Collection (FD)	Sensitivity (ID)	Judgment (PD)	Organization Oversight (FD)
<u>Rural</u> (AA) Campuses	Leadership (FD)	Sensitivity (ID)	Information Collection (FD)	Organization Oversight (FD)	Instructional Management (PD)
<u>Urban</u> (R) Campuses	Leadership (FD)	Sensitivity (ID)	Stud/Guid (PD)	Organization Oversight (FD)	Judgment (FD)
<u>Suburban</u> (R) Campuses	Leadership (FD)	Information Collection (FD)	Organization Oversight (FD)	Sensitivity (ID)	Oral Expression (ID)
<u>Rural</u> (R) Campuses	Leadership (FD)	Information Collection (FD)	Sensitivity (ID)	Organization Oversight (FD)	Judgment (FD)
<u>Urban</u> (E) Campuses	Sensitivity (ID)	*Info/collect (FD) *Stud/Guid/ (PD) *Oral/Express (ID)	*Info/collect (FD) *Stud/Guid (PD) *Oral/Express (ID)	*Info/collect (FD) *Stud/Guid (PD) *Oral/Express (ID)	Leadership (FD)
<u>Suburban</u> (E) Campuses	Instructional Management (PD)	Leadership (FD)	Information Collection (FD)	Sensitivity (ID)	Organization Oversight (FD)
<u>Rural</u> (E) Campuses	Stud/Guid (PD)	Organization Oversight (FD)	*Staff Devel (PD) * Judgment (FD)	*Staff Devel (PD) * Judgment (FD)	*Leadership (FD) *Information Collection

*same frequency counts; (AA) = Academically Acceptable, (R) = Recognized, (E)= Exemplary;
FD = functional, PD = Programming, ID = Interpersonal Domains

Susan Erwin, Ph.D., Assistant Professor
Curriculum and Instruction

Susan, holds a B.A. in history from Cameron University, a M.Ed. in special education from Southwestern Oklahoma State University and a Ph.D. in instructional leadership and academic curriculum from the University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma. With 23 years K-12 public school experience and 8 years in higher education, she presently serves as graduate program coordinator for the TSU Department Curriculum and Instruction.

Pamela Winn, Ed.D., Associate Professor
Educational Leadership and Policy Studies

Pamela holds a doctorate in Educational Administration from the University of Texas A&M-Commerce. She has been employed with Tarleton State University since April 2002 where she serves as an associate professor and director of the New Century Educational Leadership Program (NCELP). She has served in both public and higher education with experiences ranging from teaching to administration. Pamela's research interests have centered on curriculum design, instructional management, and leadership development. She has presented extensively at conferences at both the national and state levels, and has trained principal assessors across the state.

John Erwin, Ph.D., Writing Lab Director
Southwest Metroplex Campus; Tarleton State University

John, holds a B.A. and M.A. in English from Northern Arizona State University and a Ph.D. in instructional leadership and academic curriculum from the University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma. With 24 years K-12 public school experience and 10 years in higher education, he presently serves as writing lab director for the TSU Southwest Metroplex Campus. John also co-edits the Effective Schools Project Journal for TSU and the Botanical Research Institute of Technology (BRIT) online journal.

Creating Opportunities with Mentoring Relationships

Carrie J. Boden McGill
University of Arkansas at Little Rock

Navigating the cultural environment of academia can be a difficult task, particularly for first-generation college students and those who belong to groups typically marginalized in doctoral programs. This study examines two cases of first-generation, African American female graduate students to determine which traits preclude success in doctoral programs and how mentoring relationships influence completion. The women in this study come from similar backgrounds, but they adopted very different strategies for coping with adversity. It is possible that the presence or absence of positive mentoring relationships in their lives influenced the strategies that the women chose. This article seeks to strengthen current evidence on the positive effects of mentoring on educational success and presents factors for mentors to consider when working with minority students.

