Volume 19, No. 1 – Winter 2006

MID-WESTERN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCHER

• Official Publication of the Mid-Western Educational Research Association •

Indiana University–Purdue University Fort Wayne (IPFW)

On The Cover

Indiana University–Purdue University Fort Wayne (IPFW)

Indiana University–Purdue University Fort Wayne (IPFW) offers more academic and extracurricular opportunities than any other higher education institution in northeast Indiana. A joint campus of two internationally recognized Big Ten schools, IPFW grants both Indiana University and Purdue University degrees.

IPFW reflects the IU and Purdue commitments to excellence in teaching, research, and service. The university takes advantage of the latest technologies to enhance classroom instruction, research, and communications. IPFW provides access to an excellent education through academic diversity, flexibility, and affordability. IPFW students have access to superior research, academic, and extracurricular pursuits. IPFW is committed to the continued educational, economic, and cultural development of its 11-county service area.

IPFW offers programs in education that prepare students to become effective teachers in a variety of school settings ranging from pre-school to high school. The curriculum is aimed at individuals who desire to help children become capable and willing learners and who value a personally rewarding profession. Programs emphasize practical experience that is gained by working with area teachers and provide a solid foundation to qualify for the Indiana Standard License in Education.

An integral part of teacher education is the time spent in the classroom—the real world of teaching. At IPFW this is known as the Field Experience Program, a series of field experiences and supervised practical experiences that start as early as the freshman year. Each phase is completed in sequence, and by the senior year teacher candidates are ready to spend from 12 weeks to an entire semester in full-time student teaching in local schools. Teacher candidates have many opportunities to interact with teachers and pupils in a classroom setting.

While pursuing a bachelor's degree, teacher candidates complete 40 credits of professional education training and a well-balanced core of liberal arts courses. They choose to complete a minor in mild disabilities or endorsements in kindergarten, junior high, middle school, secondary education, or computer technology.

Call for Manuscripts

The ***Mid-Western Educational Researcher*** is a scholarly journal that publishes research-based articles addressing a full range of educational issues. The journal also publishes literature reviews, theoretical and methodological discussions that make an original contribution to the research literature, and feature columns. There are four issues of the journal published annually.

The journal is accepting manuscripts for review and possible publication. Manuscripts are submitted to blind reviews by three researchers with knowledge of the literature in the appropriate area. The editors will review the manuscript and make the final decision. The review process requires approximately four months.

Manuscripts are accepted from faculty, students, and professionals working in educational or non-educational settings. Membership in the MWERA is not required in order to submit a manuscript for review. The editors encourage the submission of revised papers that have been presented at the annual meetings of the MWERA, AERA, and other professional organizations.

Manuscripts may be submitted for review as hard copy or electronically.

Hard Copy Submission. Submit four (4) copies of the manuscript with a cover letter to Deborah Bainer Jenkins, Co-Editor. Manuscripts should conform to the style and format described in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 5th edition*. All manuscripts should be typed, double-spaced, and on 8½ x 11 paper with 1½ inch margins on all sides. An abstract of less than 100 words should accompany the manuscript. The author's name, contact information, and affiliation should appear on the title page only. Submissions typically are less than 20 pages in length. A disk file (3½ inch diskette, MS Word) is also required with the submission.

Electronic Submission. Submit the manuscript to Deborah Bainer Jenkins, Co-Editor, at mer@westga.edu as an e-mail attachment. Indicate in the subject line that this is a MWERJ manuscript. As with hard copy, the manuscript should conform to APA style, be produced in MS Word, and be limited to 20 pages, including abstract and references, and contain full contact information for the author(s).

All manuscripts, whether submitted in hard copy or electronically, will be acknowledged upon receipt. Please note that authors are responsible to submit manuscripts that are free of grammatical and mechanical errors. The editors reserve the right to make minor modifications in order to produce a more concise and clear article.

Questions regarding the journal or the submission of feature columns should be directed to the co-editors listed below.

Deborah Bainer Jenkins, Ph.D.
Professor and Director
University of West Georgia
228 Education Annex
Carrollton, GA 30118
(678) 839-6078
mer@westga.edu

Adrian Rodgers, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
The Ohio State University
1179 University Drive
Newark, OH 43055
(740) 366-9261
rodgers.50@osu.edu

The *Mid-Western Educational Researcher* (ISSN 1056-3997) is published quarterly
by the MidWestern Educational Research Association through The Ohio State University.
The Summer issue serves as the annual meeting program. Non-profit postage paid at Columbus, Ohio,
with permission of the College of Education, David Andrews, Interim Dean.
POSTMASTER: Send address change to Jean W. Pierce, Dept. EPCSE, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, IL 60115.

MID-WESTERN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCHER

Volume 19, Number 1 · Winter 2006 ISSN 1056-3997

MWER Publication Address

Deborah Bainer Jenkins
University of West Georgia
228 Education Annex
Carrollton, GA 30118
Phone: (678) 839-6078
e-mail: mer@westga.edu

MWER Subscription & MWERA Membership Information

Jean W. Pierce
LEPF Department
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb, IL 60115
Phone: (815) 753-8470
Fax: (815) 753-8750
e-mail: jpierce@niu.edu

Presidential Address

How Do We Measure Up? Capturing the Complexities of Educational Growth

Janet K. Holt
Northern Illinois University

Educational policy frequently refers to change in some form and accountability measures are enacted to ensure the change is occurring. Yet, the most critical education decisions that alter the educational landscape are often made with static test score data and do not take into account the pattern of growth that may be occurring, even though growth modeling methodology is available and accessible. In this paper, two applications of multilevel growth modeling methodology to educational issues are illustrated. A call is made to replace the current practice of using static data for critical education decisions with growth modeling methods that allow the study of student and school growth patterns.

Life is a progress, and not a station.

–Ralph Waldo Emerson

Educational Change

If there is one constant in education, it is that education is ever changing. Within the last century, education has experienced extreme changes in philosophy, structure, and curricula. In the early 20th century, the progressive education movement led by John Dewey and characterized by an emphasis on growth, activity, and experience, strived to transform the learning experience into a democratic educational environment. In the 1930s, new voices on the scene would later have major influence on the direction of educational theory—Jean Piaget published the *La Naissance de L'intelligence Chez L'enfant* in 1936, which was later translated into English as *The Origins of Human Intelligence* (Piaget, 1952). His writings led the discussion in developmental psychology and genetic epistemology regarding cognition and intelligence in children. At the same time, from quite a different philosophic orientation, B. F. Skinner left a lasting legacy on education and other fields with the publishing of *The Behavior of Organisms: An Experimental Analysis* (Skinner, 1938). Although his most popular book was one of a utopian society, *Walden Two* invoking principles of behaviorism, published in 1948. During the era of WWII, much research effort was focused toward defense but there was an overlap between military research and education, particularly in assessment development. The military invested heavily in personnel testing and developed aptitude tests that influenced the testing field in education. In the post-war era of the 1950s two very different events had a lasting impact on U.S. education. The first was the landmark decision made by the United States Supreme Court in 1954 in Brown v. Board of Education which invalidated the common practice of "separate but equal" educational opportunities for whites and minorities. This ushered in some of the major civil rights protests and ultimately laid the groundwork for the 1964 Civil Rights Act. Also in this era, in 1957, the Soviet Union changed the face of U.S. education for years to come with the launching of Sputnik I, the first space satellite. The space age had begun and it brought educational reform and increased efforts to enhance mathematics and science education. The tumultuous 1960s' and 1970s' war protests and civil rights marches dramatically changed the landscape on college campuses and the discussion that was transpiring within the classrooms. A social agenda was brought to the table in educational discourse. Racial, gender and class inequities were openly discussed in America's classrooms.

In the latter part of the 20th century our collective view of intelligence was expanded with Howard Gardner's seminal work on multiple intelligences, *Frames of Mind* (Gardner, 1983). In the same year, the U.S. woke up to the news that schools were failing our children in the disturbing report, *A Nation at Risk.* It prognosticated that the U.S. would lose its world edge if the nation did not increase math and science literacy and fix our failing school system (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). This led to the initiation of several national surveys to study educational trends, the most notable being the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), which publishes a yearly report card on America's schools. Accountability was and still is the buzzword of the times. Several pieces of legislation passed in the late 20th and early 21st century laid the foundation for accountability in education. The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) of 1997 specified how America's schools would proceed in providing a fair education to students with disabilities. The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2002 was designed to provide parents more school choices and increase accountability at the state level. It has left a lasting impact as schools struggle to achieve the yearly increases in benchmarks that assure adequate annual progress. These changes in educational philosophy, structure, and curricula have resulted in concomitant changes in educational policy, particularly regarding assessment practices.

Educational Policy and Change

Change both justifies and results from educational policy. It is not surprising then that educational policies and documents are riddled with references to change, growth, and progress. For example, in 1988, a long-term educational survey effort was launched, the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS:88). The stated purpose of the study was "…to *provide trend data about critical transitions* experienced by students as they leave middle or junior high school, and progress through high school and into postsecondary institutions or the work force." (National Center on Education Statistics, 2005). In 1994, the Goals 2000: Educate America Act, was passed by the U.S. Congress to *improve the quality of learning and teaching* in the classroom and in the workplace (U.S. Department of Education, 2005a). More recently, the NCLB legislation was enacted to "*improve the performance of America's elementary and secondary schools*". Moreover, the legislation is directed toward individual performance with the statement, "Every student should make *substantial academic progress* every year in every class." (U.S. Department of Education, 2005b).

Accountability

The enforcement of these policies and practices naturally leads to the issue of accountability in education. How can schools and teachers be held accountable for student progress? The current emphasis on accountability originates in large part from NCLB and its' mandate to ensure that schools are making *adequate yearly progress* (AYP). Several aspects of NCLB and particularly the operationalization of AYP are getting an unreceptive response from the educational community. Yet, as mandated by law, states are proceeding vigorously to enact new accountability measures and ensure AYP.

How are states meeting AYP? In Illinois, AYP calculations are based on: a) the percent of reading and math scores that meet or exceed standards compared to the annual state targets; b) the participation rate of students in taking the state tests, which must meet or exceed 95%; and c) the attendance rates of students in elementary and middle schools, and the graduation rates of students in high schools, which must meet or exceed the state's annual targets. In California, the *Public Schools Accountability Act of 1999*; measures the academic performance and growth of schools on a variety of academic measures. California uses the Academic Performance Index to assess AYP. Performance is measured by end-of-year performance, weighted across subject areas, to assess whether schools have met their "growth targets". In essence, this major accountability emphasis that has transformed school districts and schools is assessed by the percent of students achieving some preset performance goals. It appears that there is a great gap then between the state-of-the art practice in assessing growth and the growth measures used to make important educational policy decisions.

Current Trends in Growth Modeling

An explosion in growth modeling in educational research has begun in the last 10 to 15 years. The fuel for this trend is the rapid explosion in sophisticated growth modeling methods that are now accessible to researchers via hierarchical linear modeling and structural equation modeling software programs. As with many statistical methodologies, application often lags behind theory development. However, the literature is now rich with examples of applying growth modeling methodology to educational problems.

Growth rates have received special attention in the fields of early language development and special education. Fuchs and Fuchs (1998) have put forth a dual-discrepancy model for the identification of special needs children. The traditional model of identification of special needs is based on an IQ—achievement discrepancy approach. Yet, in their discussion of identification of students with learning disabilities, Fuchs and Fuchs argue that this approach is ineffective at identifying all children with underlying deficits. The reliance on difference scores which are known to have higher unreliability than either of the original scores, and inconsistencies among identification with different discrepancy formulas, has resulted in a system fraught with problems. Fuchs and Fuchs suggest that a redirection of focus is needed. To do that they developed a dual-discrepancy model in which students are identified for special services based on both an average IQ—achievement discrepancy and a discrepancy in their growth rate. In this approach, it is assumed that students who have not achieved a target level of achievement but are progressing as rapidly as their peers demonstrate the ability to profit from the classroom environment and in time would eventually "catch up" to their peers. Recently, the President's Commission on Excellence in Special Education (2002) proposed that responsiveness-to-intervention has more potential for identifying students who will benefit from the special education experience. To this end, researchers have adapted the dual-discrepancy approach to identify those children who are nonresponsive to traditional early intervention approaches (McMaster, Fuchs, Fuchs, & Compton, 2005). They have determined that using a dual-discrepancy approach more appropriately identifies non-responders than either an average discrepancy approach alone or a growth discrepancy approach alone.

In the area of early language development, growth modeling has been used to characterize typical and atypical trajectories in grammatical development for children with language impairments between 5 and 10 years of age (Rice, Wexler, & Hershberger, 1998; Rice, Tomblin, Hoffman, Richman, & Marquis, 2004). Growth modeling has also been used to trace early language development in 24 to 36 month old children at-risk for specific language impairment (SLI; Hadley & Holt, 2005). The use of growth modeling may provide a means of improving the early identification of children with SLI by identifying children who present with both lower levels of performance and slower growth rates

relative to children whose slow language development reflects normal variation in a population. This application is in contrast to traditional identification methods of children with SLI that have relied upon static assessment data interpreted as lower than expected levels of performance compared to peers at a single point in time (e.g., Tomblin, Records, & Zhang, 1996).

Illustrations

Two illustrations are presented to illustrate how growth modeling can be applied to address questions regarding educational growth and to illustrate the power of growth modeling for in-depth analysis of change. Multilevel modeling was used in these illustrations to model the growth parameters of math achievement. In multilevel growth models, observations are conceived as being nested within individuals. Because of this, observations across time are not required to be time structured or even have balanced complete data, as spacing and missing observation patterns may vary across individuals. Covariates may be incorporated to both model the intraperson variability (i.e., variability within individuals across time modeled by time-varying covariates) and the interperson variability (i.e., variability in growth parameters across individuals modeled by time-invariant covariates). Further, multilevel growth models are a type of random coefficients models in which separate growth trajectories are estimated for each individual and the final predicted value is a weighted estimate of the individual growth parameters and the overall average.

Illustration 1: Math Achievement Growth in Middle and High School

Using data from the Longitudinal Study of American Youth (LSAY), math achievement growth was tracked from grade 7 through grade 11. Figure 1 illustrates the growth trajectories for a random sample of students across time. The growth curves can best be characterized by a plateau in performance at 9th grade and beyond. Yet, a few individuals did not follow the general trend and instead followed a path of accelerated growth beyond 9th grade. Clearly, there is individual variation in growth trajectories and the best formulation of a predicted rate of growth would be one that takes into account this variation. It is also of interest that even among those with lower initial math achievement in 7th grade, there is great variation in their achievement at 11th grade. This is due to not only their achievement level, but also their growth pattern. In Figure 2 another random sample of students are selected and their growth in math achievement is plotted over time, however, these graphs take into account the varied rates of growth for students in different math tracks. Math track is defined generally into lower, middle, and upper math tracks. Growth patterns are evident—those in the higher math tracks have higher average achievement and individuals with accelerated patterns of growth are not in the lower math track. This suggests that math track may be a potential covariate to explain some of the variation in average math achievement and math achievement growth.

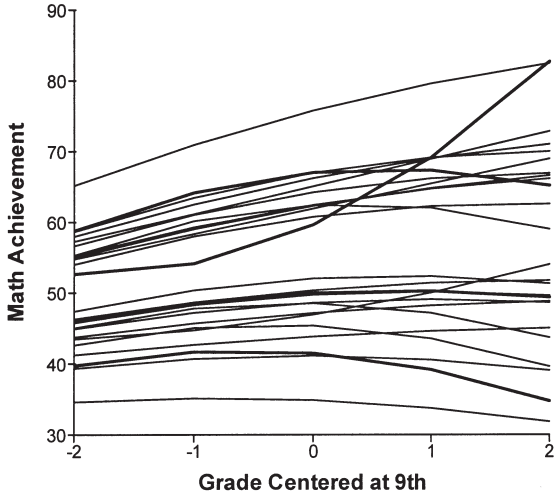

Figure 1. Individual math achievement growth trajectories for grades 7 though 11.

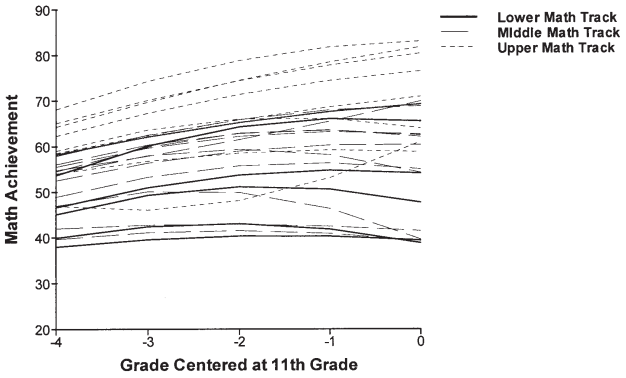

Figure 2. Individual math achievement growth trajectories for grades 7 though 11 by math track.

Math track was then used as a time-invariant covariate in a multilevel model predicting math achievement growth. For analyses with math track, grade was centered at 11th grade so that the intercept could be interpreted as the average math achievement at grade 11. This interpretation is of interest because the 11th grade math performance should reflect the accumulation of math knowledge from the math track the students pursued. The predicted math achievement from the multilevel models was plotted across grade separately for each math track (see Figure 3). It is clear that different math growth patterns emerge for students in different math tracks. For those students in math tracks involving only algebra or lower levels, math achievement growth is slowly decelerating, whereas for those in higher-level math tracks that took at least geometry, math achievement is gradually accelerating. In other words, the math achievement gaps across math

tracks at 7th grade increased by 11th grade and those who were placed in the lowest math track had a great disadvantage in later math performance.

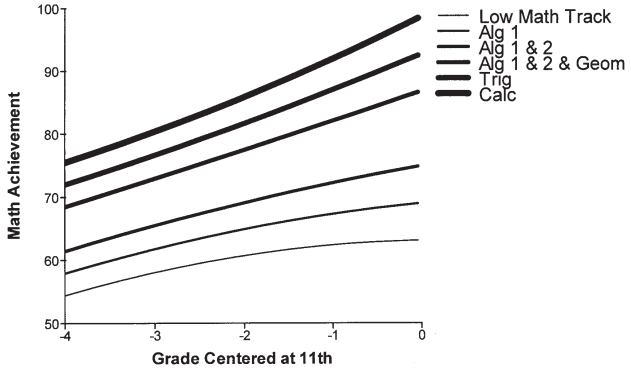

Figure 3. Predicted math achievement for grades 7 through 11 by math track.

Multilevel modeling also allows the modeling of predictors that themselves vary across time and even have heteroscedastic distributions across time. In this model, the time-varying predictor, peer academic push, was entered as a predictor of math achievement. Peer academic push was positively related to math achievement. Figure 4 illustrates the effect of peer academic push in modeling some of the intra-individual variation in math achievement.

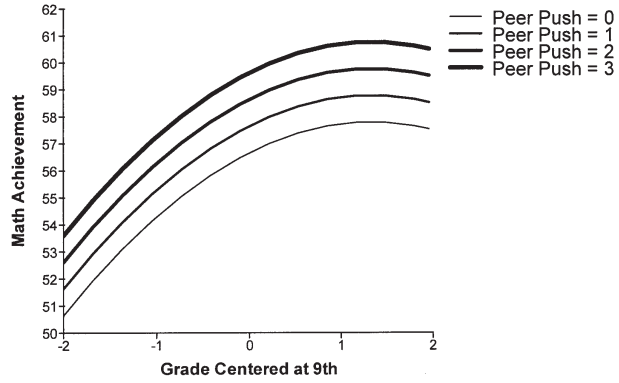

Figure 4. Predicted math achievement for grades 7 through 11 by peer academic push.

Illustration 2: Math Achievement Growth in Kindergarten through 3rd Grade

Data from the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study—Kindergarten cohort (ECLS-K) were used to model math achievement growth in early grade-school years. Specifically, math cognitive assessments that were conducted in the fall and spring of kindergarten, fall and spring of 1st grade, and spring of 3rd grade were utilized. Individual math achievement growth was again plotted across grade level to explore the patterns of growth that occurred. The individual growth trajectories have little variation at the first measurement point (fall – Kindergarten), however, by the fall of 1st grade the variation in growth patterns is more prominent and by the spring of 3rd grade math achievement is much more varied (see Figure 5). It is not only the variation in growth trajectories, but also the steep acceleration that results in this pattern. Therefore, by the fall of 1st grade growth modeling methods are needed which take into account this individual variation.

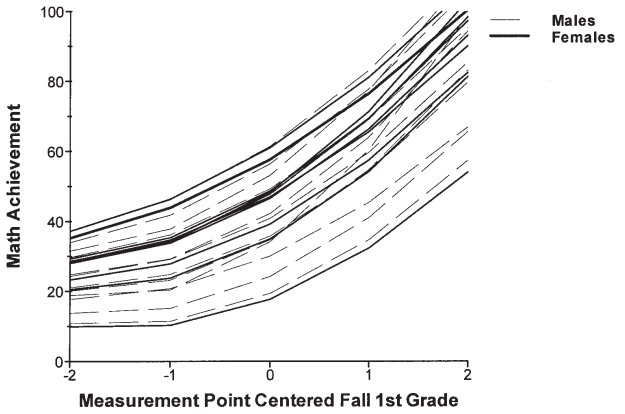

Figure 5. Individual math achievement growth trajectories for kindergarten through 3rd grade by gender.

Both boys and girls have accelerating growth, yet, the growth trajectories with the most acceleration are all males, indicating that gender may be a correlate of the early math achievement growth and an important variable to consider when aggregating the data.

Multilevel modeling of early math achievement growth demonstrates that gender is related to the growth parameters; gender differences exist in growth rate in the fall of 1st grade (the point at which boys begin to accelerate more than girls) and in acceleration in math achievement from kindergarten through 3rd grade (see Figure 6). However, boys are not different from girls in growth rate in the fall of kindergarten due to the little variability in growth at this point. If the summary of math achievement was limited to kindergarten, one could not predict later math achievement with any accuracy. However, if we also take the predicted growth pattern into

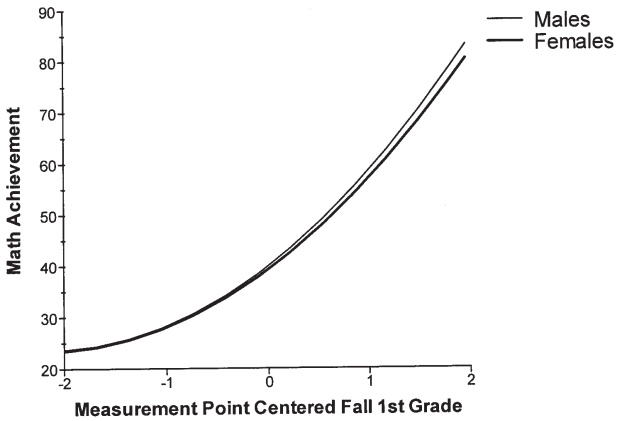

Figure 6. Predicted math achievement for kindergarten through 3rd grade by gender.

consideration, then it becomes more clear which students will have the capacity to excel and those which will struggle. The key is basing these predictions on the predicted growth pattern, not on the average achievement in kindergarten through 1st grade.

Discussion

Both of these illustrations serve to exemplify the power and capability of growth modeling in educational contexts. These examples demonstrate that growth modeling provides much richer and more accurate information regarding current achievement processes, as well as later predicted outcomes, than static measures of achievement from one point in time. As these cases illustrate with random coefficient modeling techniques, time-invariant covariates of growth emerge. In this era of disaggregating data from the school level based on demographic characteristics of the students, growth modeling can be a useful tool to decide which characteristics to use when aggregating student data. The time-invariant covariates that best separate the individual growth trajectories would be the most suitable for aggregating student data.

In both of the illustrations, there was some degree of acceleration or deceleration in growth, yet, there was individual variation in these growth patterns. The growth modeling technique used in these illustrations takes into account variation in individual growth when formulating a prediction for growth. In these models, three math achievement growth parameters, average achievement, average linear growth rate, and change in the growth rate (i.e., acceleration or deceleration), were used to provide a fuller picture of the math achievement patterns. This combination of growth parameters is more useful than any one of the growth parameters alone in predicting later educational achievement.

These analysis methods are well known and have been popular in the U.S. since Bryk and Raudenbush (1992) first published their seminal work on hierarchical linear modeling and created the HLM program. Despite this accessibility to powerful growth modeling methodology, policymakers still most often rely on relatively unsophisticated statistical summaries of change when making high-stakes educational decisions. Yet, these simple statistical summaries leave out key information that would be helpful in making important educational decisions. For example, when a school is not making adequate yearly progress because the percentage of students meeting or exceeding standards does not meet a target value and the school is put on the watch list, this is a serious problem. In a situation where the achievement growth data indicates the majority of the students in the school are accelerating in their growth and could conceivably be comparable to those in a high achieving school in the near future, then the use of static measurements are not serving the purpose of predicting low-performing schools well and unfortunately, may result in misguided sanctions for the school.

Conclusions

The research branch of the Department of Education, the Institute of Education Sciences, has been promoting the use of scientifically-based research since 2002 when the Education Sciences Reform Act was passed. The IES states "Its goal is the transformation of education into an evidence-based field in which decision makers routinely seek out the best available research and data before adopting programs or practices that will affect significant numbers of students." (Institute of Education Sciences, 2005). It is an interesting paradox that sophisticated growth modeling methods are used in educational research in many disciplines, yet very simplistic methods are used to assess progress in education and make the most critical decisions. In the field of medicine, we rely on medical professionals to be current in state-of-the art technology to make diagnostic decisions. Perhaps it is time to use the most sophisticated tools in our toolbox to make critical educational decisions as well.

References

Bryk, A. S., & Raudenbush, S.W., (1992). *Hierarchical linear models: Applications and data analysis methods.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Fuchs, L. S., & Fuchs, D, (1998). Treatment validity: A unifying concept for reconceptualizing the identification of learning disabilities. *Learning Disabilities Research &Practice, 13,* 204-219.

Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences*. New York: Basic Books.

Hadley, P. A., & Holt, J. K. (2005, June). *Individual differences in the onset of tense marking: A growth curve analysis.* Paper presented at the annual conference of the Symposium on Research on Child Language Disorders, Madison, WI.

Hadley, P., & Short, H. (in press). The onset of tense marking in children at-risk for specific language impairment. *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research.*

Institute of Education Sciences (n.d./2005). *About the Institute of Education Sciences*. [WWW document]. URL http://www.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ies/index.html?src=oc

McMaster, K. L., Fuchs, D., Fuchs, L. S., & Compton, D. L. (2005). Responding to nonresponders: An experimental field trial of identification and intervention methods. *Exceptional Children, 77,* 445-463.

National Center on Education Statistics (n.d./2005). *National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988*. Retrieved October 7, 2005 from http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/nels88

National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983). *A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform*. Retrieved October 7, 2005 from http://www.ed.gov/pubs/NatAtRisk/index.html

Piaget, J. (1952). *The origins of intelligence in children*. New York: International University Press.

President's Commission on Excellence in Special Education. (July 1, 2002). *A new era: Revitalizing special education for children and their families.*

Retrieved October 7,2005, from http://www.ed.gov/inits/commissionsboards/whspecialeducation/index.html

Rice, M., L., Tomblin, J. B., Hoffman, L., Richman, W. A., & Marquis, J. (2004). Grammatical tense deficits in children with SLI and nonspecific language impairment: Relationships with nonverbal IQ over time. *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research*, *47*, 816-834.

Rice, M., Wexler, K., & Hershberger, S. (1998). Tense over time: The longitudinal course of tense acquisition in children with specific language impairments. *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research, 41,* 1412-1431.

Skinner, B. F. (1938) *The behavior of organisms: An experimental analysis.* New York: Appleton-Century

Tomblin, J. B., Records, N., & Zhang, X. (1996). A system for the diagnosis of specific language impairment in kindergarten children. *Journal of Speech and Hearing Research, 39*, 1284-1294.

U.S. Department of Education (n.d./*2005a*). *Goals 2000: Educate America Act.* Retrieved October 7, 2005 from http://www.ed.gov/legislation/GOALS2000/TheAct/index.html

U.S. Department of Education (n.d./*2005b*). *The facts about…measuring progress*. Retrieved October 7, 2005 from http://www.ed.gov/nclb/accountability/ayp/testing.html

U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (January, 15, 1977). *Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.* Retrieved October 7, 2005 from http://www.eeoc.gov/policy/vii.html

Reflections on MWERA 2005: Academic Integrity

Sharon Valente, Program Chair
Ashland University

A week to the day that we heard Michael Schwartz' address on the value of dissent in maintaining the health of the academy, I was listening to Stanley Gold, President and Chief Executive Officer of Shamrock Holdings, deliver the Lucille G. Ford Distinguished Business Lecture entitled, "Authenticity and Leadership: Success Through a Balanced Life." As I was listening, it was clear to me that Gold's talk was the perfect framework for my reflections on our 2005 conference.

Gold enumerated seven principles of authentic leadership. The first is *know what you believe*. The leadership of the Mid-Western Educational Research Association (MWERA) embodies this principle. Their work ethic and basic values have led them to work tirelessly on our behalf. Behind the scenes, decisions have been made based on in-depth analysis. According to Gold, outstanding leadership always comes back to the individual. If the individual is authentic, they lead in line with their beliefs and values. The level of effort put forth by our board is only possible if you know who you are and what you believe.

However, there are those in academia who hold their beliefs so rigidly as to not to admit to weaknesses. Schwartz saw this as a major limitation of the health of an institution. Thus, principle number two is *you have to know your weaknesses*. Dr. Schwartz pointed to the limitations in the curriculum identified by students in the 1960s. Students advocated for relevance yet the faculty of the time had a hard time even recognizing the validity of the students' observations. The ability to accept criticism, to learn from one's weaknesses, is at the very center of learning. Education can only move forward if we acknowledge our own weaknesses. Instead of an "I know everything" mentality, all stakeholders must embrace the concept of working together for the common good.

This concept of teamwork, that you can't do it all on your own, is the chief strength of MWERA: We work in a collegial environment to achieve the end goal of a productive and enlightening conference. Notably, our division chairs and the program committee should take a bow. These professionals worked together to raise the bar on the level of scholarship.

Be an optimist is principle number three. I think Kelly Bradley's picture should be next to the definition of optimist, at least in the MWERA dictionary. Kelly is the consummate optimistic leader. Her stewardship and relentless encouragement of graduate students showed, not only in the sheer number of graduate student presentations, but in their enthusiasm and pursuit of future research. But Kelly's example is but one of the many mentors at MWERA. Our organization was founded by individuals who encouraged, cajoled, and supported graduate students. Now that generation of graduate students is cheering on their graduate students. I submit to you that such optimism and mentorship is the cornerstone of MWERA.

The next principle is *relentless preparation*. Relentless preparation can only happen if one acknowledges responsibility for the task at hand. Dr. Franklin addressed this link, specifically the importance of holding the athletic administration directly responsible for the academic performance of their student athletes. The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) is assessing the academic preparation of student athletes through a measure entitled Academic Performance Rate (APR). Initial results using the APR to evaluate responsible learning seem to indicate a change in behavior, indeed an increased focus on relentless preparation, as there are now consequences to academic reform. As our measurement colleagues would agree, the mere collection of data doesn't equate to changes in behavior. The key is valid data analysis.

Lead a balanced life is the fifth principle. We learned in Thursday's keynote address that the structure of academic life can often be stagnant. The ability to accept new ideas and to continue to challenge basic precepts is central to a balanced life of learning and growth.

Within MWERA, the support, debate, and on-going discussions enrich our members and energize them. Old friends, or should I say those friends I have known a long time through MWERA, help to remind me of the importance of balance. Think of the various receptions, the Fireside Chat, the Cracker Barrel, and the Presidential Reception. Research and serious discussion are important, but a quality exchange of ideas can only take place if the researcher has some down time to digest and think about the day. Think bunny hop and growth modeling!

This principle of balance is one of the messages I took from Dr. Franklin's keynote address. There needs to be a balance in college athletics, for all constituencies. The research being conducted by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) is seeking to document and measure just that balance.

Principle number six is to *communicate well*. Mr. Gold had an interesting definition of this principle. To communicate well, one must understand that character matters more than education, and honesty and integrity more than brain power. Think back to the Friday keynote. There was a sea of over 200 faces, all of whom were well-educated. But the combination of character, education, honesty, and integrity

is what separates MWERA from other organizations. Here are researchers who genuinely care about the ability of their research to be an agent of change.

The last principle is *commitment*. Commitment was exemplified by the frank discussions at Association Council. Commitment is taking your responsibilities seriously and completing your tasks. Commitment was also exemplified by those presenters who sent their session chairs and discussants copies of their final papers by the deadline. Commitment is bringing graduate students and supporting their presentations. Commitment is coming back to MWERA after all these years because you have made a commitment to the organization. According to Mr. Gold, the seed of achievement is commitment. Once committed to a task, the rest is just preparation.

Our organization is all about commitment: genuine, real people who care about their research, their students, and their colleagues. As Dr. Schwartz said, "Knowing the truth has been my religion. And the university has been my church." I only have one minor addition to this declaration: And MWERA has been my retreat. On behalf of the MWERA Board of Directors, please renew your commitment to MWERA with a proposal in 2006.

Call for Manuscripts

The ***Mid-Western Educational Researcher*** is a scholarly journal that publishes research-based articles addressing a full range of educational issues. The journal also publishes literature reviews, theoretical and methodological discussions that make an original contribution to the research literature, and feature columns. There are four issues of the journal published annually.

The journal is accepting manuscripts for review and possible publication. Manuscripts are submitted to blind reviews by three researchers with knowledge of the literature in the appropriate area. The editors will review the manuscript and make the final decision. The review process requires approximately four months.

Manuscripts are accepted from faculty, students, and professionals working in educational or non-educational settings. Membership in the MWERA is not required in order to submit a manuscript for review. The editors encourage the submission of revised papers that have been presented at the annual meetings of the MWERA, AERA, and other professional organizations.

Manuscripts may be submitted for review as hard copy or electronically.

Hard Copy Submission. Submit four (4) copies of the manuscript with a cover letter to Deborah Bainer Jenkins, Co-Editor. Manuscripts should conform to the style and format described in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 5th edition*. All manuscripts should be typed, double-spaced, and on 8½ x 11 paper with 1½ inch margins on all sides. An abstract of less than 100 words should accompany the manuscript. The author's name, contact information, and affiliation should appear on the title page only. Submissions typically are less than 20 pages in length. A disk file (3½ inch diskette, MS Word) is also required with the submission.

Electronic Submission. Submit the manuscript to Deborah Bainer Jenkins, Co-Editor, at mer@westga.edu as an e-mail attachment. Indicate in the subject line that this is a MWERJ manuscript. As with hard copy, the manuscript should conform to APA style, be produced in MS Word, and be limited to 20 pages, including abstract and references, and contain full contact information for the author(s).

All manuscripts, whether submitted in hard copy or electronically, will be acknowledged upon receipt. Please note that authors are responsible to submit manuscripts that are free of grammatical and mechanical errors. The editors reserve the right to make minor modifications in order to produce a more concise and clear article.

Questions regarding the journal or the submission of feature columns should be directed to the co-editors listed below.

Deborah Bainer Jenkins, Ph.D.
Professor and Director
University of West Georgia
228 Education Annex
Carrollton, GA 30118
(678) 839-6078
mer@westga.edu

Adrian Rodgers, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
The Ohio State University
1179 University Drive
Newark, OH 43055
(740) 366-9261
rodgers.50@osu.edu

Keynote Address

The Place of Dissent in Inquiry, Learning, and Reflection

Michael Schwartz
Cleveland State University

In this keynote address presented at the October, 2005 Annual Conference, Dr. Schwartz considers the role of dissent in the academy from the perspective of the turbulent late sixties and early seventies.

I come to a concern with dissent quite legitimately, I think, having spent twenty five years of my professional life at Kent State University where a modern student (and to some degree, faculty) exercise of the right to dissent led to the death of four of them and the wounding of nine others. Kent State will, I am certain, maintain an important place in the history of American social and political life and it will always be an institution that issues a call to consider the nature of the use of ideas, dissent from prevailing ideas, and the potential for violence.

In our book, The Chief Purpose of Universities: Academic Discourse and the Diversity of Ideas, we introduce our major thesis: "The rate of progress and advancement in knowledge throughout society at any time is equal to the variation of ideas at that time. We refer to this as the idea variation hypothesis." We find that universities are primarily places that create, preserve, transmit, and find new applications for knowledge. We also find that ideas have enormous power. Ideas such as class struggle, inalienable rights, manifest destiny, judgment day, and others shape entire societies, and they rationalize and justify the exercise of political and military power and become a source of control over others. Ideas, then, are what universities are all about, and the greater the variation among them, the more likely change, and perhaps progress, are likely to be produced.

But not all change, and certainly not all progress, is a natural matter of a continuous process. From time to time, dissent from the prevailing state of understanding—a discontinuity—is introduced into our lives. Dissent and the discontinuity that it may present may be socially dislocating, and it may generate vigorous and perhaps even violent defense of the prevailing views of life. One need not search human history very intensely to find many examples of this. Kent State in 1970 was one example.

But the ring must be held for the introduction of dissenting ideas. Protection for such ideas must be found and made institutionally legitimate if societies are to progress. And it is in universities where that is supposed to happen.

Unhappily, there are idea vetting systems that are the enemies of the universities and of the idea variation hypothesis.

My purpose in speaking to you today is not so much to speak in defense of the American university, although that would not be an ignoble goal in and of itself. Rather, I wish to examine the role of dissent as a foundational principle in the modern era of the university. Certainly, dissent was neither present nor necessary—indeed it would have been most unwelcome—in the religiously based colonial colleges. Received wisdom as the central focus of higher learning tolerates few options. When the focus of that learning is profoundly preservationist in its orientation to the culture, there is no role for dissent. Only when higher education in America began to alter its focus to playing a role in *creating* culture, changing the culture, and insisting upon some utility of the enterprise beyond the creation of new clergymen and governmental functionaries, did some concern for dissent become necessary. As the value of rationality led to the acceptance of science, dissent became critical in higher education. If, after all, the scientist discovers that the conventional wisdom is incorrect, it is imperative that the scientist be able to say so without fear of being burned as a witch.

So imperative was the need for the protected right to individual dissent in the transition from the college to the university, from the sacred to the secular, from dogma to science, that the right to dissent became the bedrock of American higher education.

The point seems obvious enough, perhaps even simpleminded. But as a young and painfully junior administrator at Indiana University in the late 1960s, my understanding of dissent and the difference between dissent by individuals and corporate-sponsored dissent was only beginning to develop.

In the academic year 1967-1968, Indiana University was no stranger to the daily disruption of the antiwar student movement. I saw virtually all of this in negative terms, as profoundly threatening to the teaching and scholarly enterprise that was the very essence of the university. The university was for me then, as it is now, an institution that described and allowed an exquisite and nearly unfettered freedom to know and to inquire. It was a site of learning that I could view as a continuous process as much as it was a place in which excellence of scholarship transcended any of the personal characteristics of the scholars. And it was a place and process of unhurried reflection about the shape of the world, a shape that kept changing because of the scholarship produced by more and more sophisticated inquiry. To be a professor or a student, it seemed to me then, as now, was the most privileged life that one could possibly find. The institution, the university that provided that life was, it finally came to me, worthy of study, understanding, and protection, and perhaps even a little affection as a thing by itself. But the daily disruptions of the student movement were tearing the institution apart. They were an assault on this cherished idea—an idea, I feared, too fragile in too many ways to withstand very much of this. It was, I thought, difficult enough to deal with the profound anti-intellectualism that had a long history in this country—most notably, but certainly not exclusively, on the political right. But how was the university to cope now with what appeared as an ahistorical, anti-intellectualism of the New Left?

An earlier version of this paper appeared in *Peace and Change*, April, 1996, Vol. 2, pp. 169-181. This current version is revised and extended.

The criticisms of the university from the right and from other groups were so well known that they seemed to be a kind of white noise—always there in the background, always just at the perceptual threshold. Clark Kerr described these criticisms as concerns that the university was not properly socializing students to community standards, that the campus was not politically and culturally orthodox. Alumni, Kerr said, complained that campus traditions were not upheld. Business complained that the work of the academy was not useful or practical and that the university failed to provide practical service. The graduates didn't have immediately useful skills. The undergraduates complained that teaching was short changed in favor of research and that the courses were irrelevant anyway. African American students complained that the curriculum was Eurocentric and must change. The softer disciplines of the classical curriculum demanded more attention, and so on. Kerr wrote about all of this in 1969 (Kerr, 1969). Thirty-six years later it sounds quite familiar and one could add to that list of demands and complaints without too much difficulty.