Keywords: Mentoring, Relationships, First-Generation Students, African-American Women, Women as Learners

The impetus for this study came from an interview with Iresa Stubblefield-Jones for a chapter in *Empowering Women Through Literacy: Views from the Field* (Boden, 2009). During the interview, a recurring theme emerged – the importance that mentoring relationships played for Iresa. Clearly, her mentoring experiences altered the direction of her life and continued to have a positive impact on her years later. Questions emerged about the implications of cross-racial mentoring, the importance of mentoring for first-generation college students, how mentoring women may be different from mentoring men, and how to develop a model of practice that professors and advisors could use in virtually any graduate educational setting.

Method

The research questions were modeled from items from the Stubblefield-Jones interview (Boden, 2009) as well as literature reviewed within the subject area. The framework included research on women's ways of knowing (Belenky et al., 1986), transformative learning (Brookfield, 2001; Mezirow, 1997), women's development (Gilligan, 1982), the impact of the social and psychological environments on women as learners (Hall & Donaldson, 1997) adult students' knowledge voices (Kasworm, 2003), and cognitive development (Perry, 1968). The basic research questions were:

1. Have the participants in the study had significant mentoring experiences? If so, what did these experiences entail?
2. Were mentoring experiences particularly significant for first-generation college-students? If so, in what ways?
3. Did the participants in the sample have mentors that were of the same race, different races, or both? How did the variety of experiences compare?
4. What kinds of information gleaned through the interview can be utilized to build a model of mentoring best practices?

The interview protocol derived from the research questions. The scope and breadth of the interview questions were limited to participants' defining positive and negative educational and personal experiences in various settings, participants' perceptions of culture, support, and self, and participants' actions and strategies.

Participants for the two cases were Chloe*, age 51, and Marissa*, age 33 (pseudonyms). Both women are African American first-generation college students who chose to pursue a doctorate. The participants were identified through social networking and referral.

Discussion

Upon a cursory glance, the two individuals in the study appear to be very much alike in a variety of ways. Both women had similar backgrounds, coming from drug-filled and unsafe neighborhoods. Likewise, the environments in which they grew up contained expectations for early pregnancy. Both women attended poor-quality, segregated schools, wherein few of their teachers had acquired a college degree. After admission into their graduate programs, it appears that both women had equal access to mentoring opportunities. Based on these factors alone, one might assume that both individuals would be likely to share the same worldviews.

However, upon closer examination, there appears to be a myriad of factors that shaped each individual's worldview. When examining their differences, it appears that Chloe heard positive messages from a very early age about how an advanced degree may lead to a better quality of life. She had the direct support of her mother and an uncle who assisted and encouraged her in applying for college. Chloe also reported consistent messages from her mother about the appropriate ways to conduct oneself while in an educational setting. Marissa, on the other hand, had the same encouragement to attend college but received little familial support and assistance when applying for school. Marissa reflected on her experience, remembering that she had to do much of the research about college on her own. Marissa reported a lack of strong role models during her childhood, and she did not know anyone with an advanced degree that she could seek advice from when applying for her degree program.

A difference between the two cases is the contrasting life strategies that the women adopted when they experienced problems as undergraduate students. Although both individuals reported feelings of loneliness during college, Chloe exhibited various coping strategies including goal setting, positive self-talk, and intentionality in forming bonds with both peers and instructors. Marissa, though exhibiting a will to persevere, became increasingly distrustful of others, leading to an avoidance of mentoring and peer relationships in graduate school.

The two cases presented in this study reinforce previous findings in the mentoring literature. Dolan (2007) suggests that the mentoring process does have an impact on the success of women's growth and development while Castro, Caldwell, and Salazar (2005) suggest that mentoring experiences may have an effect on the mentee's life views. Certain attitudes and life strategies among graduate students may preclude success in a particular program. For example, a student who seems distrusting of others will be less likely to form bonds and take part in peer mentoring opportunities. Figure 1 demonstrates a comparison of positive and negative traits between the two cases.

African American graduate students may experience. This breadth of experience highlights individual differences that one may consider when creating a model of best practices.

It appears that in these two cases, the presence or lack of individual relationships with mentors was a contributing factor to the type of self-talk in which the participants engaged. Positive self-talk may allow students to better cope with stressful situations and may provide a refocusing of priorities – allowing the student to develop a positive attitude, an improved self-esteem, and an increased willingness to persevere. In productive mentoring relationships, positive self-talk appears to develop almost naturally. Constant encouragement from a mentor often leads to an adoption of seemingly automatic self-encouragement by the mentee.