The university of my relative youth seemed to spend a great deal of its energy coping with those concerns, to be sure. But in the process, it was also coming to terms with just what "it," the university was supposed to be. It had not quite totally abandoned the research model of Abraham Flexner and before him Alexander von Humboldt in Berlin—although Jacques Barzun and Thorstein Veblen decried the falling away from the isolationist model of German scholarship with all of this American commitment to "service." Veblen's damning of presidents as "Captains of Erudition" seemed to say all that was necessary about the American university's having sold out to big business and industry in his view (Veblen, 1935).

I do remember in 1965 being told by my department chairman that he was told by the dean that the students liked my teaching. I mistakenly took that as a compliment. The chairman added, "That's nice, Mike; it isn't the way one gets ahead around here." Veblen might complain, but it was clear that the German model of scholarship still predominated. Even so, some pressure was mounting to teach more effectively and to do more service work, although the clear preference was for teaching graduate students and serving one's discipline.

But even with the American modifications, the university was clearly not anything like the earlier American college and its classical curriculum. The university was more interested in new knowledge gained through research than it was in the wisdom gained through the classics and great books. It was in this difference that the university had clearly become a creature of, if not actually a captive of, other dominant institutions: the federal government and the marketplace, just as Veblen had complained. But it and the earlier classical colleges had always been the creature of other institutions, most especially of the religions in earlier days. Nevertheless, these places, the universities, were less and less institutions of the classics in which knowledge and conscience, the intellectual and the moral were all of a piece. Rather, in the American universities, knowledge had become a neutral commodity. Universities were *not* classical colleges devoted to the ideal of perpetual discourse about general ideas, such as matters of conscience and of morality (Kerr, 50).

Clark Kerr noted that the discursive ideal still held the allegiance of many students in universities, and that the concern about conscience and morality, truth and justice, change and progress, is resurrected as an *ad hoc* phenomenon, especially in times of social upheaval or crisis such as the Vietnam War. Kerr went on to say that the university is one of the few places where such discussions can take place. The university may not value the generalist agenda, but it can most certainly accommodate it (Kerr, 51).

And to be sure, in the latter 1960s, the great "massive middle" of the undergraduates in America's universities did want to talk about right and wrong, good and evil, and the nature of conscience. For a time virtually every university in the country devoted a great deal of its energy and time to the classical college issues and the agenda of the generalist.

A small group of students, then as now, were only loosely attached to the university, living at its periphery. This attachment was to a social life that the university made possible, but it was never an attachment to the university.

At the other end of the spectrum were students, also a minority, less interested in old or even contemporary models of higher education. They didn't care about a collegium, or defending the great books, or even about the research university except insofar as war-related research was being done. They were more interested in dissent.

Unnecessarily, I understand now, those students frightened me. I did not understand then, as I should have, that campuses had historically been the sites of painful struggle. Every time that change occurs in the fashion of a substantial cultural discontinuity on can expect conflict and, potentially, violence. Kerr reminds us of Henry VIII separating Oxford and Cambridge from the church, the German Universities at the time of the Thirty Years' War, the battles embedded in the Reformation, Napoleon's efforts to turn the universities to the purposes of the state, and so on (Kerr, 55). It is good to be reminded of those events, but it was not particularly helpful to a not-very-timid but nevertheless worried young administrator in 1967.

Nearly the entire focus of the student movement was on the Vietnam War and "dissent." Even had I realized the history of violence connected with universities and the long-term resilience of higher education, I would have wondered if history was to be trusted this time. Would *my* idea of the university persist? The Vietnam war was, I believed, a despicable adventure; it was not, as far as I or some of my colleagues could tell, a matter of American interest or national security. In fact, the whole misadventure seemed to be a clear and obvious failure of the Harvard brain trust to understand history or culture or the character of human nature most generally. Instead, their trust in formulaic solutions, modern business practices, and the uses of technology and strategic planning failed them—and us. And the failure was belatedly and publicly admitted by Robert McNamara. It very nearly did cost us the very idea of the university as well as 58,000 American lives, God knows how many Vietnamese lives, and four dead and nine wounded at Kent State.[1] History and culture were concepts too soft. *Verstehen* was lost to modern

[1] See Robert S. McNamara, with Brian VanDeMark, *In Retrospect: The Tragedy and Lessons of Vietnam* (New York: Random House, 1995).

business practices. This, by the way, may be a fair warning to the leadership and management of the "modern" American university today as well. Culture is not merely a concept. It is a powerful tool of understanding.[2]

I had no quarrel with the antiwar movement, but I did want my American version of the German university left alone. I feared for scholarship; I feared for wisdom and for the future of the free intellectual life of *Lehrfreiheit* and *Lehrnfreiheit*.

I understood dissent. But I understood the professor's right to dissent. This is what tenure is supposed to be all about. Tenure stands in service to, as protection for, the traditional role of the professors to evaluate and to criticize as well as to dissent from the prevailing culture. It should be clear that students, too, enjoy such rights to the extent that they are the rights of those who are seriously engaged in the life of the mind. This sort of dissent is highly individualized in nature and is the legacy of Berlin.

One must recall, however, that universities are not merely aggregations of scholars, nor are they the collegia of some mythical golden era. Even in the middle ages, universities were recognized under canon law as more than just an aggregation of individuals. They were recognized as corporate entities, as formal institutions with structures and organizational principles, with rules of governance and conduct. Universities were independent of the individuals who might, at any given moment, occupy any particular roles within them. The corporate nature of the institution persists today (Kerr, 54).

But as for dissent, the history and tradition of the university has virtually never included the idea of the university as a dissenting corporation—a dissenting social institution. Dissent continued to be the protected right of students and scholars as individuals. This does not mean that there are not times during which corporate institutional dissent has not happened or would have been necessarily illegitimate. Charles University in Prague offered up modest corporate dissent when Soviet tanks rolled in. One can believe that German universities should have offered corporate dissent to the Nazi regime. But one can also see that the Nazis had captured the universities, turning them into partisan camps of corporate dissent against the former Weimar regime. The danger for universities is that corporate dissent may be captured by either the political left or the political right, either of which can become totalitarian. Undoubtedly, that is why corporate dissent has been so strongly resisted. To be sure, the examples of universities as captives of totalitarian regimes exist throughout history. Napoleon and others up to the Soviet regime have used the universities as partisan camps. Under such conditions, the university loses its most profound and fundamental ability—that of protecting and defending individual dissent and the ability to freely generate and add to the storehouse of ideas.

My own fear in the 1960s and early 1970s was that the antiwar student movement would demand that the institutions begin to take a stand as corporate entities. And in fact, that demand was made. Students made that demand upon presidents and faculties all across the country. In the face of the growing momentum of campus disruptions, characterized by both civil and not-so-civil disobedience, there was growing pressure upon universities to dissent as corporations.

Not a few presidents were forced from office under these circumstances. Trustees removed presidents who failed to control the campus. Other presidents resigned rather than succumb to the pressure of students on the one side—whom these presidents still saw as engaged in legitimate individual dissent—and the pressure of trustees and politicians on the other side who often had more interest in order than in constitutional principles. Many people like myself simply felt assailed from too many directions. Disorderly individual dissent became incredibly expensive as all of us learned. Loss of public confidence in the ability to maintain order ultimately did cost resources, and there never were concomitant rewards for maintaining the right of individual dissent while preventing corporate dissent. This presidential "rock and hard place" was not lost on junior administrators and many professors who watched presidents absorb abuse from virtually every corner, watched them leave office, nearly always under unhappy circumstances, often tragically, for having done the right thing. The presidency had become a role without a natural constituency. The pressure from the antiwar left and from the political right was quite remarkable. When administration buildings, and especially the offices of presidents were taken over during the various sit-ins, these were symbolic statements of takeover of the institution as a corporate entity.[3]

Inevitably, the efforts to induce corporate dissent failed. They failed for two reasons. The first was pointed out to me by my colleague, Professor Jerry Lewis.[4] He told me that in 1972 or 1973, the Faculty Senate at Kent State University voted *against* taking a stand in opposition to the Vietnam War. This was a vote that can easily be read as one against corporate involvement in dissent. Then, he reminded me that not only did universities come under pressure to dissent corporately, but the professional associations did as well, and they too resisted. In fact, Professor Lewis asked the Society for the Study of Social Problems to take a corporate stand in favor of moving a proposed gym-annex in 1977, and the Society refused.[5] What was the source of this professional resistance?

[2] See my essay, "Institutional Values for Horse Traders," in *Trusteeship*, May/June 1993, 4.

[3] See E.D. Duryea, "Evolution of University Organization," in *ASHE Reader on Organization and Governance in Higher Education*, ed. Marvin W. Peterson (Needham Heights, MA: Ginn Press, 1988), 3-16.

[4] Professor Jerry Lewis is a widely known authority on the Kent State shootings and their aftermath. He has regularly taught a course on May 4th in the sociology department and, among other things, was coeditor of and contributor to *Kent State and May 4th: A Social Science Perspective* (Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt Publishing, 1978).

[5] This was not a minor "dust up" at Kent State. The administration chose to build a large gym-annex very near the site of the May 4, 1970 shootings, altering the historical nature and value of that area of the campus. Months of disruptive protest followed. For my own views at the time (during which I became interim president of the university), see my interview in *Kent State/May 4: Echoes Through a Decade*, ed. Scott L. Bills (Kent, OH: Kent State University Press, 1988), 212-20.

Professor Lewis believes that "science" had a great deal to do with it. By that he meant less the methods of science and more the attitude of science which governs scholarly inquiry generally. Professors, he believes, choose to separate their own feelings, attitudes, and beliefs from the requirements of dispassionate inquiry. And it is precisely that attitude which, contrary to a good deal of popular opinion, exposes the professoriate as a fundamentally conservative aggregate body. And it is that same attitude that preserved the principle of individual dissent and eschewed corporate dissent in American universities.

Professor Lewis's insight is more than a little useful as a heuristic device. He permits us to wonder what the response to the demand for corporate dissent might have been had the model of inquiry been some sort of pre- or postmodern, nonscientific model. I leave the point at that, hoping that it might provoke still further conversation and inquiry in other venues.

Let me add only this last remark on the point. It should not go unnoticed that a powerful response by professors on many campuses to sit-ins was the use of the teach-in. During these events, at least two purposes were served. Professors dissented from American foreign policy individually, and they brought to bear their academic expertise for the purpose of public policy analysis. The dissent was carried on in disciplinary terms. The latent function of the teach-in was to reinforce the commitment to the value of individualized dissent and, if only by indirection, to say again to students—protesters and others—that corporate dissent would not be joined.

The second reason that the tactics of disruptive dissent failed is all too obvious to those of us with long years in higher education. It is almost embarrassing to have to remind oneself that when the state perceives that its institutions are being threatened by the use of force, the state will respond with force. And it is also basic to note that the state has a virtual monopoly on the means of force and, unhappily, violence. All across the nation, states perceived their institutions to be threatened by ever more violent disruption. If "violent" seems too strong, one only needs to be reminded of the bombing of the mathematics building at the University of Wisconsin and the burning of the ROTC building at Kent State. The states responded with police and, in some cases, military power in order to restore order. In every case, the state had more, and usually better, more effective force. At Kent State, the line between force and violence disappeared, and the state's monopoly "prevailed": four dead, nine wounded. For those who believed that by thus provoking the state, more people would be radicalized, I remind you of two phenomena. First, some people may have been psychologically radicalized leftward, but the level of violence quickly neutralized any willingness to act upon such new-found fervor. Second, the reaction from the right that said "they should have shot more of them" ought to lead one to understand that radicalization can also happen on the right—and it did.

What had been the American version of the German university persisted, although hardly unscathed. My university, and my idea of the university, had learned lessons, and it had changed.

A central lesson in all of this was the importance of the defense of the rights of individual dissent as a basic, unifying and organizing principle of the university itself. Assaults on this principle from the radical left have given us a vivid picture of what can happen when corporate dissent replaces or tries to replace this principle. The nature of tenure would disappear for individuals who differed with the views of a partisan institution. Even while saying that, one must note that tenure is today under attack from the political right, which now seeks term limits for tenure, ostensibly to be sure that professors remain "productive." Productivity is a term of art in the academy—one to be carefully used—usually meaning sustaining over time a line of inquiry for its own sake, not merely for amassing publications. One should be terribly suspicious of any effort, no matter how well intentioned, that would open the door again to an assault on dissent. If dissent is the foundational and organizing principle of the university that I believe it to be, then the price of a disengaged professor here and there is minor and should be paid. There are other ways to attack that problem without drilling holes in the foundation walls. And I must add that while tenure may be under attack by the right, "political correctness" also constitutes an effort to attenuate individual dissent and to fragment the university as a collegial institution committed to broad-ranging inquiry.

In a recent article in *Academic Questions*, Professor Russell Nieli (2004, 24-25) at Princeton quotes at length from John Stuart Mill's essay, "On Liberty." Mill reminds us that "In the human mind, one-sidedness has always been the rule, and many-sidedness the exception." Nieli then goes on to say, "Since the truth, according to Mill, is usually multifaceted and involves reconciling partial truths drawn from conflicting viewpoints, it is imperative, he believed, that the truth seeking process embrace the claims made by rival parties. This is particularly true, Mill held, in the area of social and political controversies."

Nieli then goes on to say, "It is to the universities that we have traditionally looked to overcome the partisanship and interest-driven distortions that are part of the very nature of political life. It is to the universities that we have traditionally looked to keep us honest and informed on the most pressing public controversies of the day, and to be exemplary arenas in what Justice Holmes famously called, 'the free trade in ideas...'

Nieli laments what he would describe as a political and social one-sidedness in the modern academy that supports and demands a certain political correctness that stunts the idea variation hypothesis. He goes on to cite current social psychological research that essentially reports that in ideologically homogeneous groups, when people talk only to one another, the group dynamics are such that people take more extreme positions than they would have come to on their own. On this point, he cites Professor Cass Sunstein of the University of Chicago school of law in his article, "The Law of Group Polarization." Fundamentally, the point of view is simple. If the university faculties become ideologically homogeneous and will themselves not permit dissenting points of view to be heard within the academy, then such structures thwart the truth finding functions of the university as Mill would define them. And following on from that, if the nature of tenure is to protect the dissenter, but the universities allow for no dissent, then what further justification is there for tenure (or for universities for that matter!).

You will no doubt note that Nieli's concern about a stultifying sameness of ideas on the campuses today is substantially at odds with the point of view that I brought to you earlier as expressed by Professor Jerry Lewis who claimed that "the attitude of science" which allows professors to distance their own personal notions from the objects of their study prevents the very one-sidedness that Nieli fears. It is these two contending points of view that will need critical examination if we are to understand the university as a protected haven for dissenters or as an enemy of dissent itself. For example, is there an assault on the notion of science that is abroad in the academy today, and if so, is its purpose to thwart the truth and limit the scope of idea variation?

While I draw no such conclusion here, it seems to me that such questions of limitation of dissent by the enemies of the university and of the universities' main purposes are to be seen as questions for the academy to confront with enormous vigor. There is a great deal at stake. Nieli makes the Pogo argument: "We have met the enemy and he is us." Lewis disputes that.

The clear implication of what I have said is that the university can only survive with real independence from the political left and right. The university requires, in addition, real independence from those other social institutions with the greatest interest in capturing it. And at the same time, the university has to be a contributing party to society or it risks the support it requires in order to persist at all. If young administrators, and older ones as well, do not understand this very fine line, then they do not understand the nature of the work they have been called upon to do.

Let me make that same point in another but related context. Here I wish to discuss the curriculum and the student movement. Perhaps you will recall that in demands for institutional reform, the demand for more relevant courses and for the elimination of irrelevance were quite common. This came to the faculties as a sort of final assault on the classical curriculum. There were clear precedents. A battle over the classical curriculum had erupted in the nineteenth century and escalated with the founding of land-grant colleges. Nevertheless, the traditional liberal arts and sciences persisted not merely along with more utilitarian aspects of the curriculum, but at the core of a coherent curriculum that continued to define the difference between being educated and being trained. The "relevance" attack of the 1960s was launched against such core requirements. It is my opinion that the relevance assault and the demand for such other things as pass-fail grading were accepted on many campuses because weary and worn-down faculties yielded up sovereignty on these matters.

At Kent State University in particular, there was enormous administrative pressure after May, 1970 to recapture enrollment generally for the university and for colleges and departments to earn their keep based on enrollments as well. The subsequent distribution of resources, department by department, as was the case in the early 1970s, was a management strategy that totally lost sight of the university as a whole, as an entity that must do things, favored or not by students, that will require the so-called popular programs to support the less popular ones. Business administration would have to support the classics, for example, because the classics matter. Such an idea was lost. The earn-your-keep strategy produced a decidedly divided institution. This was not simply the case at Kent State. Student pressure for relevance, coupled with the "retailing" of the academy produced an incoherent curriculum that suited well the anti-intellectualism of both the radical left and right.

It was not until the late 1970s and early 1980s that faculties regained control of the curriculum, understanding once again, as the early tutors at Harvard College in the seventeenth century knew, that telling young people what is in their best interests is a very difficult job! But some universities were beginning again to do this and the regional accrediting associations had begun to demand a planned return to something called "general education."

Over the last thirty years some things have changed, but there is still a remarkable sameness about the university today and the one which captured my imagination decades ago.

We are still in the business of excellence in scholarship, excellence in teaching and learning, and service to the nation, the state, the disciplines, and the institution itself—in fact to the world, as the university has become an international entity. The fundamental, foundational nature of dissent for individuals has been reaffirmed in the face of great threats, vigorously defended by a watchful and courageous professoriate.

The attacks that have been launched against the very idea of the university in America teach one more lesson. Every assault is an incredible affirmation of the real power of the institution in American life. Every assault speaks to the importance that the people place upon the university. Education is the very lifeblood of the American social compact. With all of the remaining Jacksonian sentiment about the common man (and woman) and the self-made man (and woman), the belief in achievement and mobility as a consequence of hard work and success in higher education is still powerful stuff in America.

At Kent State we coped with tragedy then and we cope now with ongoing threats to collegiate life by doing what we do best: by inquiring further into matters having to do with the power of reason over and against violence, with questions of justice, with questions about the proper uses and control of universities. And most certainly, we inquire still further into the very nature of dissent amidst the currents of conventional wisdom.

References

Kerr, C. (1991). *The great transformation in higher education*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Nieli, R.K. (2005). Enhancing intellectual diversity on campus: The James Madison Program at Princeton. *Academic Questions, 18*(2), 24-25.

Veblen, T. (1935). *The higher learning in America: A Memorandum on the conduct of universities by Businessmen*. New York: Viking Press.

Keynote Address

College Athletics as a Model for Promoting Academic Integrity in Higher Education

Bernard Franklin
National Collegiate Athletic Association

In this keynote address presented at the October, 2005 Annual Conference Luncheon, Dr. Franklin provided descriptions of data related to academic integrity in the NCAA.

Introduction

To some in the audience, the title of this keynote address is oxymoronic. After all, what does college athletics have to do with promoting academic integrity? As cited in the Coalition for Intercollegiate Athletics paper entitled, Academic Integrity in Intercollegiate Athletics: Principles, Rules, and Best Practices, "To the degree that athletics undermines academic integrity, it reflects a cynical attitude towards the ideals of college sports and of higher education." College athletics and academic integrity are not mutually exclusive terms.

We cannot abandon the notion that there is no relationship between athletic participation and academic achievement. The combination of student and athlete is a powerful force in higher education. However, it is a term that has been derided as disingenuous by some observers of intercollegiate athletics.

Student-athletes are, in fact, students, and they graduate at higher rates than the general student body. In Division I, student-athletes overall graduate two percentage points above the general student body, and, for Division II, they graduate at eight percentage points above the general student body. Women graduate at higher rates than men, whites more often than blacks, but all demographic cohorts among student-athletes, including African-Americans, graduate at higher rates than among the general student body. As this table shows, only the graduation rates of white male student-athletes lag behind those of their matched racial/gender group within the general student body.

Table 1
Graduation Rates Comparisons between Students and Student-Athletes within Various Demographic Groups

Demographic Group	Student-Athletes	Student Body
Overall	62%	60%
White	66%	63%
African-American	52%	43%
White Males	59%	60%
Af.-Amer. Males	48%	36%
White Females	72%	65%
Af.-Amer. Females	62%	47%

Football student-athletes (55 percent) and male basketball student-athletes (44 percent) do graduate below the student-athlete rate and the general student body rate (although not far off from what our statistical models would tell us to expect given their high school academic preparation). Given that these are the two highest profile sports, the cynics and critics proclaim that these graduation rates reinforce the notion that college sports is more about sports than college.

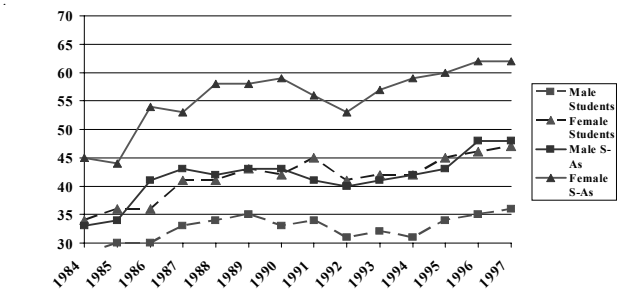

Figure 1. Graduation Rates of African-American Student-Athletes versus African-American Students at Division I Institution by Gender

This figure, though, indicates one of the real successes of academic reform to date: The significant increases in the graduation rates of African-American student-athletes. In 1984, African-American male student-athletes were graduating at a rate of 33 percent. For the most recent entering class (1997) for which data are available, that number is now 44 percent. That is eight points higher than African-American males in the overall student body. Even more impressive have been the gains made by African-American female student-athletes. In that same time frame, their graduation rates have gone from 45 percent to 62 percent, and are currently 19 percent higher than African-American females in the general student body and on par with graduation rates for white female students generally.

As noted earlier, the NCAA believes in the term student-athlete. Therefore, we are committed to ensuring that the students who compete in our games embrace academic pursuits with the same passion they bring to their respective sports. Clearly, the data reflect that in several sports we still face some challenges. These challenges have lead the NCAA to embark on a vigorous journey of academic reform. The road map for this journey has been shaped by our extensive

collection of data and a reliance on research driven decisions. Our recent academic reform initiatives present a case study of how college athletics can be a model for promoting academic integrity.

The NCAA Academic Reform Initiative

The NCAA academic reform effort has been a multiphased approach to ensuring student-athlete academic success and has been informed by a substantial body of research. The reform effort has occurred in three distinct phases.

The first phase involved a comprehensive review of our "initial academic eligibility" standards. These are national rules used to determine which student-athletes will be academically eligible to compete in athletics during their freshman year at most NCAA institutions. It is important to note that these rules have nothing to do with admission to the college or university – those are, obviously, institutional decisions. These regulations set forth restrictions on who is allowed to compete on the field of play but does not determine who gains access to the classroom.

Historically, the NCAA had not been involved in determining who might be academically eligible to compete as a freshman. This had been viewed as being a "local" institutional decision. However, several high profile cases of students who were essentially unable to read but had participated in intercollegiate athletics came to light in the late 1970s and early 1980s, and those stories led the NCAA to take action and create national minimum standards for freshman eligibility.

The first rule adopted to address the issue of freshman eligibility was known as Proposition 48, and it relied on a combination of a minimum test score (700 on the SAT at that time, which is 820 on their current scale) and a minimum grade-point average (GPA) (2.0) in 11 core-curriculum courses in high school. These standards seemed to provide a better-prepared overall class of student-athletes, at least measured by subsequent graduation rates, but problems were soon noticed with these requirements. Specifically, evidence began to surface that Proposition 48 standards might lead to disparate impacts among minority and low-income student-athletes.

In order to address these issues, the NCAA began significant efforts to collect and analyze relevant student-athlete academic data. The NCAA created an infrastructure to obtain data on over 100,000 high school student-athletes every year, beginning in 1994. These data included information about the type and number of high school courses taken, high school grades, standardized test scores, and total number of course offerings at high schools around the country. Additionally, the NCAA began linking these high school data to information on college academic performance of these same students, which allowed us to understand in a much more rigorous way the high school and college academic trajectories of student-athletes.

We learned a great deal about the prediction of college success from high school variables as we began to review the data. Among the important findings were:

- Grades in high school and standardized test scores are independent and significant predictors of academic success in college, whether success is measured as freshman grade-point average or ultimate graduation from college.
- Grades in specified core courses are more predictive than overall high school grades or standardized test scores.
- The NCAA's original choice of minimum thresholds for initial eligibility overweighed the test score component. This discovery revealed there was a potential adverse impact or, at least, a potential for unfair effects of legislation among equally qualified applicants.

Given these findings, the NCAA membership took action to change the rules for initial eligibility. Specifically, the relative weights given to core grades and test scores in our rules are now more appropriate. Initial eligibility for student-athletes is determined more holistically and better allows for students with a reasonable chance to succeed academically in college to begin competing during their freshman year. The NCAA also is implementing a system that requires prospective student-athletes to complete more core-curriculum courses in high school (currently at 14, soon to be 16). As a result of our research, we believe we have created a set of standards with less potential for adverse impact on various groups of students, while maintaining the same basic level of required performance for incoming student-athletes. Ultimately, these eligibility decisions are made through a national clearinghouse run by ACT, eliminating any local variation in the application of the standards and providing quick and unambiguous feedback to prospective student-athletes on any academic deficiencies.

There is some evidence that these initiatives have had impacts on prospective college student-athletes.

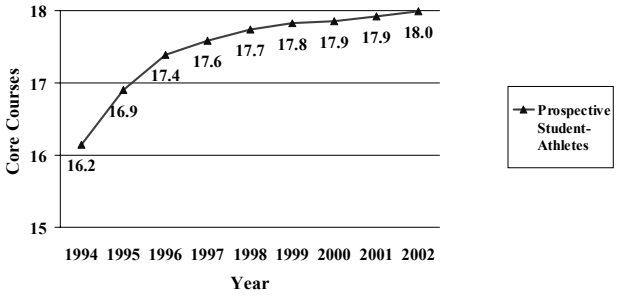

Figure 2. Trends in Average Number of H. S. Core Courses Taken

This figure illustrates the average number of high school core-curriculum courses that have been taken by prospective Division I student-athletes over the past several years. As you can see, the number of core academic courses taken by Division I recruits has risen significantly (from around 16 to 18 courses) as the NCAA has begun modifying its standards.

Additionally, there is evidence that student-athletes are performing better academically in high school and coming to college better prepared to perform academically.

Table 2
Average High School Characteristics of Recruited Student-Athletes—Comparing Entering Class of 1994 to Entering Class of 2003

Entering Class	Average Core-Curriculum GPA	Average SAT Composite Score	Average ACT Composite Score
1994	3.18	1079	21.8
2003	3.34	1095	22.1

This table illustrates changes in average core-curriculum GPAs and test scores over a 10-year period among recruited student-athletes. As you can see, average GPAs, SAT scores and ACT scores have increased. It is important to note that these average test scores are higher than those presented by the overall group of college-bound seniors as reported by the testing agencies.

While we have made progress, we are not taking for granted that these standards may need further modification. There is some concern that the removal of a minimum cut score on the standardized tests will lead to grading abuses, and this will lead to the grades having less predictive validity. We are closely monitoring that situation in our research, and, if our predictive models show changes, we will take appropriate action to see that our standards continue to have their intended effects. We are also collecting data on the recent changes made to the ACT and SAT, especially related to the new writing components. Writing scores may enhance our predictions of student-athlete academic success, but we need to see additional information on reliability, validity, and potential adverse impacts before we commit to using them.

The second phase of the NCAA reform effort involved what we refer to as our "progress toward degree" standards. These are the rules that apply to currently enrolled student-athletes in NCAA colleges and universities and the minimum academic progress they must make on a term-by-term basis to remain academically eligible. It is fair to say that our previous standards were fairly modest in their scope and intent. The NCAA philosophy 20 years ago was essentially to enhance college graduation rates for student-athletes solely by regulating those initial-eligibility standards. There were year-to-year progress standards in place, but they can now be said to have been cursory at best. Our current philosophy places much more weight on students' college performances. After all, this is what is most directly under the control of the membership of the NCAA. The membership determined (based on data) that the goal under which all schools and student-athletes should operate would be graduation from college within a five-year period from original entrance.

Once that goal was stated, research data were again collected and analyzed from tens of thousands of student-athletes. The basic analysis plan was to identify a pattern of academic behavior that distinguished those students who eventually graduate from those who do not. These analyses allowed our membership to more precisely identify eventual non-graduates without unfairly penalizing students who are likely to recover from academic problems. One of the main findings of these analyses was that student-athletes who fall behind the "normal" track early in their college career have a much more difficult time completing their studies than do other students.

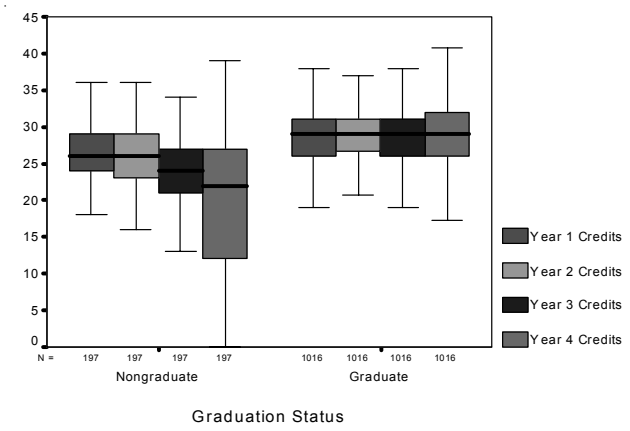

Figure 3. Academic Year Credit Hours for Graduates vs. Non-graduates Persisting Four or More Years

This figure is an example of what we learned by tracking graduates versus non-graduates. On the left side are portrayed the annual average number of credits earned for eventual non-graduates, and the right side provides the same averages for eventual graduates. As you can see, there are differences in credits earned that begin in the freshman year and actually get worse as time goes on.

After reviewing these data, our membership identified minimum standards based on annual grade-point averages and overall progress toward degree (enumerated by the percentage of the total degree earned at the end of each academic year) that related to the observed behavior of eventual graduates. As an example of the new standards, at the end of the freshman year, each student must have earned at least 24 credit hours and maintain a 1.8 GPA. There were some specific facts that informed the choice of these standards. These facts included:

- 67.5 percent of student-athletes who did not earn 24 credit hours in their freshman year left college before the end of the second, while only 3.9 percent of eventual graduates earned fewer than 24 hours during their first year at college.

- Similarly, 64 percent of students who were below a 1.8 GPA at the end of their freshman year had left by the end of year two, while fewer than three percent of students earning less than a 1.8 GPA were graduating.

The new standards that were informed by these data and some sophisticated statistical analyses are much more stringent than any standards the NCAA has ever imposed on its members, especially as it relates to the first two years of college. It is our hope that these new standards will assist more students to achieve the goal of graduating, without unduly punishing students who may fall slightly behind their peers but have hopes of recovering.

As we look to the future in terms of assisting student-athletes make the most of their college experience, our first goal is to continue to monitor the effects of the new standards to ensure that they are having their intended effects. In order to accomplish this, there is now a system in place that requires all of our Division I membership to provide data on every scholarship student-athlete on their campus during each term of their enrollment. It is a true census of college transcripts for all student-athletes and will clearly represent the most comprehensive national database ever collected on the academic behavior and performance of postsecondary students. Additionally, in the past couple of years the NCAA has initiated a program that allows academically "at-risk" students to begin their studies on campus during the summer before their freshman enrollment. The early research on this programming is exceedingly promising, so we have high hopes that this will represent another successful tool in our efforts to academically support student-athletes. Finally, we have recently begun research projects to gauge the time demands associated with college sports participation, assess the majors being earned by student-athletes and their satisfaction with their academic tracks and academic support services, and monitor the long-term impacts of athletics participation on career attainment and well-being. Again, as data indicate that changes in regulations or assistance to student-athletes may be necessary, we expect to react accordingly.

The third and final phase of academic reform that I will discuss today has to do with holding coaches and institutions accountable for the academic performance of their student athletes. Recently, the football coach of a major Division I-A program was quoted saying, "I was hired to win; I wasn't hired to graduate student-athletes." Clearly the message of winning games is more important than graduating student-athletes has been proclaimed far too often by those who do the hiring and firing of coaches. Unfortunately, in a competitive environment such as college sports, there is always the temptation to cut corners in order to win. This phase of academic reform aims to raise the cost to programs for not paying sufficient attention to the academic outcomes of their student-athletes.

The first step in this phase was for our membership to agree on academic outcomes that would be fair and appropriate. Graduation rates have been collected by the NCAA and the federal government for about 15 years. These have been successful at providing a major point of discussion on campus and in the media; however, these rates have been criticized for several deficiencies. One of these is that they do not take into account the behavior of transfer students either into, or out of, four-year colleges. Given that recent studies from the U.S. Department of Education show that over one-half of all students attend more than one institution during their undergraduate career, this represents a major deficiency in that metric. Additionally, the data from graduation rates, by definition, deal with students who entered the institution six or seven years earlier. In our efforts to measure current behavior of athletes, it was important for us to find a more "real-time" metric on which to base our assessment.

Given those issues, the NCAA has developed two new measurements to use in our analyses of the academic performance of student-athletes. It is important to note that these measurements do not replace the federally-mandated graduation rate. That will still remain the only rate that allows us to compare student-athletes directly to other students at the institution, and it will continue to be collected and distributed in its current form.

This table provides a summary of the measurements for academic success that will be used by the NCAA membership:

Table 3

Characteristics of Various Measures of Academic Success Used by the NCAA

- Federal Graduation Rate
  - Graduation rate (with six-year lag) that includes first-time, full-time freshman who enroll in fall only.
  - No transfer students included.
  - No consideration for outgoing transfer students.
- Graduation Success Rate (GSR)
  - Graduation rate (with six-year lag) that includes freshman who enroll in either fall or spring, plus all transfers into a cohort.
  - Excludes students who leave an institution but would have been academically eligible to compete had they returned the following year.
- Academic Progress Rate (APR)
  - Year-by-year (i.e. "real-time") rate that is calculated on each scholarship student-athlete on a roster.
  - Rate calculated by giving each student the possibility of earning an eligibility point (by maintaining academic eligibility) and a retention point (by staying enrolled in school) for each term that they are receiving athletics aid.

The first of the new rates is referred to as Graduation Success Rate (GSR). This rate uses the federal graduation rate as a base and then adds all incoming transfers into the rate. Similarly, students who transfer from an institution in good academic standing are removed from that institution's calculation. We believe this rate to be a more accurate reflection of student academic behavior than the federal rate. This new rate will be publicly released by the NCAA along with the usual federal graduation rate for the first time within the next month.

(*Franklin article continues on page 23.*)

Mid-Western Educational Research Association

2006 Annual Meeting
Call For Proposals
Proposal Deadline: *May 1, 2006*

October 11-14, 2006
The Westin Great Southern Hotel, Columbus, Ohio

Craig A. Mertler, Program Chair
mwera@bgsu.edu

The 2006 Annual Meeting of the Mid-Western Educational Research Association (MWERA) will be held in Columbus with an exciting program of invited speakers, focused workshops, and peer-reviewed papers presented in a variety of session formats. The 2006 program will center around this year's theme—***Teaching and Researching in an Electronic Era***—and will feature dynamic speakers of interest to both researchers and practitioners. Teachers, administrators, and other school personnel are especially invited to come and share their school-based research and experiences at the 2006 MWERA conference.

We will be meeting at the Westin Great Southern Hotel in Columbus, a historic landmark hotel, featuring charming guest rooms, excellent meeting facilities, and a location only a short walk from the quaint shops of German Village and one block from the Columbus City Centre. Also, the hotel facility has wireless computer access. Columbus is the home to numerous theaters, a symphony, wonderful restaurants, shopping, and fun nightlife!

If you are looking for a place to sit down and chat with colleagues from schools and universities about your ideas and perspectives, the Mid-Western Educational Research Association provides that opportunity with its supportive, collaborative environment. Educational researchers across North America return to MWERA to renew acquaintances, make new contacts, and engage in exciting conversation in a collegial atmosphere.

Come and be a part of MWERA in 2006!

General Information

The 2006 MWERA Annual Meeting will be held **Wednesday, October 11 through Saturday, October 14,** at the Westin Great Southern Hotel in Columbus, Ohio. This year's theme is ***Teaching and Researching in an Electronic Era.*** The program will consist primarily of presentations, selected through a peer review process, by divisional program chairpersons. In addition there will be invited speakers and symposia, panel discussions; special sessions for graduate students, new faculty, and new members; as well as a luncheon and other social events open to all attendees.

Proposals **MUST** be submitted electronically over the Internet using the form available on the meeting website. **Proposals mailed or e-mailed to the Program Chair or Division Chairs will NOT be processed**. Specific instructions for electronic submission can be found at the meeting website:

http://www.mwera.org

Questions about a proposal, the electronic submission process, or the meeting should be directed to the Program Chair:

Craig A. Mertler
MWERA–2006 Program Chair
Division of EDFI – Room 550 Education
Bowling Green State University
Bowling Green, OH 43403
Office: 419-372-9357
Fax: 419-372-8265
E-mail: ***mwera@bgsu.edu***

Any educational professional may submit a proposal for MWERA-2006, whether or not that person is currently a member of MWERA. *All Annual Meeting presenters must be members in good standing with MWERA (non-members must join MWERA upon notification of proposal acceptance)*. To promote broader participation in the program, no one person should appear as a presenter on more than three proposals.

All proposals must be posted on the MWERA website no later than midnight EST on May 1, 2006. Submissions will then be forwarded to Division Chairs. Each Division Chair will coordinate a number of volunteers in a system of blind (without author identification) review. Appropriate criteria, depending on the format and type of scholarly work being presented, have been developed and are used for the review process. These criteria include: (a) topic (originality, choice of problem, importance of issues); (b) relevance of topic to the Division and MWERA membership; (c) contribution to research and education; (d) framework (theoretical/conceptual/practical, rationale, literature review, grounding); (e) analyses and interpretations (significance, implications, relationship of conclusions to findings, generalizability or usefulness); and (f) overall written proposal quality (clarity of writing, logic, and organization).

Papers presented at MWERA are expected to exhibit original scholarship, conducted by the author(s), which has not been previously presented at any other meeting or published in any journal. Further, it is a violation of MWERA policy to promote commercially available products or services (except as Exhibits) that go beyond the limits of appropriate scholarly/scientific communication. Individuals who wish to display educationally-related products or services are encouraged to contact Dr. Craig Mertler, Program Chair, Div. of EDFI, Room 550 ED, BGSU, Bowling Green, OH 43403, 419-372-9357.

All persons presenting at the 2006 Annual Meeting are expected to register for the full meeting, *including graduate students*. All sessions listed in the program will be open to any registered meeting participant, however enrollment may be limited and a small additional fee required for some workshop sessions. Tickets for the Friday luncheon and speaker are available to all pre-registrants. *Ticket availability is not guaranteed for late and on-site registrants*. Registration materials for the 2006 Annual Meeting will be published in the *Mid-Western Educational Researcher*, on the MWERA website, and can be obtained by contacting the Program Chair.

Presenters whose papers have been accepted to a session with a Session Chair and/or Session Discussant are responsible for submitting a completed version of their conference paper to the Session Chair and Discussant no later than September 15, 2006. *Papers not available to the Session Chair and Session Discussant may be dropped from the program*. **Presenters must also provide complete copies of their papers (or detailed handouts) to attendees at their sessions.** Overhead projectors and screens will be provided by MWERA in most presentation rooms. *Presenters requiring additional A/V equipment must obtain it at their own expense from the hotel.*

MWERA reserves the right to reproduce and distribute summaries and abstracts of all accepted proposals, including making such works available in a printed Program Abstract, through the MWERA website and in press releases promoting the Annual Meeting and the organization. *As a condition of acceptance, all authors of papers accepted to the 2006 Annual Meeting explicitly grant MWERA the right to reproduce a summary of their work and/or abstract*. Such limited distribution does not preclude any subsequent publication of the work by the author(s).