It is important to note that while obvious, readily available access to mentors is an important factor in the pursuit of mentoring relationships, it is certainly not the only determinant. Student motivation also appears to play a vital role in persuading the student to seek and initiate mentoring relationships. Likewise, though an individual may be actively involved in mentoring opportunities, a determining factor in the beneficial result of the relationship appears to be the way in which a student chooses to integrate what she learned into her own life. Should the student continually ignore mentor advice, the student will likely view the mentoring opportunity as a waste of time.

In order for a mentoring relationship to succeed, there must be open communication between the mentor and the mentee. Relationships appear to be the most beneficial when the mentee is willing to ask questions and seek advice from her mentor. Mentors often provide insight into skills that extend beyond the classroom. Occasionally, these

skills include strategies for navigating around any items of “hidden curriculum” that may exist. Thus, it seems likely that open communication between both parties can foster a valuable learning environment that unveils cultural norms and expectations of which the student would be otherwise unaware.

Based on the findings of this study, it appears that the presence of mentoring may help determine success for first-generation African American graduate students. Important mentoring experiences may occur during childhood, and many of the participants in this study identified their mother as being their first mentor. It seems that if there is an established pattern of mentoring early on, individuals may be more likely to seek mentors later in life, even after encountering negative educational experiences. This is an important piece of information for potential mentors to consider.

Formal, informal, and peer mentoring relationships can be factors related to success during graduate studies. It is a best practice for professors, program coordinators, and other individuals to provide both mentoring experiences and an environment conducive to peer mentoring.

The two cases presented in this study depict very different experiences with mentoring for two first-generation African American women during their doctoral studies. In the literature on mentoring and in this study, it is clear that a mentoring relationship can be an important factor in the success of the mentee. There are several factors that have an effect on the quality of the mentoring relationship, such as open communication, mutual commitment, and fluidity of roles and boundaries. In this study and in the literature, positive, solution-focused relationships with several mentors indeed made it possible for the mentee to “change the discourse” of her life.

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Figure 1: Comparison of Two Cases

	Chloe	Marissa
Response to Authority	+ Should be respected	- Should be distrusted
Teamwork	+ Encouraged	- Avoided, others will let you down
Mentoring Experience	+ A lot of mentoring in different environments	- Very few experiences, mostly avoided
Race Relations	+ Diversity respected	- Racism is pervasive
Family Relationships	+ Positive influence, seeks advice	- Negative influence, parents "don't understand"
World View	+ Assumes the best in others	- "Me vs. Them"
View of Self	+ Confident, willing to ask questions	- Self-esteem relies on others, should not ask for help
View of Peers	+ Valuable resources, one should learn from their experiences	- Will attempt to "sabotage" you, better "on your own"
Interpersonal Relationships	+ Attempts to form many bonds, tries to influence others positively	- Only forms bonds with like individuals, seen as a negative influence
Approach to Problems	+ Problem Solving, action-oriented	- Problem Dwelling, gives up easily
Work Environment View	+ A wonderful way to mentor others, always "smile" on the job	- A source of stress, feels overworked, not a "team player"
General Outlook	+ Optimistic, always seeking new opportunities	- "Glass half empty," expressed inner resentment and negativity

Dr. Carrie J. Boden McGill joined the UALR faculty in 2007 and currently serves as an Associate Professor of Adult Education and Program Coordinator for the Master's Degree in Adult Education. Dr. Boden McGill teaches a variety of courses including: Foundations of Adult Education, Psychology of Adult Learning, Program Planning in Adult Education, Internship in Adult Education, Organization and Administration of Adult Education, Methods and Materials in Adult Education, Teaching Adults, and several seminar courses.

Dr. Boden McGill holds a Ph.D. in Curriculum and Instruction with an emphasis in Adult Education from Kansas State University, M.F.A. in Creative Writing from Wichita State University, and B.A. in English Language and Literature from Bethel College. Her memberships include the Arkansas Association for Continuing and Adult Education, Adult Higher Education Alliance, American Association of Adult and Continuing Education, and Women Expanding Literacy Education Action Resource Network. Dr. Boden McGill serves as a Member-at-Large for the Commission of Professors of Adult Education and as a Director on the Board of the Adult Higher Education Alliance.