Authors of accepted proposals assume the ethical and professional responsibility to appear at the Annual Meeting and to participate in their presentation or assigned session. When circumstances preclude the author(s) from doing so, it is the responsibility of the author to arrange a suitable substitute and to notify the Program Chair in advance.

Important Dates

Proposal Submission Deadline	**May 1, 2006**
Notification of Acceptance	July 14, 2006
Papers to Session Chairs/Discussants	September 15, 2006
Registration and Hotel Reservations	September 24, 2006
MWERA 2006 Annual Meeting	October 11-14, 2006

Guidelines for Submitting a Proposal
Session Format Descriptions

Paper Presentation

Paper sessions are intended to allow presenters the opportunity to make short, relatively formal presentations in which they provide an overview of their papers to an audience. Three to five individual papers dealing with related topics are grouped into a single session running from 1.5 to 2 hours. The presenter(s) of each paper is (are) allowed approximately 15 minutes to present the highlights of the paper. A single Session Discussant is allowed approximately 15 minutes, following all papers, for comments and critical review. A Session Chair moderates the entire session. Presenters are expected to provide complete copies of their papers to all interested audience members.

Roundtable Discussion/Poster

Roundtable Discussion/Poster sessions are intended to provide opportunities for interested individuals to participate in a dialogue with other interested individuals and the presenter(s) of the paper. Presenters are provided a small table around which interested individuals can meet to discuss the paper. Presenters may elect to provide small, table-top poster-type displays, ancillary handouts, or other table-top A/V materials to augment their discussions. Interested individuals are free to move into and out of these discussions/posters as they wish. Presenters are expected to make available complete copies of the paper on which the roundtable discussion/poster was focused.

Symposium

A symposium is intended to provide an opportunity for examination of specific problems or topics from a variety of perspectives. Symposium organizers are expected to identify the topic or issue, identify and ensure the participation of individual speakers who will participate in the session, prepare any necessary materials for the symposium, and chair the session. It is suggested, though not required, that the speakers or symposium organizer will provide interested individuals with one (or more) papers relevant to, reflective of, or drawn from the symposium.

Workshop

Workshops are intended to provide an extended period of time during which the workshop leader helps participants develop or improve their ability to perform some process (e.g. how to provide clinical supervision, use the latest features of the Internet, or conduct an advanced statistical analysis). Organizers may request from 1.5 to 3 hours and are responsible for providing all necessary materials for participants. Many workshops are scheduled for Wednesday afternoon, although others may be scheduled throughout the conference. Organizers may, if they wish, receive an honorarium based upon the number of paid participants in their workshop and the fee schedule.

Alternative Session

The form, topics, and format of alternative sessions are limited only by the imagination and creativity of the organizer. These options are intended to afford the most effective method or approach to disseminating scholarly work of a variety of types. Proposals for alternative sessions will be evaluated on their appropriateness to the topic and audience; their suitability to meet the limitations of time, space, and expense for MWERA; and the basic quality or value of the topic. The organizer of alternative sessions is responsible for all major participants or speakers, developing and providing any necessary materials, and conducting or mediating the session. Because a variety of approaches may be proposed within this category, alternative session proposals should include a brief rationale for the alternative being proposed.

Best Practices Forum

The "Best Practices" sessions are intended to provide opportunities for individuals or groups to present "best" or "promising" practices having an impact on both K-12 and higher education. These sessions highlight unique and innovative programs that have demonstrated promise for improving and enhancing educational practice. Presenters will be grouped by similar topics to facilitate discussion between and among the groups and audience. Presenters are expected to make available complete copies of the paper on which the "Best Practices" session focused.

Submitted Content

Summary

Summaries for **Paper** and **Roundtable Discussion/Poster** proposals should explicitly address as many of the following as appropriate, preferably in this order: (1) Objectives, goals, or purposes; (2) Perspective(s) and/or theoretical framework; (3) Methods and/or techniques (data sources, instruments, procedures); (4) Results and conclusions; and (5) Educational and/or scientific importance of the work.

Summaries for **Symposium, Workshop, and Alternative Session** and **Best Practices Forum** proposals should explicitly address as many of the following as appropriate, preferably in this order: [1] Descriptive title of the session; [2] Objective, goals, and purposes of the session; [3] Importance of the topic, issue, or problem; [4] Explanation of the basic format or structure of the session; [5] Listing of the presenter(s), by number not name for blind review (e.g., Presenter 1), with an explanation of each person's relevant background and role in the session; [6] Anticipated audience and kind of audience involvement.

Abstract

The abstract should be 100-150 words. The abstracts of accepted papers will be published in the *MWERA 2006 Annual Meeting Abstracts* book, and will be available on the MWERA website. Use clear, precise language, which can be understood by readers outside your discipline.

Session Descriptors

- Ability Grouping
- Accountability
- Accreditation
- Achievement
- Action Research
- Adaptive Testing
- Administration
- Admissions
- Adolescence
- Adult Education/ Development
- Affective Education
- African-American Education
- Aging
- Anthropology
- Aptitude
- Artificial Intelligence
- Arts Education
- Asian Education
- Assessment
- At-Risk Students
- Attitude
- Attribution
- Bilingual/Bicultural
- Business Education
- Career Development
- Case Studies
- Certification/Licensure
- Child Development
- Classroom Management
- Classroom Research
- Clinical Education
- Cognition
- Cognitive Processes/ Development
- Collaboration
- Community Colleges
- Comparative Education
- Compensatory Education
- Comprehension
- Computer Applications
- Computerized Testing
- Computers and Learning
- Conceptual Change
- Constructivism
- Continuing Education
- Cooperative Learning
- Counseling
- Counselor Training/ Supervision
- Critical Theory
- Critical Thinking
- Cross-Cultural Studies
- Curriculum
- Data Analysis
- Decision Making
- Demography
- Desegregation
- Differential Item Functioning
- Dimensionality
- Dropouts
- Early Childhood
- Economics of Education
- Educational Policy
- Educational Reform
- Elementary Schools
- Equating
- Equity
- Ethics
- Ethnicity
- Evaluation
- Experimental Design
- Facilities
- Factor Analysis
- Faculty Development
- Family/Home Education
- Finance
- Gay/Lesbian Studies
- Gender Studies
- Generalizability Theory
- Gifted Education
- Governance
- Hierarchical Linear Modeling
- High Schools
- Hispanic Education
- History
- Indian Education
- Indicators/Information Systems
- Individual Differences
- Information Processing
- Instructional Design/ Development
- Instructional Practices
- Instructional Technology
- Intelligence
- International Education/ Studies
- Item Response Theory (IRT)
- Language Comprehension/ Develop-ment
- Language Processes
- Law/Legal
- Leadership
- Learning Environments
- Learning Processes/ Strategies
- Life-Span Development
- Literacy
- Literature
- Mainstreaming
- Mathematics Education
- Measurement
- Media
- Medical Education
- Memory
- Mentoring
- Meta-Analysis
- Metacognition
- Middle Schools
- Military Education
- Minorities
- Moral Education/ Development
- Motivation
- Museum Education
- NAEP
- Networking
- Organization Theory/ Change
- Peer Interaction/ Friendship
- Performance Assessment
- Philosophy
- Physical Education
- Planning
- Politics
- Postsecondary Education
- Principals
- Private Education
- Problem Solving
- Professional Development
- Program Evaluation
- Psychometrics
- Qualitative Research
- Race
- Reading
- Research Methodology
- Research Utilization
- Restructuring
- Retention
- Rural Education
- School/Teacher Effectiveness
- Science Education
- Self-Concept
- Social Class
- Social Context
- Social Processes/ Development
- Social Studies Education
- Sociology
- Special Education
- Staff Development
- Standard Setting
- Statistics
- Stress/Coping
- Structural Equation Modeling
- Student Behavior/ Attitude
- Student Cognition
- Student Knowledge
- Student Teaching
- Studying
- Supervision
- Survey Research
- Teacher Assessment
- Teacher Characteristics
- Teacher Cognition
- Teacher Education/ Development
- Teacher Knowledge
- Teacher Research
- Teaching Context
- Technology
- Testing
- Test Theory/ Development
- Textbooks
- Tutoring
- Urban Education
- Validity/Reliability
- Vocabulary
- Vocational Education
- Women's Issues
- Work
- Writing

Divisions & Chair Contact Information

A - Administration and Leadership
This division is concerned with research, theory, development, and the improvement of practice in the organization and administration of education. Chair: **Ted Zigler**, University of Cincinnati, 405 Teachers College, Cincinnati, OH 45221, *ted.zigler@uc.edu*

B - Curriculum Studies
This division is concerned with curriculum and instructional practice, theory, and research. Chair: **Doug Feldmann**, Northern Kentucky University, College of Education, BEP 281, Highland Heights, KY 41099, *feldmannd1@nku.edu*

C - Learning and Instruction
This division is concerned with theory and research on human abilities, learning styles, individual differences, problem solving, and other cognitive factors. Chair: **Ellen Sigler**, Indiana University Kokomo, 2300 S. Washington, Kokomo, IN 46904, *elsigler@iuk.edu*

D - Measurement and Research Methodology
This division is concerned with measurement, statistical methods, as well as both quantitative and qualitative research methods, as applied to educational research. Chair: **Sema Kalaian**, Eastern Michigan University, 145 Sill Hall, Ypsilanti, MI 48197, *skalaian@emich.edu*

E - Counseling and Development
This division is concerned with the understanding of human development, special education, and the application and improvement of counseling theories, techniques, and training strategies. Chairs: **Andrew Burck**, University of Toledo, 3272 Milstead Dr., Toledo, OH 43606, *amburck@yahoo.com*; **Jean Roberts**, University of Toledo, MS 119, 2801 W. Bancroft, Toledo, OH 43606, jeana_roberts@yahoo.com

F - History and Philosophy
This division is concerned with the findings and methodologies of historical research in education. Chair: **Nathan Myers**, Ashland University, 401 College Ave., Bixler Hall, Ashland, OH 44805, *jennynate_2000@yahoo.com*

G - Social Context of Education
This division is concerned with theory, practice, and research on social, moral, affective, and motivational characteristics and development, especially multicultural perspectives. Chair: **Mark Brown**, Daemen College, Education Department, 4380 Main St., Amherst, NY 14226, *mbrowneiu@hotmail.com*

H - School Evaluation and Program Development
This division is concerned with research and evaluation to improve school practice, including program planning and implementation. Chair: **Russ Brown**, Cleveland Municipal School District, 1380 East 6th St., Cleveland, OH 44114, *Russell.C.Brown@cmsdnet.edu*

I - Education in the Professions
This division is concerned with educational practice, research, and evaluation in the professions (e.g., medicine, nursing, public health, business, law, and engineering). Chair: **LeAnn Derby**, 2354 Fairchild Dr. Suite 4L8, United States Air Force Academy, Colorado Springs, CO 80840, *LeAnn.Derby@usafa.af.mil*

J - Postsecondary Education
This division is concerned with a broad range of issues related to two-year, four-year, and graduate education. Chair: **Mark Magnuson**, Ivy Tech State College – Central Indiana, One West 26th St., Indianapolis, IN 46206, *mmagnuso@ivytech.edu*

K - Teaching and Teacher Education
This division is concerned with theory, practice, and research related to teaching at all levels and in-service and pre-service teacher education, including field experience supervision and mentoring. Chair: **Glenda Moss**, IUPU-Fort Wayne, 2101 E. Coliseum Blvd., Fort Wayne, IN 46805, *mossg@ipfw.edu*

L – Educational Policy and Politics
This division is concerned with educational policy as well as political, legal, and fiscal matters related to education. Chair: **Kathleen S. Brown**, University of Missouri – St. Louis, 263 Marillac Hall, 8801 Natural Bridge Road, St. Louis, MO 63121, *kathleen-brown@umsl.edu*

(*Franklin article continued from page 18.*)

The GSR, though, still has the handicap of applying to a cohort of student-athletes who enter college several years prior to the rate being finalized. Therefore, the NCAA concluded that there was a need to develop a more "real-time" assessment. That rate was publicly released for the first time last year, and is called the Academic Performance Rate (APR). This rate is calculated based on the term-by-term eligibility and retention behavior of every student-athlete on all sports team at an institution. Beginning this year, teams may become eligible for NCAA sanctions based on this rate. As you might guess, there has been a lot of attention paid to the rate since it was initially released, and there is already some evidence that schools and coaches are changing their behavior in positive ways in response to this rate and the penalties that may be associated with it. This is the first time that the NCAA has attempted to attach consequences to academic performance, and the university presidents and chancellors who sit on the Division I Board of Directors are extremely hopeful that this will produce significant change in the culture of sports at NCAA member institutions.

College Athletics and Academic Reform: A Model for Success

What has been described simply outlines the NCAA efforts to foster academic reform. Each of the endeavors that have been discussed represents the hard work and ideas of many dedicated individuals from across the breadth of the NCAA membership. It is a model for academic reform and therefore reflects an unrelenting commitment to academic integrity.

The process that the NCAA has employed to support a model for academic reform can best be summarized by examining three major components:

Collection and Use of Data. As described in this address, the NCAA made major efforts to collect a plethora of data related to the issues surrounding student-athlete academic performance. We have collected information on over a million students during the past ten years, and we believe that taken together, these data represent one of the most important collections of information ever assembled in terms of the academic profiles and performances of students in high school and college.

Analysis of Data. Obviously, the collection of data, by itself, does not assist you in solving problems or responding to challenges. The analysis is equally important. The NCAA has engaged the services of many experts in the field of educational research and has provided our membership with a wealth of analysis and interpretation. In turn, the membership has used data in thoughtful ways to craft legislation that is fair and effective.

Continuing a Monitoring Process. It is also vital to continue to collect and analyze data with an eye toward the real effects of these rules. Any rule may have unintended consequences and it is vital that we continue to monitor our academic standards to understand their exact effects. It is incumbent on us to understand these effects and be prepared to change portions of our regulations that are not working as expected or are causing undue hardship on certain segments of the student-athlete population.

Conclusion

The model that has been presented reflects how the collection and analysis of data can shape the development of policies to promote academic integrity. The data support the fact that some progress in terms of the academic performance of student-athletes has taken place, but we certainly cannot claim victory. The NCAA can establish national policies, but, ultimately, the promotion of academic integrity is an institutional responsibility. The academic integrity of an institution is basically formed by the faculty. Faculty members create and approve the curriculum, and they establish the instructional standards. National policies can only go so far and should in no way abridge the principles of academic freedom.

Within the complex mission of higher education, there is an important role for college athletics. To understand this role, perhaps we begin with the view that college athletics should be seen as central to the mission and not an ancillary function of the academic enterprise. If a line of demarcation is drawn between athletics and academics, the wrong message is sent to student-athletes. There is a powerful relationship between academic achievement and athletic participation. If we celebrate this relationship, we promote academic integrity. College athletics is not a panacea for achieving academic integrity, but it can provide a road map for student-athletes to follow as they travel toward the goal of academic success.

Perspectives on Responsibility in Teacher Education: What's Worth Fighting For?

Nina G. Dorsch
Northern Illinois University

Recent documents released by the U.S. Department of Education offer a negative characterization of Teacher Education. In this paper the author describes what's worth fighting for, and how teacher educators should do it.

Okay, I accept the blame, but not the responsibility.
–Richard M. Nixon

In a recent edition of *AACTE Briefs*, Sharon Robinson (2005) points out the obvious: "teacher education has been the focus of high-profile and high-impact interest of policy makers for many years" (p. 2). Certainly policy makers have cast blame on teacher education for what they have seen as a sorry state of affairs in student achievement—for, in effect, leaving many children behind. That blame perhaps took its most incendiary form in comments made at a November 18, 2002, symposium entitled "Rigorous evidence: The key to progress in education?" in which Reid Lyon is quoted as stating, "If there was any piece of legislation that I could pass, it would be to blow up colleges of education" (Coalition for Evidence-based Policy, p. 84). His statement was based on his perception that colleges of education are among the "most resistant and recalcitrant" institutions. While Lyons' solution is both novel and extreme, his characterization of colleges of education is hardly new. James Conant's 1963 description of *The Education of American Teachers* included this observation:

> The [education] establishment is overly defensive; it views any proposal for change as a threat and assumes any critic intends to enlarge its difficulties and responsibilities while simultaneously undermining its ability to bear them. In short, there is too much resentment of outside criticism and too little effort for vigorous internal criticism. In some instances, I found the establishment's rigidity frightening. (p. 40)

That blame would be cast on teacher education should not surprise us. After all, the 1997 report of the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF), *Teaching for High Standards: What Policymakers Need to Know and Be Able to Do* (Darling-Hammond & Ball), concluded that teacher quality accounts for between 40 and 90 percent of differences in student test scores. With student achievement hanging in the balance, critics cast a variety of forms of blame on teacher education, four of which I will explore briefly.

Invited Address to Division K (Teaching and Teacher Education) at the annual meeting of the Mid-Western Educational Research Association, Columbus, OH, October 14, 2005.

What Is Teacher Education Being Blamed For?

Cochran-Smith (2005) reviews the critiques of teacher education, noting that

> During the past ten years, there have also been many competing claims about the relationships that do and do not exist among teacher qualifications; about the policies and practices governing teacher preparation, teaching performance, and educational outcomes; and about the research or evidentiary bases for these claims. (p. 306)

The most recent spate of critiques have included the following areas: the perception of unreasonable barriers to teacher certification, lack of emphasis on areas of qualification that matter most, lack of consistent program approval standards, and concern about the meaningfulness of clinical/student teaching experiences.

The U.S. Department of Education Secretary's Annual Report for 2002, *Meeting the Highly Qualified Teachers Challenge*, characterizes teacher education as "broken" and imposing "burdensome requirements" (p. 8) for education coursework and clinical experiences, including student teaching. In initiatives reminiscent of the market-based reform argument advanced by Chubb and Moe (1990) for school choice and vouchers at the K-12 level, critics of teacher education have developed alternatives to what they view as the "bureaucratic hurdles" (U.S. Department of Education, 2002, p. 19) imposed by current teacher preparation and certification regimes. We have the American Board for the Certification of Teacher Excellence (ABCTE) (2005) which advocates a transportable teaching credential based on paper and pencil tests of subject matter and professional knowledge, with the source of "professional knowledge" not confined to colleges of education. On the ABCTE web site, links to online courses, virtual mentorship, and Kaplan test-preparation materials offer baccalaureate degree holders (who presumably have content knowledge) a low-cost, efficient way to obtain professional knowledge sufficient to pass a test of professional knowledge. Five states (Florida, Idaho, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, and Utah) accept passage of ABCTE tests as qualification for one or more teacher certification areas.

Reid Lyon also has joined teacher education critics who have developed alternatives. According to the Best Associates web site, Reid Lyon is Senior Vice President for Re-

search and Evaluation at Best Associates (http://www.bestassociates.com/reading.html). This organization founded and capitalized the American College of Education (http://www.ibhe.state.il.us/Board/Agendas/2005/June/Item%208.pdf). Having purchased the former Barat College facility in Illinois, ACE has been authorized by the Illinois Board of Higher Education (IBHE) to offer graduate degrees in Curriculum and Instruction and Educational Leadership. According to the application for degree authority posted on the IBHE web site, the mission of this college is to "provide career-long education and training to school teachers and administrators, fully aligned with the needs of school systems and education policymakers, for the purpose of improving instructional quality and school leadership" (www.ibhe.net retrieved 9/30/05).

The 2002 Department of Education report also blames teacher education for emphasizing education coursework at the expense of high standards for verbal ability and content knowledge, the two areas teacher education critics characterize as the most important teacher qualifications. In what Marilyn Cochran-Smith (2003) labels "the dichotomy most plaguing teacher education right now" (p. 275), this critique assumes a qualitative difference between "college grads" and "ed school grads," with the former seen as more desirable teaching recruits.