Dr. Boden McGill's research is primarily in the areas of self-directed learning, personal epistemology, transformative learning, and teaching and learning strategies. Recent publications and presentations focus on the mentoring experiences of graduate students, the effects of mindfulness practices on personal epistemological beliefs, and various methodologies that can be implemented in distance education and classroom settings. Dr. Boden McGill's book on transformative learning, co-edited with Dr. Sola Kippers, will be published in 2011.

Dr. Boden McGill has an interest in international education, and she recently participated in a faculty exchange program with Karl-Franzens Universität in Graz, Austria. She has also been on the planning committees for several international conferences and serves as an Associate Editor for The International Journal of Learning. She has coordinated a Sister Cities International Exchange with La Salle University in Cancun, Mexico, traveled to South America as a Fulbright Scholar with Project ECHO, and participated in the NGO Forum on Women in Beijing, China.

Workload and the Changing Health Care Environment

Denisse Neill
University of Houston-Victoria

Changes in the health care environment have impacted nursing workload, quality of care, and patient safety. Nurses perceive that the quality of their work has diminished. Traditional nursing workload measures do not guarantee efficiency and do not adequately capture the complexity of nursing workload. Studies have identified tasks associated with nursing work but not the perception of the nurse about the mental work required to meet the demands. Human factors research examines cognitive and perceptual abilities needed to perform tasks in a reasonable time without error. Researchers using a human factors framework have focused on mental processing to understand why some demands are handled easily and others lead to signs of mental overload and decreased performance. Studies have investigated the multiple, complex dimensions of mental workload from the subjective perception of the worker. Findings indicate that human beings have the ability to attend to multiple details simultaneously. This review identifies the current state of nursing workload research and the need to include a subjective perception of the nurse as part of any workload measure.

Keywords: Nursing Workload; Human Factors; Subjective Mental Workload; Cognitive Workload

Over the last two decades many changes have occurred in health services delivery and, as a result, the way that nursing care is provided has changed. Many of these changes highlighted in the Institute of Medicine report series indicate the need for examining the workload and work environment of the nurse. At the same time, nurse researchers have begun focusing on nurse workload from a human factors framework in an effort to improve the quality and safety of the care provided to patients. However, little attention has been given to the contribution of nursing knowledge, intellectual capital, and mental workload demands for productivity, quality care, and patient safety (Aiken, Clarke, & Sloane, 2002; Carayon & Gürses, 2005).

Traditional nursing workload measures do not guarantee efficiency nor do these measures adequately capture the complexity of nursing workload (Beaudoin & Edgar, 2003; Morris, MacNeely, Scott, Treacy & Hyde, 2007; Weydt, 2009), especially as the measures relate to the least studied aspect of nursing workload, the work environment. Human factors research approaches workload by examining mental processing in an attempt to understand the human information processing system and why demands are handled differently by people. Human factors research tries to address the multiple and complex dimensions of mental workload from the worker's subjective perception (Haga, Shinoda, & Kokubun, 2002; Luximon & Goonetilleke, 2001).

Conceptualization of Subjective Mental Workload

Subjective mental workload, the amount of work the worker perceives is needed to meet a demand, is influenced by numerous factors pertaining to the worker, the environment, and the task. Mental workload techniques have been grouped into three broad measures: psychophysical, performance, and subjective (Veltman, 2002). Attention theories point to limits in the human ability to process information. There is a presumption that humans possess a limited capacity central processing system (Kerr, 1973) and that humans must often choose where to focus their attention when faced with competing options (Navon, 1985).

Mental workload perception is determined by the individual's processing capacity and the requirements of the task. Processing capacity is influenced by individual characteristics, performance circumstances, activity complexity, and indirect influences. Working memory is another limiting factor in processing stimuli and meeting mental workload demands for safe, quality patient care. Time-pressure is an important determinant of the total effort associated with mental work (Kahneman, 1973). The complexity of mental workload is enhanced by individual differences that

make adequate measurement using a single instrument difficult (Haga, Shinoda, & Kokubun, 2002; Tomporowski, 2003; Veltman, 2002). Understanding concepts that contribute to decreased performance and to errors is critical to improving quality and safety in patient care.

The concept of subjective mental workload was operationalized as the individual's ability to estimate the mental workload experienced at a given time (Luximon & Goonetilleke, 2001). Two major rating scales were used for estimating subjective mental workload: the NASA-Task Load Index (NASA-TLX) and the Subjective Workload Assessment Technique (SWAT). The NASA-TLX, developed in 1988 for use with military pilots, is the most widely accepted subjective measure of human workload and has been utilized in research with adults of all ages and both genders in aeronautics, psychology, computer systems, transportation, and the health professions (Haga, et al., 2002; Tomporowski, 2003; Young, Zavelina, & Hooper, 2008).

Measurement of and Influences on Nursing Workload

Lack of a clear definition is one of the major problems with understanding and measuring nursing workload. There is the tendency to use the concepts of nursing work and nursing workload interchangeably. Nursing work describes the functional tasks such as assessment or medication administration that the nurse carries out to benefit the patient. In contrast, nursing workload is best described as "the amount of performance required to carry out those nursing activities in a specified time period" (Morris, MacNeely, Scott, Treacy, & Hyde, 2007, p. 464).

There is a growing body of literature supporting the conclusion that nurse staffing and workload affect nurse satisfaction (Beaudoin & Edgar, 2003), nurse turnover (Allen & Mellor, 2002), and patient outcomes (McLennan, 2005; Ramanujam, et al., 2008). High workload levels have been associated with suboptimal patient care and are one of the most identified job stressors (Aiken et al., 2002; Carayon & Gürses, 2005). Using typical workload measures in nursing such as the number of patients, the number of care hours per patient, or by applying a patient acuity system based on medical diagnosis and care activities is fraught with problems (Gregg, 1993; Walsh, 2003). A key problem is that these measures do not account for many of the activities involved in actual patient care, such as educating family, coordination of care activities with other health care team members, and unanticipated changes in the patient's condition (Walsh, 2003). Besides using incomplete data, acuity system measurements lack the ability to measure mental demands placed on nurses (Gregg, 1993; Yamase, 2003) and situation-level variability (Carayon & Gürses, 2005) because such measures do not take into account the mental demands and stresses of workload (Schneider, 1994).

Nurse Working Conditions and Outcomes

Staffing factors related to patient safety outcomes include a link between fewer years of experience in the clinical unit and patient mortality, and the development of infection at higher rates for new admissions cared for by agency or "pool" nurses than with permanently assigned intensive care unit staff. High nursing workload has been shown to be related to suboptimal patient care and nurse burnout (Aiken et al., 2002). Staffing variables are one aspect of nursing practice environments that may affect outcomes not only for patients, but also for nurses and organizations (Stone et al., 2003). Staffing effectiveness indicators adopted by The Joint Commission Accreditation of Hospitals (JCAH) in July 2002 and patient outcomes are two commonly used measures to evaluate nursing workload (McLennan, 2005; Stone et al., 2003). Staffing effectiveness measures require that workload measurement goes beyond patient diagnosis and nurse patient ratios to uncover the care hours needed to meet a specific patient population's needs (Walsh, 2003). Until the composition of nurse work and factors affecting nurses' work lives are understood, the quality of nurse work cannot be enhanced (Beaudoin & Edgar, 2003).

Nursing Workload and the Human Factors (Subjective Measure) Approach

Many measures of workload in nursing are designed based on the needs and condition of the patient. Since measures that are based on the patient's condition are not particularly helpful in understanding the impact of situations on nursing workload, Carayon and Gürses (2005) proposed using human factors approaches to evaluate workload by identifying both the contextual factors of the environment and patient demands and the individual attri

butes of nurses to establish a direction for interventions for improving the quality of the nurses work life and patient care outcomes.