The Finance Project, funded by the Ford Foundation, compared education to six other professional fields, and concluded that "Many stakeholders concede that traditional teacher preparation and in-service training have failed to produce the level of quality demanded by the new educational environment" (Neville, Sherman, & Cohen, 2005, p. 3). The project report raises concerns about a lack of consistent program approval standards. While noting that standards of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) influence 650 colleges and universities that produce 70% of the nation's teachers, the report comments that

> Approval standards in education still vary widely among states, influenced by a tradition of state control and disagreement among stakeholders on necessary elements of teacher preparation curriculum and the effectiveness of different existing standards. Well-developed and more consistent standards for state approval would enable preparation programs to compare themselves against benchmarks and provide specific information about their progress toward important goals, such as preparing teachers to work at hard-to-staff schools. (p. 12)

National standards, actual or *de facto*, declared desirable by the Finance Project are problematic since many practitioners in education remain ambivalent regarding national standards for accreditation (American Federation of Teachers, 2000).

The Finance Project also found troublesome the variation in the depth and breadth of student teaching that is required by states, noting that "on average, most student teachers complete 180 to 360 hours of such training" (p. 13). Moreover, in considering student teaching in comparison to internships required in other professional fields, Neville et al. (2005) remark that "As in all fields, the richness and value of the clinical experience vary depending on the quality of the supervisor and the amount of time she or he spends monitoring and coaching the student" (p. 13). More troublesome is the critique offered by Wilson, Floden, and Ferni-Mundy (2001) that in education, clinical experiences are often reported to be limited, disconnected from university coursework, and inconsistent.

In the policy environment of these critiques of teacher education, accountability provisions in legislation are increasingly written in terms of a value-added approach. The Ready to Teach Act, part of the Higher Education Authorization Act currently on the legislative schedule for full House and Senate consideration, reflects Congress' belief that a high quality teacher preparation program is one that produces effective teachers, and that an effective teacher is one who produces significant gains in student achievement as measured by standardized tests.

As Richard Nixon's comment reveals, accepting the blame is not the same as accepting the responsibility. Nor can meeting accountability requirements be considered synonymous with accepting responsibility. In the 1990s Michael Fullan and Andy Hargreaves published a series of books in response to "major forces in society 'pushing for change'" (p. ix) in P-12 schools. In the preface to the first book of their trilogy, *What's Worth Fighting for in Your School?* (1996), Fullan and Hargeaves assert that changes are needed, and that

> Our premise is that teachers and principals themselves must ultimately make them happen. No one else can be relied on to get it right. This does not absolve others from responsibility. Indeed, we have some critical messages for system administrators, politicians, community members, and others. But our bottom-line belief is that by placing the initial onus for action on teachers and principals, greater and more effective pressure to act can be brought to bear on the system as a whole. (p. x)

In this address I propose that teacher educators (broadly defined as all of the stakeholders within the professional community that is engaged in teacher preparation) assume responsibility for the continuous improvement of teacher education because, as Fullan and Hargreaves point out, "No one else can be relied on to get it right." While many aspects of teacher education merit inclusion in our efforts at continuous improvement, I will discuss three broad areas that I believe are "worth fighting for" in teacher education.

What's Worth Fighting For in Teacher Education?

A major, long-articulated goal of teacher education and the education field at large is the "professionalization" of teaching. Fighting for the professionalization of teaching

involves addressing the areas of the teacher education knowledge base, participation in the policy process, and building and sustaining teacher education learning communities.

Defining the Knowledge Base

Codifying what teachers should know and be able to do predates and continues through the current standards movement. Gage's (1972) *Teacher effectiveness and teacher education: The search for a scientific basis* can be seen as an effort to generate a definitive knowledge base for teacher education based on empirical evidence. The full alphabet soup of standards-setting organizations [INTASC, NBPTS, and Specialized Professional Association (SPA) groups such as NCTM, NCSS, NCTE, ACEI, CEC, NAEYC, etc.] have contributed to determining essential teacher knowledge and skills. Indeed, the problem has not been a lack of standards, but perhaps an overabundance of standards sets. In Illinois, designing "standards-based" teacher preparation programs involves addressing the Illinois Professional Teaching Standards, Core Language Arts Standards for All Teachers, Core Technology Standards for All Teachers, and Content Area Standards specific to the certification area as well as NCATE and SPA standards and dispositions linked to the unit conceptual framework. Sifting through the plethora of standards to design teacher education programs, much less basing program design on "an empirically validated model of the path (or paths) to teaching competence" (Singer-Gabella et al., 2005, p. 5), has been challenging. Most recently, the National Academy of Education's (NAE) *Preparing Teachers for a Changing World* (2005) and *Studying Teacher Education: The Report of the AERA Panel on Research and Teacher Education* (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005) offer comprehensive, research-based analyses regarding the teacher education knowledge base.

The NAE report focuses on the curriculum of teacher education. The report describes eight domains that should be included in teacher education programs: learning, development, language, social contexts and purposes of education, content knowledge and pedagogy, teaching diverse learners, assessment, and classroom management.

The AERA panel report synthesizes research to consider not only curricular elements of teacher education programs (e.g., coursework in the arts and sciences, foundations of education, methods) but also teacher education strategies and program structures. The panel's findings support a "consistent vision of teaching and learning" as significant to teacher quality, corroborating the importance NCATE attaches to the conceptual framework for guiding the implementation of all six NCATE standards. The AERA panel report also finds support for strategies such as case studies and teaching portfolios as enhancing candidate knowledge and performance (Cochran-Smith, 2005). In addition to drawing conclusions about the knowledge base underpinning the professional preparation of teachers, a central purpose of the AERA panel report is the identification of priority research issues in teacher education and strategies to move that research agenda forward. The new research agenda offered in the AERA panel report is significant not only for its implications for the knowledge base in teacher education, but its potential to inform policy and correct critique.

Presence in the Policy Process

As teacher educators, we tend to bemoan the politicization of teacher education. Yet as Griffin and Litman (2002) point out,

> The work of preparing teachers is political activity in larger measure than is typically understood. Although some see teacher education generally as a relatively neutral effort, in political terms, we are aware more sharply than ever before of the ideological struggles around issues of how teachers should be taught, what they should know and be able to do, and especially how they should conceive of their work in terms of influence upon children and the larger society. (p. 9-10)

Historically, there has been a paucity of evidence (and its use) in critiques and reform mandates in teacher education (Cochran-Smith, 2004; Allen, 2003). That situation has changed dramatically with the new millennium, including what we see as the misuse of research to justify political initiatives in teacher licensure and teacher education accountability, and the privileging (indeed the exclusivity) of experimental research as the basis not only for policy decisions but for curricular decisions.

Certainly, teacher education must assume the responsibility (or, more accurately, the "response-ability") for challenging our critics' selection and interpretation of research used to justify their critique. Jane Liebbrand's (2005) response to policy proposals to "fast-track" certification or to limit education coursework in teacher education programs provides an example:

> Policymakers should take a closer look at the research. The preponderance of research supports the idea that teacher preparation is important, and that knowledge and skill is built over time, in a coherent program of study. . . . Evidence does not support instant entry to teaching. (p. 2)

Point-by-point rebuttals that challenge interpretations of research and/or the goodness of research selected to justify policy positions are another means of exercising our responsibility to be present in the policy process. A model is Linda Darling-Hammond and Peter Youngs' rejoinder to the 2002 Department of Education report. Their analysis concludes

> Although there is evidence that verbal ability and content knowledge contribute to teacher effectiveness, there is also evidence that teacher preparation—including the student teaching and methods coursework the Secretary's report deplores—contributes at least as much to outcomes ranging from teacher effectiveness to teacher retention. (p. 23)

Co-opting the strategy of citing "scientific" research to justify our existence to policy makers is an appealing approach; there is great satisfaction in "beating them at their own game." However, our responsibility to be present in the policy process extends beyond reactive rebuttals and rejoinders to being proactive in the policy process.

Being proactive includes investing in and valuing long-term and longitudinal research on teacher education (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Robinson, 2005; Leibbrand, 2005). Ohio's Teacher Quality Partnership (Zelman, 2005) offers a paradigm for this kind of proactivity. This initiative is a research collaborative involving the Ohio Department of Education, all 50 teacher education institutions in the state, and the Ohio Board of Regents and includes studies of teachers preparation and their first years in the classroom.

Being proactive also means *direct* dissemination to policy makers of (1) our research and (2) the consensus arising from our debate and discussion of that research. Dissemination and discussion among ourselves alone is insufficient. Frances Fowler (2000) has noted, "The time is long past (if indeed there ever was such a time) when [education leaders] would tell themselves that 'politics and education don't mix' and then sit complacently on the sidelines while others made important policy decisions" (p. vii). Fowler (2000) offers three power resources by which teacher education might influence policy agenda setting: (1) knowledge—being "well-informed about new trends in education policy at the state and national levels," (2) "building organizational effectiveness to be able to respond quickly to events in agenda-setting arenas," and (3) having allies (p. 188). The power of teacher education's presence in the policy process is magnified when it is a collaborative effort.

The Power of Collaborative Work as Learning Communities

In the preparation of teachers, field experiences with focused, well-structured activities positively impact teaching practice and student achievement (Wilson et al., 2001). Nowhere in teacher education is the power of collaboration more evident than in the creation and ongoing work of professional development schools (PDSs) (Griffin, 2002). The collaborative power of PDSs originates in a shared vision: teachers and university professors who work in school-university partnerships "find common ground in their love of teaching and learning and in their concern for students and their learning" (Wiseman, Cooner, & Knight, 1999, p. 21). Ridley, Hurwitz, Hackett, and Miller (2005) state that their study comparing the experiences of teacher candidates in PDS and campus-based programs lends support to the growing body of evidence that "teachers prepared at PDS-based preservice teacher education programs are indeed more instructionally effective" (p. 54). The report of the AERA Panel on Research and Teacher Education (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005) found sufficient evidence of the effectiveness of PDSs to recommend extended research about the conditions at these schools that lead to their positive impact.

More than meaningful field experiences, the benefits of school-university partnerships, within PDSs or in other partnerships structures, extend to the professional development of inservice teachers (Lieberman & Miller, 2000). In addition, the benefits to higher education widen as colleges and universities experience accountability demands, questions about our ability to generate value-added outcomes, and policy proposals for alternative teacher preparation structures. Our P-12 colleagues can provide perspectives born of their experiences with student performance mandates and proposals for voucher plans and charter schools. Rather than seeing the work of teacher education and K-12 education as activities isolated from each other, absent "important external and supportive sources of inspiration, ideas, criticism, and review" (Griffin & Litman, 2002, p. 9), we can engage in relationships as critical friends.

Collaboration as a learning community allows university and school teacher educators to "bring greater power and authority to the experience of learning to teach" (Griffin & Litman, 2002, p. 11). The concept of "learning community" is prominent in literature surrounding school renewal (e.g., DuFour, 2004). If school-university partnerships are to serve the goal of simultaneous renewal, then creating and sustaining a learning community in teacher education is a core responsibility of teacher educators. In his description of a learning community, DuFour (2004) frames three "big ideas" as core principles of professional learning communities:

- Ensuring that students learn,
- A culture of collaboration, and
- A focus on results.

Extending the professional learning community model to teacher education involves assuming responsibility. As DuFour (2004) notes, "The rise or fall of the professional learning community concept depends not on the merits of the concept itself, but on . . . the commitment and persistence of educators" (p. 11).

Claiming Responsibility for What's Worth Fighting For

The calendar for 2005 that sits on my office desk offers a quote for each day. The featured quote for July 28, 2005 was attributed to Jonathan Kozol: "Pick battles big enough to matter, small enough to win." In the context of perspectives on responsibility in teacher education and what's worth fighting for in teacher education, I offer an adaptation of Kozol's advice: "Pick battles big enough to matter, and then fight them together." I call on teacher education to cease accepting the blame, and to accept responsibility. Together, let's make a commitment to "fight for" defining the knowledge base, being present in the policy process, and building professional learning communities.

References

Allen, M. (2003). *Eight questions on teacher preparation: What does the research say?* Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States.

American Board for the Certification of Teacher Excellence. (2005). Retrieved September 30, 2005, from http://www.abcte.org

American College of Education. http://www.ibhe.state.il.us/Board/Agendas/2005/June/Item%208.pdf

American Federation of Teachers (2000). *Building a profession: Strengthening teacher preparation and induction*. Washington, DC: AFT.

Best Associates. http://www.bestassociates.com/reading.html

Chubb, J. E., & Moe T. M. (1990). *Politics, markets, and American schools*. Washington, DC: The Brookings Institution.

Coalition for Evidence-based Policy. (2002). *Rigorous evidence: The key to progress in education?* (2002). Forum proceedings. Washington, DC. Retrieved October 3, 2005, from http://www.excelgov.org/index.php?keyword=a432fbc34d71c7

Cochran-Smith, M. (2003). Teacher education's Bermuda triangle: Dichotomy, mythology, and amnesia. *Journal of Teacher Education, 54*, 275-279.

Cochran-Smith, M. (2004). Ask a different question, get a different answer: The research base for teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 55*, 111-115.

Cochran-Smith, M. (2005). Studying teacher education: What we know and need to know. *Journal of Teacher Education, 56*, 301-306.

Cochran-Smith, M., & Zeichner, K. M. (Eds.) (2005). *Studying teacher education: The report of the AERA Panel on Research and Teacher Education*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Conant, J. B. (1963). *The education of American teachers.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Darling-Hammond, L., & Ball, D. L. (1997). *Teaching for high standards: What policymakers need to know and be able to do*. Washington, DC: National Commission on Teaching and America's Future.

Darling-Hammond, L., & Youngs, P. (2002). Defining "highly qualified teachers": What does "scientifically-based research" actually tell us? *Educational Researcher, 31*, 13-25.

DuFour, R. (2004). What is a "professional learning community"? *Educational Leadership, 61*(8), 6-11.

Fowler, F. C. (2000). *Policy studies for educational leaders: An introduction*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.

Fullan, M., & Hargreaves, A. (1996). *What's worth fighting for in your school?* New York: Teachers College Press.

Gage, N. (1972) *Teacher effectiveness and teacher education: The search for a scientific basis*. Palo Alto, CA: Pacific Books.

Griffin, G. A., & Litman, P. R. (2002). Teacher education on the leading edge: Learning with and from one another. In G. A. Griffin (Ed.) *Rethinking standards through teacher preparation partnerships* (pp. 1-16). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Liebbrand, J. (2005). Unlocking the door to successful teaching: Preparation is the key. *Newsletter of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 14*(1), 2-3.

Lieberman, A., & Miller, L. (2000). Teaching and teacher development: A new synthesis for a new century. In R. S. Brandt (Ed.) *Education in a new era (ASCD Year Book)* (pp. 47-65). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

National Academy of Education. (2005). *Preparing teachers for a changing world.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

National Governors Association (2000). *Integrating professional development schools into state education reforms*. Washington, DC: National Governors Association.

Neville, K. S., Sherman, R. H., & Cohen, C. E. (2005). *Preparing and training professionals: Comparing education to six other fields.* Retrieved October 1, 2005, from www.financeproject.org

Ridley, D. S., Hurwitz, S., Hackett, M. R. D., & Miller, K. K. (2005). Comparing PDS and campus-based preservice teacher preparation. *Journal of Teacher Education, 56*, 46-56.

Singer-Gabella, M., Iddings, C., Paulsen, K., Smithey, M., Hardenbrook, M., Palmeri, A., et al. (2005). *From teacher education to P-12 learning outcomes: The new burden of proof.* Retrieved October 1, 2005, from http://aacte.org/Programs/Research/Vanderbilt.pdf

Wilson, S. M., Floden, R. E., & Ferni-Mundy, J. (2001). *Teacher preparation research: Current knowledge, gaps and recommendations*. Seattle, WA: Center for the Study of Teaching and Policy, University of Washington.

Wiseman, D. L., Cooner, D. D., & Knight, S. L. (1999). *Becoming a teacher in a field-based setting: An introduction to education and classrooms*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing.

Zelman, S. T. (2005). Ohio's approach to high quality teaching. *The Newsletter of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education*, *14*(1), 6-7.

Ohio's Fiscal Year 2006–2007 Budget: Primary, Secondary, and Higher Education

Bill Harris
President of the Ohio State Senate

The State of Ohio has found itself as the cross-roads of reform efforts in education. In his address President Bill Harris highlights features of the 2006–2007 budget related to educational reform.

On behalf of the Ohio Senate, I would like to welcome all of you to our State Capital of Columbus, Ohio, and to commend you for your commitment and attention to education—a field that is so vital to the success of this state, this region and this great country.

Speaking as a state legislator who regularly votes on education matters for the state of Ohio, I find that education crosses over nearly every sector of public policy. Whether we are talking about enhancing our economy, creating jobs, bringing down crime rates, the affordability and accessibility of health care or ensuring our elections run smoothly, education has a tremendous role to play. I recognize that next to parents, the influence of our schools and their ability to teach students the information and life skills that help them to become well-adjusted, productive and contributing adults, is second to none.

I stand before you today because of the opportunities that I have been given. I grew up in a rural Tennessee school district with parents who placed a great deal of value on my education. It was much later, after multiple tours of duty in Korea and Vietnam, that I earned my Bachelor's in Secondary Education from the University of Arizona, courtesy of the United States Marine Corps. Not all children grow up in good school districts, are blessed with supportive parents or believe they have an opportunity, like I did, to go to college. And therein lies the challenge we face as public officials trying to ensure, as our Ohio Constitution requires, a thorough and efficient education for every schoolchild in Ohio. Not only do we have to make sure we have safe school buildings, that the electricity comes on, and that the kids have good teachers and updated books from which to learn, but we must compensate, in many cases, for what they don't get from home and the economic realities in which they live.

As a state working to move from a K-12 mindset to a P-16 mentality, where all young people work toward a higher education and each year of their schooling prepares them for that higher learning, we face ever rising higher education costs, limited resources to invest, a job market that increasingly requires more skilled workers and families who are struggling to help pay for or save toward their children's college tuition.

These challenges are not unlike what many state education systems face across the nation and weighed heavily on our minds as we worked to pass our two-year state budget, which took effect July 1. Today I want to outline what we did in the Ohio state budget for primary, secondary **and** higher education, and I also want to give you my perspective about what I think the focus will be in the years ahead. Let me begin by telling you a little about Ohio's primary and secondary system of education:

- We have 613 diverse school districts within the state of Ohio. For the most part, the largest are those in our urban centers, the "Big 8" we call them, Akron, Canton, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Columbus, Dayton, Toledo and Youngstown.
- However, our suburban districts are growing in size.
- and being a farming state through which the Appalachian belt runs, we have a number of rural districts as well.
- Each of these districts has their own challenges and intricacies with which they deal on a daily basis. It is because of these differences that we have long supported the concept of **local control** in Ohio.
- Funding, likewise, remains a state and local partnership, with the state guaranteeing today that every school district in the state receives at least a base level of funding of $5,283 per student, in addition to a number of supplemental resources, of which I will talk more about later.

I don't believe that anyone can argue with the fact that Ohio has made significant progress when it comes to our schools and I am pleased to have played a small role in that effort. In fact, Ohio's system of education has changed dramatically even in the decade-plus I have been a member of the General Assembly. In my time, I have seen how changes in federal education policy, the state of the economy, shifts in population, the political climate, the school choice movement and a landmark Supreme Court decision, known as DeRolph, have impacted the system.

Response to court decisions

As some of you may know, in 1997, the Ohio Supreme Court ruled that Ohio's system for funding schools was unconstitutional. The Court ruling focused primarily on the inability of low property wealth schools to provide an adequate education to students. These districts lacked money for basic supplies like textbooks and desks, let alone computers and technology. Legislators went to work to remedy the situation, and we've been working ever since. As part of the solution, state funding for primary and secondary education increased substantially. If I may put it into perspective:

- One year after I came to the General Assembly, in 1995, the state was spending $4.6 billion annually for primary and secondary education. Now in the year 2005, just a

Invited Address to Division L (Educational Policy and Politics) at the annual meeting of the Mid-Western Educational Research Association, Columbus, OH, October 13, 2005.

decade later, the state is providing $8.2 billion! That's a 78 percent increase. During the same time period, the consumer price index went up only 24.7 percent.