In the earliest subjective mental workload study identified in nursing, Gregg (1993) developed the Nursing Task Load Index (Nursing TLX) to examine cardiovascular critical care unit nurses' subjective mental workload in relation to specialty and general experience and education. The Nursing TLX, based on the NASA Task Load Index, consists of both scales that measure work demand and scales that measure responses to those demands. Gregg found no significant relationships between mental workload and nurse characteristics, work environment, or work schedule variables. Findings revealed a significant relationship between subjective mental workload and the volume of patients cared for and the diagnoses of the assigned patients. There may be a relationship between traditional nursing workload and subjective workload measures on the variables "patient volume" and "diagnoses" suggesting that current nursing workload measures may address the mental demands of patient care more than nurses think. Findings also revealed a positive association between subjective mental workload and the number of days that a nurse had been off prior to participating in the study but only if a nurse had been off at least five days. Gregg suggested that a reason for this finding might be that, as the number of days off increased, the likelihood of being assigned all new patients increased. Additional study and expanded conceptual thinking related to nursing workload "may lead to improved administrative systems for nurses and better nursing care for patients" (Gregg, 1993, p. 114).

Conclusion

Nursing workload involves attention to multiple complex phenomena that often occur simultaneously and traditional methodologies have yielded results that do not adequately explain the complex phenomena involved. Subjective measures may provide a more accurate measure of a worker's perception of the effort being expended than do traditional measures. A second important factor in utilizing subjective workload measures is that they are more directly related to the mental demand concept than are physiological measures and behavioral measures. When measuring workload, there is a need to recognize the critical link between the characteristics of the nurse and of the work environment and the impact of these personal and environmental factors on patients, nurses, and the system as a whole. While some attempts have been made to determine the impact of personal characteristics and environmental factors, the conceptual and empirical support, as well as a generally accepted definition of mental workload, has remained elusive.

A review of the literature identifies very few nursing workload studies that have been conducted using human factors approaches. Adequate workload measurement tools are necessary to gain insight into nurses' mental workload as they provide care in today's complex health care environment. There is a need for a valid and reliable instrument using human factors engineering measurement that will provide insight into the nurse's subjective perception of workload.

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Denise Neill, Ph.D., RN, CNE is an Assistant Professor in the School of Nursing at University of Houston-Victoria (UHV) where she coordinates the RN-BSN and MSN programs. She has more than 16 years experience as an educator and program coordinator. As program coordinator she seeks innovative education opportunities. She has worked with community colleges and other schools in the university to increase the educational opportunities available to students in the UHV service region. Her research interests include both education and practice issues and nursing workload concerns and the impact on quality, safe patient care and retention of nurses. In addition to her work at the university, she is a member of the Texas Nurses Association and has served on the staffing committee and as District President in the Victoria area.

High School Students Embedded in Adult Community College Classes

Karen P. Saenz

George W. Moore

Sam Houston State University

Early college high schools were established as an initiative of the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation with the goal for students of earning college credit and an associate degree while in high school. Many of these high school students attend college classes with adults, ages 18 and older, in the same class. Instructors are challenged to address these students' diverse needs and diverse ways of learning. Young teenagers typically are told exactly what to learn and how it is to be learned; the adult learner, however, is much more independent and he or she learns and thinks differently based on more varied experiences. In this paper, the authors provide some concrete examples of instructional practices based on Knowles' Model of Adult Learning.

Keywords: pedagogy, andragogy, early college high school, community college

Karen Saenz is a full-time psychology instructor at Houston Community College Southeast as well as a doctoral candidate in Educational Leadership at Sam Houston State University. As college liaison for an early college high school on the campus, she was an integral part of the team to design and implement the high school that opened in 2006. Her research interests include early college high schools, social capital theory, and college readiness.

Revisiting the Arts in the No Child Left Behind Era

Patricia Simons
University of Oklahoma

Schools are responding differently to the mandates of NCLB. The purpose of this comparative case study is to investigate how two Title I elementary schools, one a member of a school reform network focused on the arts and one not a member of the network, are able to exceed AYP targets in reading and mathematics and not compromise teaching and learning in other core subjects. Included in the study is an examination of thinking skills embedded in visual arts instruction and transfer of learning to other content areas. Findings reveal that schools that are committed to the arts that are focused on student achievement data utilizing professional learning communities to build community, integrate curriculum, balance and protect what is important, and focus on effective teaching and learning adds to our collective understanding of how schools can respond to the mandates of NCLB and also provide an enriched learning environment for children where learning is not compromised in other core subjects. Three significant differences were found comparing the two schools: staff focus on excellence in arts integration, school-wide curriculum planning and alignment involving grade-level and all school-wide specialists, and constructivist professional development which results in generative and continuous learning for staff members and positive outcomes for students.

Keywords: Arts integration, Professional learning community, Curriculum alignment, Leadership in the arts

Schools are responding very differently to the mandates of NCLB. Many schools are focusing on reading and mathematics because students' scores in these areas determine whether their school achieves Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP). Many schools are limiting opportunities students have in the arts even though the arts are included in a list of core academic subjects along with "science, foreign languages, civics and government, economics, history, and geography" (Arts Education Partnership, 2005, p. 7) in NCLB legislation. The pressure placed on schools to reach AYP targets through high-stakes assessments has taken its toll on curriculum. Therefore, this study seeks to understand how two Title I elementary schools located in a southwestern state, one a member of a school reform network focused on the arts and one not a member of the network, are able to exceed AYP targets in reading and mathematics and not compromise teaching and learning in other core subjects. This study also seeks to understand how thinking skills are taught in the visual arts and how students transfer these skills to other content areas.

Background of the Study

All over the U.S., educators and schools are caught up in an accountability system where students' scores on standardized tests determine whether a school is successful or not and whether students are being successful in classrooms or are being left behind. The educational landscape has changed dramatically since 1983 with the publication of *A Nation at Risk*. The ethnic and language diversity of students mirrors the multicultural tapestry of our communities. The increase in the number of families living in poverty has significantly affected the quality of life and health. Technologies have changed the way we live, work, and learn.

In this high-stakes accountability environment, it is critical to study the impact of the inclusion of reading and mathematics in daily learning experiences for students while some schools are choosing to exclude science, social studies, and the arts. I continue to be very concerned about the contemporary reductionist discourse related to school improvement and seek to contribute to a broader understanding by conducting a comparative case study of two Title I schools who are meeting AYP targets but are also providing a positive and enriching learning environment for students.

First Case Selection: Highland Elementary

The first case is located in a suburban school district in a community that has more than 100,000 people and was selected for three reasons. First, it has been a member of the A+ Schools Network for six years. Second, it is a Title I school whose API (Academic Performance Index) scores in reading and mathematics have increased each year since joining the A+ Network. Third, visual arts instruction is a content area taught at all grade levels.

As of the 2008-09 school year, total enrollment is 387 students, Pre-K through 5th grades, with ethnic make-up of 74% White, 10% Native American, 7% Hispanic, 7% Black, and 2% Asian. Fifteen percent are identified as Special Education and 48% are eligible for free and reduced meals. CRT results indicate in reading 91% of students in grades 3-5 passed in 2006-07 and 88% passed in 2007-08. In mathematics, 88% of students passed in 2006-07 and 92% passed in 2007-08. When API scores are compared for the same two years, data shows an increase in mathematics for all categories. In reading, data shows an increase for males and a slight decrease in other categories. Student attendance rates increased from 93.7% to 94.1%.

Analysis of Data

My research involved analysis and synthesis of multiple data sets. Case documents reviewed for both cases were student achievement data, A+ documentation (one school), district site plans, state Accreditation Reports, and the site mission statement. I conducted interviews with the principal and a classroom teacher which were thematically analyzed.

Findings

Findings reveal that a school committed to the arts that is focused on student achievement data and utilizes collaborative structures to build community, integrate curriculum, and focus on effective teaching and learning adds to our collective understanding of how a school can respond to the mandates of NCLB and also provide an enriched learning environment for children where learning is not compromised in other core subjects.