- When I started, the state had almost no school building program and the cost of updating and maintaining school buildings was primarily a local responsibility. By fiscal year 2006, under the auspices of the Ohio School Facilities Commission, the state will have appropriated almost $5 billion to renovate and build schools. We are spending more than $2 million per day and are viewed as a model for other states.
- When my term began, the state of Ohio had no clear, statewide academic standards to ensure all Ohio students were learning what they should at each grade level. Today we have state standards and are implementing the federal No Child Left Behind Act, and our kids are showing improvement. Recent statistics have shown Ohio students outperforming the national average on the SAT and ACT college entrance exams and are making great strides on state tests.
- For example, since 1999, the percentage of students at or above the proficiency level on statewide reading tests has increased by 19 points for both the 4th and 6th grades, from 58 percent to 77 percent in grade four and from 51 percent to 70 percent in grade six.
- When I started, the state did not have vouchers or charter schools. In 1996, the Ohio Scholarship Pilot Program was established in the Cleveland School District. In June of 2002, the US Supreme Court found the program, which serves more than 5,000 inner city Cleveland students, constitutional. We are now in the process of implementing a statewide program in which opportunity scholarships will be available for 14,000 kids in persistantly failing schools. And, the charter school movement has grown. In 1998, Ohio had 15 charter schools serving approximately 2,200 students. This school year, Ohio has approximately 65,600 students enrolled in 291 community schools, providing families with more educational options.
- When I started, the economic boom of the 90s had allowed us to devote significant resources into Ohio schools. Today, and over the past couple of years, Ohio has been struggling to come out of a recession and to overcome significant job losses. As a result, in the last two state budgets, we have had to contend with funding shortfalls and do the best job we could with the dollars we had.

Long term approaches

This has been both a challenge and an opportunity. In our effort to stimulate Ohio's economy, this year legislators took more of a long-term approach to the state budget and focused on areas that I believe will help to generate more revenue and free-up more resources for Ohio schools and other budgetary priorities in the future. Our attentions were directed toward revitalizing the economy and creating jobs through passing comprehensive tax reform, and in making significant reforms to our Medicaid system, the costs of which were in danger of bankrupting the state.

Through all of these reform efforts, education remained a top priority. We made some significant strides for our schools, including: Making the complicated school funding system more clear, targeting more resources to the districts that need it most, providing better opportunities for kids in chronically failing schools, and especially, in increasing academic and fiscal accountability of our charter schools.

Despite our fiscal challenges, the two-year budget bill we passed in June committed $16.8 billion for education over two years. We ensured that despite declining enrollment in some areas, no school district in Ohio would receive less funding in 2005 than they did in 2004, and no less funding in 2006 than in 2005. We implemented a new "Building Blocks" approach to funding schools, the foundation of which guarantees, as of July 1, 2005, every school district in Ohio will have $5,283 per pupil. Next school year the base per pupil amount will rise to $5,403. On top of that, the state provides additional funding for special education, career-technical education, gifted education, transportation, as well as "parity aid" and "gap aid," which assist lower property wealth schools who can't generate as much locally as wealthier districts can. Under the "Building Blocks" approach, the state will supplement the base-cost funding level by an additional $40 per student in FY06 and $48 per student in FY07 for intervention, professional development and data-based decision making to enable districts to pinpoint their strengths and weaknesses and make adjustments. These dollars are for all schools.

Under the new formula, we also provided $815 million in Poverty-based assistance to help districts with high concentrations of economically-disadvantaged students. These poverty-based resources are targeted toward things that we know will work, such as: intensive intervention, all-day kindergarten for poverty districts, funding for professional development for teachers and smaller class sizes.

With the passage of No Child Left Behind on the federal level, many states, including Ohio, are in the process of determining the impact of the new law and working to implement the changes; however, I believe that the biggest thing to come out of this federally-driven legislation is the fresh dialogue about how we help kids who are trapped in chronically low-performing schools. Not only do we need to help ensure children are not at an academic disadvantage because of the school district in which they live, but we need to also address the root of the problem and intervene in those school districts where the problem exists. This was the concept behind accountability reforms we passed in the state budget.

We have provided that, beginning in July 2007, what we call "Academic Distress Commissions" will be set up in districts that are declared to be in a state of Academic Emergency and that have not met Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) for four consecutive years. Commissions will be comprised of people appointed by the State Superintendent and the local school board president, whose focus is to delve into the operations of the district and solve the problems holding that district back. Our proposal gives them the tools they

need to make a difference, including the ability to appoint administrators, contract with a private entity to run the school, if necessary, and to establish a budget for the district and approve district expenditures. The Academic Distress Commission would dissolve once the district demonstrates "Continuous Improvement" status based on state standards for two out of three years. It is our hope that this intensive intervention and focus will help get these districts back on track financially and academically.

In the meantime, as we are working to rebuild poor performing schools, we felt it important to provide more opportunity for the children in those buildings to get the education they need to prepare them for higher education or the workforce. We provided for 14,000 scholarships of up to $5,000 each for students in school buildings that have been in a state of academic emergency for three consecutive years. These scholarships will cover the tuition to allow these students to attend another school of their choice. As I mentioned before, the demand for more choice in education has brought about the influx of charter or community schools in the state. Community schools have more flexibility to specialize and cater to an increasingly diverse population of kids, each of whom learns in unique ways.

While I believe this development provides for exciting opportunities, we need to balance that with ensuring that these schools are accountable and that students are making gains in these schools. That's why in the state budget, we took some steps that will help us strengthen existing community schools by setting clear standards and expectations. One step we took was to cap the number of community schools that can be established in the state, and we ensured that operators who are not meeting expectations cannot open more schools, which encourages quality over quantity. Recognizing the potential for abuse, we placed a moratorium on the creation of new E-schools, or schools in which children are instructed on-line rather than in a traditional classroom setting. This has allowed us to slow down this process so that we can look into developing standards that again, ensure these schools are offering a sound educational opportunity to students.

The future success of school choice measures in this state is in ensuring that they fill a niche for students who will have better chance at success outside of a traditional classroom setting and that they are meeting or exceeding the achievements of our public schools. Primary and secondary education, no matter what school a child attends, must form the foundation of skills that child will need in the future. And for their futures, in this day and age, earning a college degree is becoming more and more important.

Workforce development

Throughout my service in the General Assembly, one of my personal focuses has been workforce development. I have long believed that in order for our young people to secure good paying jobs, they must learn the skills that employers are seeking. Workforce development can mean on-the-job training and vocational education, but more and more employers today are looking for candidates with a college education. Ohioans know this too. In 2004, there were 457,333 students enrolled in Ohio's public colleges and universities. In fact, 2004 marked the 7th consecutive year that enrollment has increased at Ohio's public colleges and universities. Over the last four years Ohio's public campuses have added a total of 38,689 students—representing the equivalent of adding the enrollment of more than two Bowling Green State Universities to the public campuses.

The most important tool we can give our young people is access to quality higher education in their chosen field of study. With 13 four-year universities, 24 regional branch campuses, two free-standing medical colleges, 15 community colleges, eight technical colleges, and more than 60 independent colleges to chose from, there are many opportunities. And many of Ohio's colleges and universities have highly-regarded academic programs.

Yet they are of little use to would-be Ohio entrepreneurs, researchers and inventors if the cost of obtaining a quality education depletes their financial resources, or worse yet leaves them with mountains of debt, before they can even begin to pursue their dreams. In his annual State of the State Address, the governor quoted a very troubling statistic: 'For every 10 students who start high school in Ohio, only seven will earn a diploma, only five will enroll in a post-secondary institution; and of those, fewer than three out of 10 will complete a Bachelor's degree within 10 years.' There are barriers we must overcome if we want to turn these statistics around in Ohio, including college readiness and especially, the cost of earning a degree.

Let me share with you the major topics of a special Commission on which I had the honor of serving as a representative of the Ohio Senate. The Governor's Commission on Higher Education and the Economy or CHEE, as we refer to it, consisted of 33 members with leaders of the General Assembly, the private sector, institutions of higher education, as well as public and private schools. Through this committee, the Governor charged us to explore three areas related to higher education and the state of Ohio:

- Making Ohio competitive in the knowledge economy;
- Promoting access and creating opportunity for all students, and
- Delivering results on the state's investment.

We came back with a series of recommendations, some of which we were able to adopt as part of legislation sponsored in the Senate, some through the state budget and some that Ohio voters will decide when they cast their vote on a very important ballot issue this November 8, but more on that later.

Our recommendations were:

- Provide more Ohioans with the knowledge and skills to succeed through expanding access to higher ed, emphasizing important skills like mathematics and science and creating a more user-friendly network of postsecondary institutions that make it easier for students to apply to and transfer credits among Ohio's colleges and universities.
- Strengthen accountability of our universities to ensure that the investment from the state is transferring into a

better educated workforce. The Commission recommended a compact among higher education, the business community and state government to work together to increase college participation and expand research and commercialization.

- Energize business leadership to improve the use of higher education's tremendous assets for the economic betterment of the state and,
- Strengthen higher education's research base by attracting research talent and assisting businesses in turning research into real products that go into and enhance our economy.

CHEE recommended that we must start, as I mentioned before, by getting out of the mindset of K-12 education and start talking about P-16 education. In the Senate, we passed legislation earlier this year to create a statewide education partnership, chaired by the Governor, to engage educators, employers, legislators and community leaders in building a continuous learning system for students, pre-school through college. Through this Committee we will be working to better align high school graduation requirements with college readiness standards. A high school diploma in Ohio should mean that a student is prepared to succeed in college. We will encourage more high school students to take a rigorous core curriculum, because we know that well-prepared students have higher college graduation rates. And, we will work to create incentives for colleges and universities to improve their graduation rates. Enrolling students is not enough. We must do more to help them graduate.

Even with a continuous system, many students still face cost barriers that prevent them from attending college and reaching their full potential. Another recommendation of CHEE and something we took very seriously in the state budget, is to aim for a system where no Ohioan is denied a college education because they cannot afford it. We provided for direct aid to Ohioans who face financial barriers to higher education, and we broadened eligibility and increased funding by $58 million beginning in Fiscal Year 2007 for the state's needs-based college grant program, aligning it with federal Pell Grant standards. We also expanded the Ohio College Access Network so that more young people and their families in underserved counties have access to information and financing options for college. In addition, as we work to align primary and secondary education with higher education, we are also working to align coursework among our colleges and universities to ensure that students don't fall behind and extend the years and cost of their college experience if they should chose to transfer. We have asked our universities to work together to ensure that a credit for math at one university satisfies a requirement at the next and a student who takes a course at North Central State College in Mansfield will be able to transfer that credit to The Ohio State University.

As we ask our state universities to look at ways to improve efficiency and achievement, we also have committed to taking a hard look at the state's role in supporting colleges and universities. In this budget, the General Assembly provided $1.6 billion in Fiscal Year 2006 to supplement the general operations of the state's colleges and has slated an increase of $30 million for Fiscal Year 2007. In the meantime, a 15-member Higher Education Funding Council, with members from both the House and Senate, are meeting to come up with a method for how the increase will be distributed amongst Ohio schools.

We are at a very critical time in this state. Recognizing that, we worked to put forth a state budget, the cornerstone of which was control the growth of government and to improving our economy. As I mentioned at the beginning of my remarks, our system of education plays right into this effort. We must, once our students are properly educated, have good job opportunities that support their families right here in Ohio. Our effort to create more jobs will get a major boost if Ohio voters support State Issue 1 – the Jobs for Ohio Initiative at the polls.[1] State Issue 1 is a three part, $1.35 billion bond issue that would make a strategic investment in our economy. The components include investments:

- in infrastructure to assist local governments with roads, bridges and water projects;
- in job-ready sites, which will ensure there are industrial and business-ready sites for companies looking to expand here;
- of $500 million over the next seven years for research, development and commercialization projects competitively selected by Ohio's Third Frontier Commission.

This research and development is already happening at Ohio's colleges and universities. Researchers at the University of Akron are focusing on polymers, in Cleveland, we have work being done in the area of fuel cells and medical technology. And these only scratch the surface.

The problem is that once the research is done, for the most part, there is no concerted effort in the state to develop, produce and take these new technologies to market. As a result, our economy loses when we can't develop advanced industries, create high-tech jobs, and our best and our brightest move to other states that can invest in these areas. We want to change that, in part, through the passage of this bond issue. Our hope is that we can provide opportunities for our young people to develop Ohio-based research into Ohio-based products.

I can assure you that legislators working in this city understands the importance of education for Ohio's future success and we are committed to making the improvements we need to help our kids realize their full potential. I predict that the next two years will bring much discussion, and even more work and significant change as it relates to every level of Pre kindergarten through college education.

I believe we are on the right track and have a strong foundation on which we can build. Thank you for giving me the time to talk to you about what we are doing in Ohio. I encourage you to continue to monitor our progress.

[1] Issue 1 was supported by a majority of the voters in the November, 2005, election.—The editors.

Curriculum and Community Involvement

Doug Feldmann
Northern Kentucky University

Historically, the consolidation of school districts has brought with it many promises and perils. In this paper, the author links curriculum and community involvement within the consolidation context.

Certainly local control of public schools has long been part of the American public policy landscape. This "control" takes many forms, including the control of money, politics, and especially curriculum. Multiple local bodies often joust over the contents and execution of the local school curriculum, regardless of how large or small a particular school system may be. In perhaps the greatest overarching strategy to have an impact on the curriculum over the past one hundred years, various waves of school consolidation movements have deleted many smaller schools in rural areas of the country in an effort to strengthen the financial and academic threads of such systems. When schools in a rural area consolidate, it is with the hope that pooled resources will enhance opportunities for all students in the area.

As a part of consolidation, educational professional offered expanded courses, resources, and opportunities for citizens of small towns. Consolidation allowed a pooling of county-wide assets in an effort to provide a rich scholastic experience for all children of the region. Over time, those involved in consolidation became extremely mistrustful of each other. Educational professionals felt that local townspeople did not have the knowledge (or access to the knowledge) to properly run schools, and townspeople feared the corruption of their children's values by those of the neighboring community into which they would be integrated. Religion, for example, maintains an extremely important socializing role in many small towns. If one denomination is prevalent in a particular community, and students from other communities are brought into its schools, a clash of moral and social values may take place. Furthermore, the loss of local control quite often alters the residents' willingness to submit to consolidation but ultimately they were convinced, for better or worse, that consolidation was a viable solution to inadequate funding and resources. This leads me to ask whether such decisions inhibit the functions of democratic practices for these citizens. In compromising their autonomy, do they lose a quantity of social empowerment? Or, are they in fact more empowered, by means of joining forces to create larger numbers?

As a result of the loss of industry from many rural sectors of the nation, some areas have unwillingly turned towards consolidation for their school children, and in a sense relinquished a certain of amount of individual identity and political autonomy in exchange for a variable amount of monetary gain. It is reasonable to assume that this trend will continue into the next century but it is unfortunate given the volume of contemporary literature supporting the reduction of school size. Interestingly, despite the financial windfall that consolidation may provide for a rural system, the enlargement of the school that children attend can impose a disservice in terms of their social development.

Thus, in terms of modeling a citizen for a democratic society, it can be argued that consolidation may cause a social regression in the lives of rural school children. With much of the rest of the educational world pursuing community activism and pride, political autonomy for decision making, and more *personal* interaction among children at schools, this human side of school reform is slanted by consolidation. It may, in fact, be antithetical to these so-called "inherent values" of a democratic society and the promotion of its ideals among its citizens. Localized battles over consolidation—and its impact on the curriculum—have continued into modern times. Despite evidence to the contrary, conventional wisdom continues to seemingly convince the public that "bigger is better."

With school consolidation in the backdrop, the extent to which a school may engage in meaningful dialogue on curriculum matters can depend heavily on the amount of site-based management that is present. Consolidation—traditionally defined as the annexation of smaller, isolated school systems by larger, more affluent ones—has been among the most influential policies affecting the volume and nature of school-community interaction. These trends seem not to move like a pendulum (as is often perceived), but are rather "stream-like," in which the different currents are never "dried up". Instead, they are powerful enough to gather strength and ultimately surface when the conditions are right for them. When the factory model of schooling dominated American education in the early part of the twentieth century, schools were expected to follow the collective tendencies of the rest of society. As a result, widespread consolidation was recommended for small rural schools across the nation.

This trend did not end with the retreat of the Industrial Age, however. A common concern of many rural sectors across the United States remains the mass exodus of industry and employment from their areas. As the nation shifted from an agrarian to an industrialized society in the previous century, the profitability of the small-town farm in the United States gradually diminished. Today, many such communities are indeed ghost towns—areas that experienced skyrocketing fortune in a short period of time, and soon after faded—perhaps because of the lure of better-paying factory jobs in a nearby city. At the dawn of the next millennium,

Invited Address to Division B (Curriculum Studies) at the annual meeting of the Mid-Western Educational Research Association, Columbus, OH, October 13, 2005.

many of these isolated localities (along with their schools) desperately seek financial rejuvenation from any available source. As a result, some have turned unwillingly towards consolidation for their schools, consequently relinquishing a certain amount of individual identity and autonomy in exchange for a variable amount of monetary and curricular gain.

The initial furious wave of consolidation that swept through American education in the first half of the twentieth century left an indelible mark. As noted curriculum theoretician Paul Theobald pointed out, after 1918, the number of country schools and students began to decline. This trend never stopped, and, as a result, there are fewer than one thousand one-room schools in existence today. Theobald continued by asserting that the 117,108 school *districts* that existed in the United States in 1940 had decreased 87% to 15,367 in 1993, due mostly to continued consolidation efforts in the latter portion of the century. As noted earlier, however, this policy was not smoothly implemented in all rural areas; many communities wished to maintain the intimate structure of their small hometown schools.

Thus, with limited funds and human resources, many rural schools have had to exercise great creativity in providing a well-rounded curriculum for their students. In many cases, this has involved teachers in rural schools having to assume multiple roles. Just as a small-town doctor or lawyer must usually become a "generalist" in many facets of medicine or law, so too must a small-town teacher be prepared to assume a wide variety of jobs—some of which may be first-time challenges. In addition to the extra duties that such teachers face, educators in the rural sector are also faced with all of the traditional roles, not the least of which is conventional curriculum-making. Administrators in rural areas, as in other parts of the country, have experienced resistance to these efforts. Is this resistance to curricular reform in rural areas due to an inert populace unwilling to shift from perennial customs? Or is it the result of teaching staff that, for the most part, might be viewed as non-progressive? Or is it a combination of these factors, or others?

It has been said that sheer knowledge available to the world is doubling every 15 years. It is also assumed that half of what human beings will need to know *simply to survive* in the year 2200 is not yet known today. Whatever the statistics may say, it is reasonable to conclude that the world is transforming itself at a pace never seen before. The decisions that curriculum-makers make, therefore, are more important than ever. And these decisions are even more crucial in rural schools, as the supposed "change agents"—that is, the teachers who propose curricular revision and development—face a local agenda that is not often so swift to change.

The paradigms of federal and state agencies and bureaucracies in conceptualizing the nature of rural communities have often led to ill-fitting, standardized policy for agrarian schools. Local school control, which is passionately valued by many rural citizens, has been eroded by consolidation and other industrial templates for education. Over the previous one hundred years of consolidation history, a grave mistrust has grown on each side of the issue. In one camp are the education professionals who provided the state-of-the-art recommendations for the residents of the "uncultured" rural areas, people who the professionals felt were unable to make informed, productive educational decisions on their own; and in the other camp are local residents of rural communities, who sought to maintain the culture of their communities by resisting consolidation, "outsider philosophy," and change in general. It may be argued that, in the past century, this particular tension has been at the core of rural school curricular reform. Rural citizens have been reluctant to embrace strange new instructional strategies for their schools, while educators in these areas have struggled to provide a school experience that would prepare the students for the fast-paced world they will ultimately encounter.

It is reasonable to conclude, therefore, that the local culture of each individual rural community must be acknowledged for school policy to be effectively implemented. Whereas farming may dominate the economy in one small town, milling or mining may dominate in the next. Such a simple difference can alter the social structure in two communities which, on the surface, may seem almost identical. If the major religious sect in a small town is constituted of parishioners of the Baptist Church, the curriculum that the citizens endorse in their children's education may differ drastically from the next community down the road, where the Roman Catholic Church is attended by most residents. The history of American education is marked by misguided efforts at the national and state levels to force-fit policy on a wide scale into the rural communities of the nation—communities which, despite popular opinion, are nearly as diverse as their number.