Discussion

My investigation of Highland through interviews, classroom observation, and data gathered field notes reveals a school that is committed to “doing what’s best for students” and implementing the A+ philosophy in an exemplary manner. The pressure of NCLB accountability is experienced by everyone but their focus on the Eight Essentials (i.e. A+ program commitments) balances the benefits for students, staff, and parents with the pressure. Belief in the Essentials, commitment to the Framework, and the positive impact the program has on their students is the foundation of everything that happens at Highland. Faculty engagement is high, principal leadership is strong, and A+ Fellows are an integral component of the school’s comprehensive professional development plan.

Second Case Selection: Hermitage Elementary

I selected this elementary school as the second case for three reasons. First, it is not a member of the A+ Schools Network. Second, it is a Title I school whose API scores in reading and mathematics are very closely aligned with the first case. Third, as a non-A+ school, I will contrast the arts focus between the two schools. It is also located in the same suburban school district as the first case.

As of the 2008-09 school year, total school enrollment is 473 students in grades PreK through 5th grades with ethnic make-up of 68% White, 11% Hispanic, 9% Black and Native American, and 3% Asian. Students identified for Special Education are 18% and 57% are eligible for free or reduced meals. CRT results in reading indicate that 88% of students in grades 3-5 passed in 2006-07 and 90% passed in 2007-08. When API scores are compared for the same time period, data shows an increase in reading for White and female students. Data also shows a large decrease in regular education, male, and economic disadvantaged students. In mathematics, scores were unchanged for female but decreased in all remaining categories. Student attendance rates decreased slightly from 94.8% to 94.3%.

Findings

Findings reveal that a school committed to educating the whole child emphasizing the arts that is focused on student achievement data and utilizes a professional learning community to build community, integrate curriculum, and balance and protect what is important adds to our collective understanding of how a school can respond to the mandates of NCLB and also provide an enriched learning environment for children where learning is not compromised in other core subjects.

Discussion

My investigation of Hermitage through interviews, classroom observation, and data gathered through field notes reveals a school that has a strong sense of community and celebrates the diversity of their students and families. Relationships of all stakeholders are valued and the principal and teachers work collaboratively in a professional learning community in making decisions and working on school goals. They feel the pressure of NCLB accountability but work hard to protect what is important and balance the pressure while focusing on results and educating the whole child.

The fine arts are an important part of students' experienced at Hermitage. Visual arts are taught and integrated into content areas in some classrooms, and school-wide events and art installations in and outside the school identify this as a priority. Talented staff members contribute individually and collectively to provide students learning opportunities to be creative, problem solve, and take risks.

Discussion of Both Cases

Although there are many similarities between Highland and Hermitage, there are differences. While both schools embrace the fine arts, Highland has taken a next step and joined the A+ Network. The Eight Essentials provide a guiding framework for all decisions that affect teaching and learning at the school. Evidence suggests that this framework is foundational to all aspects of teaching and learning at Highland and supports staff in maintaining a focus on excellence in the arts and arts integration. At Hermitage, arts opportunities are contingent on current leadership support and staff expertise, and without it, evidence suggests that arts opportunities for students would be negatively impacted.

Professional development for teachers is another difference. Collaboratively planned at both schools, A+ Fellows at Highland are committed to modeling the Eight Essentials in constructivist learning opportunities for colleagues. Constructivist staff development supports constructivist teaching and learning in classrooms. Evidence suggests that commitment to the A+ Model results in generative professional development which significantly impacts practice.

Patricia Simons is currently a Ph.D. student at the University of Oklahoma in the Educational Administration, Curriculum, and Supervision (EACS) Program. She received a B.S. Degree in Business Education from Oklahoma State University in 1969 and a M.Ed. in Special Education from the University of Oklahoma in 1975. Oklahoma certificates held: Elementary Principal K-8, Elementary Education 1-8, Learning Disability, and Mentally Handicapped.

She taught special education in grades 6-12 for three years in both public and private school settings and regular elementary in grades T/1 through fifth for 13 years. In 1991, She served as an Assistant Principal at an elementary school in Norman and, in 1992, She became principal of a different elementary school in Norman and served for nine years.

Beginning in 2003, she began consulting in schools in Oklahoma districts prior to enrolling as a full-time Ph.D. student at the University of Oklahoma in 2008. She is currently an adjunct instructor at the University of Oklahoma serving as a university supervisor of early childhood interns completing their classroom placements.