In forging a new curriculum for a rural high school, therefore, school personnel may need to take several factors into account before, while, and after doing so: the consolidated or autonomous nature of their school system; the moral structures in place within the community; the consideration of outcomes and activities that will benefit students of the locale, whether or not they decide to later leave the area; the existence of a curriculum that is likely to be rigid and long-standing; the availability of financial and human resources; and finally, the existence of their own biases and wishes. These variables, among others, will affect the process of curriculum-making in the rural high school, causing deliberation and decision-making on a matter that is potentially a delicate and painstaking task. Furthermore, the shared decision making necessary for complete curricular discussion in a small school may or may not be present, depending on the willingness of each faculty member to participate. This will serve as one of the greatest challenges facing rural schools in the new millennium as curriculum—one of the most most-punted political footballs known to American society—continues to evolve in the coming decades of standards-based education.

Online Design Elements: Improving Student Success and Minimizing Instructor Load

Gregory P. Montalvo
Western Illinois University

In this paper the author describes the problems and issues of designing and developing an on-line research methods course.

When the faculty of the Educational and Interdisciplinary Studies Department at Western Illinois University were asked to develop an online research methods course several years ago, I was skeptical. How could anyone possibly teach the complexities of research over the internet? My face-to-face course focused on helping students become comfortable with the idea of asking and answering their own questions and helping them analyze research to write a mini-literature review. The activities I developed for the course worked well face-to-face, but I was not sure how they would work in an online environment.

Like many in higher education, I began exploring course management systems a few years ago such as Blackboard and WebCT. Their benefits were obvious. By the time we received the second request for an online research methods course in late 2003, I was familiar with how to put course materials online. I even experimented with discussion boards and conducted entire class sessions through Blackboard's Virtual Classroom, with as many as 30 students attending a single session. I read articles about creating and managing online courses; they were helpful, but limited. I also discussed various aspects of online courses with colleagues who taught at other institutions. Some of their ideas were good, but I still felt the courses they described were limited. Most of the courses were text based. Some used audio and small video clips, but most did not take full advantage of the internet's capabilities.

The kinds of courses I learned about during this time seemed to fall into one of two categories. I refer to the first course as the 'Read this, Do this, and Take this' type of course in which most of the content and interaction is text based and students read chapters, answer a few questions, and take a test. These types of courses are little more than a traditional correspondence course redesigned for the internet. I have a few colleagues who run 'Read this, Do this, and Take this' type courses. While they seem content with the time they invest in their course each semester, their interaction with students and their workload appears minimal.

I refer to the second type of online course as the 'More Integrated' course. Here the instructor makes use of the course management system's capabilities, including discussion boards, chat rooms, email, chapter notes, short streaming video and maybe audio clips. Some 'More Integrated' courses even attempt to create online learning communities by using the multiple communication tools offered in the course management systems. 'More Integrated' courses are a step up from 'Read this, Do this, Take this' courses, but content and information exchange is still primarily text based. Many of my colleagues who teach 'More Integrated' courses often complain about the workload. The multiple forms of communication require continual monitoring, and unless managed well, reading and responding to student input becomes a burden.

As I learned more about different online courses and considered creating my own, I envisioned something closer to what I refer to as the 'Fully Integrated' course. I imagined a technology rich course where technology use varies depending on the course objectives. Some portions of the course might look like a 'Read this, Do this, and Take this' course. I reasoned that if students could learn the unit objectives by simply studying an article or book chapter, why require them to do something else? I also envisioned that some parts of a 'Fully Integrated' course might resemble a 'More Integrated' course in that students could also be required to post responses on a discussion board or take part in an online chat, but only when it helps them learn the unit objectives and because no other technologies or formats will help them learn the objectives.

I have a confession to make; I have a bias against discussion boards, or more specifically, whole class discussion boards. While not all readers will agree, my experience with computer mediated communication has lead me to believe that whole class discussion boards are time consuming and sometime used unwisely. It takes an undue amount of time for students and the instructor to read and respond to postings. I recognize that in some instructional situations a whole class discussion board can be beneficial, but I prefer to use group discussion boards on which students only have to read and respond to a small number of postings each week. However, if a whole class discussion board is the only way to help students learn a particular set of objectives, then so be it. The point I hope to make here is that each design element, in a 'Fully Integrated' course, would be selected to help students learn the unit objectives and still minimize the instructor load.

The second request for an online research methods course came after a number of graduate students in our college lobbied to take research methods online from other institutions. By this time I felt better prepared to develop a

Invited Address to Division C (Learning and Cognition) at the annual meeting of the Mid-Western Educational Research Association, Columbus, OH, October 13, 2005.

quality, 'Fully Integrated' online course, so I volunteered to develop the course but with the following stipulations:

1. The administration needed to provide support for a design and production team. The type of course I envisioned required more talents than my own.
2. The course needed to make careful use of a variety of available technologies.
3. The course needed to be designed thoroughly so that any faculty member who teaches research methods for the department would be able to teach the course.
4. Managing the course must not create an undue load on anyone who taught it.

In the section below I address the design elements my colleagues and I selected for the online course.

Technology Design Elements Incorporated

Readers who wish to explore portions of a demo site may login to Western Illinois University's Blackboard site at http://blackboard.wiu.edu. The username and password for the demo site are "test1".

Common Unit Template

Before uploading course components, we developed a template to ensure that each unit of the course followed a common format. Each unit includes a unit overview, learning objectives, and a step-by-step guide that serves as a road map for completing the unit.

Streaming Video

Three forms of streaming video were incorporated. The first form is an introductory video of me providing an overview of the course. The short introduction allows students to put a face with my name. While this video could have been left out of the course, the design team felt students needed to see the instructor. The video adds a personal touch to a potentially impersonal medium. The second form of streaming video students encounter is a 50 minute documentary produced by Cornell University on the Tuskegee Syphilis Study. The documentary describes the study, illustrates the potential for unethical behavior when using human subjects, and sets a nice backdrop for learning about the National Research Act of 1974. Along with the video, students are required to read the textbook chapter on ethics in research. Afterwards they discuss, in groups, the ethical violations committed by the researchers in the Tuskegee study. The third form of streaming video students encounter is a series of presentations developed by staff at the WIU library. The videos, which were developed specifically for this course, teach students how to use the First Search version of the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) data base. Students in the face-to-face class are required to attend this training at the either the Macomb or the Quad Cities campus.

Flash Animations

Fourteen flash animated presentations were developed to augment textbook readings and two more presentations are in production. Each presentation includes graphical movement and full narrative audio. Three of the presentations on descriptive statistics require students to interact with the presentation, much like programmed computer aided instruction. The remaining presentations are similar to a power point presentation but include simple animations where movement helps to illustrate important points.

I should note that flash animations take a great deal of time to create. The process requires storyboarding each presentation, script writing, and hours of production time, much like creating a movie.

Group Consensus Building Activities and Case Studies

Textbook readings and the flash animations serve as the primary content for the course, so to engage students in the learning process and help minimize overall instructor workload we developed group consensus building activities for most of the units. After students read or view course material, they are given an activity (usually a case study) and asked to assemble a group response for the activity. For example, after watching the Tuskegee Syphilis Study Video, students are required to provide a group response about the ethical violations committed by the researchers. This may look like a typical assignment but in consensus building each group member is encouraged to provide input, and each group member must agree that the group's response is complete prior to it being submitted to the instructor.

The consensus building activities serve three purposes: First, they allow students an opportunity to grapple with course content by applying it to research scenarios or research articles; Second, they allow the instructor to monitor the group's collective understanding and provide them with important feedback when misunderstandings arise. Third, they affect instructor load by dramatically reducing the time required to read and respond to student input. Many of the consensus building activities are non-graded. Readers may balk at this idea, arguing that students have no motivation to complete the group work. To address this concern, we've designed the course so that each consensus building activity prepares the class for the mid-term test or a unit quiz. The instructor makes it clear that the consensuses building activities help students prepare for a future graded exam, and thus consensus building activities serve as practice for tests. Because they serve as practice, the group work is important to student success and instructor feedback becomes crucial to their learning.

Communication Tools

The groups are allowed to use any form of communication to complete the consensus building activities. Some

groups choose the group discussion board. Some use a virtual chat like AOL Instant Messenger or the Virtual Classroom in Blackboard. Occasionally a group will use email or cell phone conferencing. In most cases, the groups will use more than one communication tool. A couple of groups in the first semester even chose to meet face-to-face at a near by restaurant instead of using the internet.

I also use the communication tools in Blackboard to address individual concerns and questions. In one instance a student wanted guidance on her final project. She was concerned about identifying a topic that might also be used for her master's thesis. We discussed her concerns using the Virtual Classroom in Blackboard. In about 30 minutes, I was able to help her pinpoint a research question that served both purposes

Conference Calls

The final form of technology incorporated in the course is the conference call. I did not feel comfortable letting students loose in cyberspace without some instructor contact. One of my main concerns involved helping students complete a literature review. Most students enrolled in the course have never conducted a formal review of literature. I knew from my face-to-face course that students would have questions throughout the process. The design team and I struggled with the most effective technology to facilitate the process. After some debate, we settled on conference calls. The technology has been around for a number of years, but few online courses, if any, have attempted to use it for instructional purposes. Each group participates in four conference calls throughout the semester to discuss issues and concerns about writing a review of literature. The conference calls also provide an opportunity to address common misconceptions about recently covered course material.

Currently the conference calls take place over the telephone using 1-888 numbers. The cost is about $600 each semester. We are testing a program called Skype in which calls take place over the internet at no cost to students or the department.

Results

Student feedback has been positive. Many of our students are amazed at what can be done when a course is fully designed to make use of multiple technologies. By the end of the course, students are able to analyze research studies and most of them develop relatively good mini-literature reviews. Problems encountered by students seem to be no different from those experienced in a face-to-face class that incorporates group and individual participation; they usually involve time management and following directions. Over the past year we have maintained copies of group responses for each consensus building activity. We have used the information to anticipate common misconceptions and to revise assignments.

Throughout the development and implementation process, I discovered I had to rethink my role as an instructor. More specifically, I discovered that I do not have to disseminate the content. I can let the readings and presentations, which in some ways are better than my lectures, disseminate the content. I now spend most of my time providing informative feedback and facilitating students learning.

Instructor Load

To examine instructor load, the instructor responsible for the course during the current semester kept a seven week time log that included the categories 'Answering Student e-mail'; 'Preparing for Class'; and 'Grading Papers'. Additional time was logged for the week prior to the term start date and the conference calls that took place during weeks three and five. A log summary can be found in Appendix A.

The minimum amount of time the instructor spent working with the online course was 1 hour and 46 minutes during Week 2. The maximum amount of time she spent was 6 hours and 52 minutes during Week 4. On average the instructor spent 4 hours and 18 minutes per week over the seven weeks.

For the sake of comparison, we asked other faculty members in the department to estimate the amount of time they spend each week answering emails, preparing for class, and grading papers for one graduate level course. Three faculty members responded. I should note that one of the faculty members is currently teaching a new prep, so the numbers may be a little inflated compared to the amount of time a faculty member might typically invest. The minimum amount of time spent was 6 hours and 47 minutes. The maximum amount of time spent was 11 hours and 10 minutes. The average for the three instructors was 9 hours and 22 minutes. (Note: These numbers do not include the 2 hours and 50 minutes the instructor spent in class each week.)

While these results are by no means scientific, they give us some idea of the time it takes to teach online when the course is designed to minimize instructor load. Readers can add up the numbers for their own teaching and make the comparison. Naturally some weeks will require more instructor time than others. Time spent with a face-to-face course or an online course depends on the amount of grading, the number of times we need to respond to student emails, and the amount of tinkering we do with the course content. If designed well a 'Fully Integrated' online course should take no more time than a face-to-face class.

Final Comments

I have to acknowledge the amount of time and money required to create this course. The design team at CAIT and I spent months developing storyboards and creating activities to help students learn the course objectives. I am lucky

to work for an institution that supports this type of project. I recognize that many colleges will not have the budget needed to create 'Fully Integrated' courses. Hopefully publishers will pick up where universities leave off. The design elements we incorporated in our course were not hard to create, but they were time consuming, which takes me back to the issue of instructor load. Most of the time needed to organize and manage any online course comes in the development phase. Colleges and Universities may want to look at their policies concerning faculty release time, because one semester or even a summer can make a world of difference. I also recommend having faculty work with a design team during that semester. I found their input and expertise invaluable.

During the past year I have been asked to demonstrate the course to a number of groups. Faculty members and administrators like what they see, but they are also amazed at what can be done. It seems that most of us have limited visions when it comes to online instruction. I confess that even my original vision was limited, but I went into the project knowing we could incorporate a number of technologies to help students learn. I suspect my design team's vision was also limited, but together we created something that approaches a 'Fully Integrated' course. We can do even better but for now this version is working: students are learning and instructor load is minimized. I look forward to seeing what the future holds.

Appendix A

Online Course Time Summary Fall 2005

COURSE PREP
A) Answering Student Emails
0 min
B) Preparing for Class
3 hours 40 min
C) Grading Papers
0 min

Total: 3 hours 40 min

WEEK 1
A) Answering Student Emails
56 min
B) Preparing for Class
4 hours 20 min
C) Grading Papers
5 min
D) Class and Online Chat
65 min

Total: 6 hours 26 min

WEEK 2
A) Answering Student Emails
51 min
B) Preparing For Class
55 min
C) Grading Papers
0 min

Total: 1 hour 46 min

WEEK 3
A) Answering Student Emails
33 min
B) Preparing for Class
1 hour 23 min
C) Grading Papers
1 hour
D) Conference Calls
2 hours

Total: 4 hours 56 min

WEEK 4
A) Answering Student Emails
3 hours 58 min
B) Preparing for Class
46 min
C) Grading Papers
2 hours 18 min

Total: 6 hours 52 min

WEEK 5
A) Answering Student Email
52 min
B) Preparing for Class
1 hour
C) Grading Papers
44 min
D) Conference Calls
2 hours

Total: 4 hours 36 min

WEEK 6
A) Answering Student Email
40 min
B) Preparing for Class
18 min
C) Grading Papers
56 min

Total: 1 hour 54 min

Academic Integrity at the United States Air Force Academy

LeAnn Derby
United States Air Force Academy

In this paper the author outlines efforts at the USAFA to support the growth of academic integrity.

In troubled times, where threats to honor abound, it is essential that we support students who may have been enculturated in social dishonesty. At the United States Air Force Academy (USAFA) we have worked hard to put in place a number of supports to help our cadets to grow beyond social norms where dishonesty may be tolerated. We seek to support young men and women so that they can lead in an honorable way even under the most trying and challenging of circumstances. This support system is articulated in the Honor Code. Honor is the basis of military leadership because in a profession such as the military, where life is endangered by virtue of the institution's purpose, trust becomes sacred and integrity becomes a requisite quality for each professional. An officer who is not trustworthy cannot be tolerated. In some professions the cost of dishonesty is measured in dollars – in the military, the cost is measured in human lives. The ability of the USAFA to educate, train and inspire outstanding leaders of character for our Air Force is predicated upon the functional necessity of honesty. In short, the USAFA expects its graduates and cadets to commit to a lifetime of honorable living. Our Academy honor code states, "we will not lie, steal, or cheat, nor tolerate among us anyone who does."

I started with the Honor Code because although the code has been around as long as the Academy, the make-up of the high school graduates we are accepting has been changing over the years. The Josephson Institute of Ethics, a Los Angeles-based institute, regularly surveys youths nationwide on ethical behavior. According to a 2004 national study of nearly 25 thousand high school students, (24,763) nearly two-thirds (62%) cheated on exams. The good news is that while students continue to cheat (and lie and steal as the survey pointed out) at alarmingly high rates, it appears that the tide has been stemmed, and for the first time in 12 years of surveying, the percentage of students reporting cheating actually went down. In 2002, the survey showed 74% indicated cheating (with only 12,000 students surveyed). An explanation for this improvement could be the spread of character education programs, and a new level of attentiveness to values and integrity in response to massive corporate frauds at Enron, WorldCom, and Arthur Andersen, to name a few.

There is also the possibility that, given all the publicity on cheating, students may not be willing to be as honest on surveys as before. In fact, we know the admitted cheating rate understates actual behavior as 29% admitted they lied on one or two questions on the survey (12% said they lied on three or more) So, as far as kids' cheating goes, maybe the average teacher is in denial, but the truth is the majority of kids cheat. According to Michael Josephson, of the Josephson Institute, "cheating is an addiction, and people who cheat on exams cheat on resumes. People who cheat on resumes are the ones who cheat on expense accounts. And people who cheat on expense accounts are the ones who cheat on their spouses" (Sweeney, 2004, p. 1). We should be interested in arresting this trend, or seeing that it gets nipped in the bud in high schools or the university arena. At the Air Force Academy, we have three core values (and I might add that the Air Force adopted these values from the Academy)—integrity first, service before self, and excellence in all we do. Academic integrity obviously falls into the "integrity first" category.

There is no single path to promoting academic integrity on campus. Strategies will vary depending upon institutional commitment, resources and characteristics. All campus constituents—faculty, students and staff— must embrace academic integrity. It is a core institutional value that requires buy-in from all, and it is a shared responsibility. The USAFA team is always working on continuing to grow the culture of academic integrity and institutionalize it.

Despite stringent screening whereby only 1 in 10 applicants is accepted, Air Force Academy Cadets may be part of a high school crowd who had been cheaters in their past. Some examples of high tech cheating that have been discovered at high schools around the country include students who steel the answers to their exams and program the answers into their graphing calculators. Or students who tape-record their notes to play back on hidden ear phones during exams. Or even students who use their camera phone to send a photo of their test to friends. Last fall, the incoming freshman class at the Academy had a cheating incident where they were required to take a 20 question knowledge test using a computer sometime during one day. Apparently, the multiple choice answers were recorded and passed on to other freshmen. Before the day was over, some cadets were complaining they didn't know why they didn't get a specific answer correct because they knew it was right. Well, the answer had been miscoded, but when the investigation took place, the computer science staff discovered it was taking an average of three minutes to take the exam after the lunch break. Needless to say, we realized the advantages of always using computer adaptive testing, where the test bank of questions gets renumbered every time a different person logs on to take it. But most importantly, work commenced to develop

Invited Address to Division I (Education in the Professions) at the annual meeting of the Mid-Western Educational Research Association, Columbus, OH, October 14, 2005.

specific plans for improving the adherence to standards of academic honesty and to get this new class on board with the honor code.

As a way to support incoming students in becoming a part of an institution that emphasizes honor, one of the ideas the USAFA implemented last year was a common exam time for freshman and sophomore core courses. Instead of supplying the 'opportunity' to cheat to cadets who may have grown up in a cultural norm of cheating, we have scheduled one common exam time for everyone at 6:30 AM. For the few students who cannot complete the exam at this time, we alter half the content of the exam. This provides cadets who are learning the principles of the Honor Code with a way of growing into a culture of honesty. After two years, as juniors and seniors, no special arrangements are made for testing.

Another idea implemented last year was the use of departmental calculators that are distributed for test-taking purposes. Personal calculators are no longer permitted during testing. Since high tech calculators are often misused, the use of departmental calculators provides a level playing field for all students and provides a fair testing environment. All cadets are held accountable under the Honor Code, but helping to minimize the opportunity to cheat by disrupting the cheating culture some incoming classes may have known, is a way of growing the academic integrity culture.

A third feature of supporting students in acting honorably is the use of an honor system that adjudicates each individual case, rather than creating one punishment that is applied regardless of the circumstances. In this way, the honor system acts as a support that articulates specific consequences tailored to an individuals' actions rather than punitive measures wielded by a faceless bureaucracy. A key component of the honor system is that "Although the presumptive sanction is disenrollment, the Commandant may sanction probation for a designated period on a case-by-case basis. Factors considered in sanctioning are the cadet's experience under the Code, nature of the violation, forthrightness, and whether or not the cadet admitted or denied the violation" (USAFA, 2005). Another essential component of the honor system is the recognition that the nurturing of honor takes place over time: "The bedrock of moral and character education begins with a solid understanding and internalization of the cadet honor code. Instruction on the code, system processing, and the honor probation program begin during Basic Cadet Training, and continue throughout a cadet's four years at the Academy. In the first two years, instruction focuses on understanding and living under the Code, and in the final two years, emphasis is placed on cadets living an honorable life, while helping others to do the same" (USAFA, 2005).

Through the use of the supports I identified above, the USAFA focuses on a core mission of developing leaders of character. A leader of character knows what is right, and possesses the moral courage to act on that knowledge. While the principles of truthfulness, fairness, respect for others, and a personal commitment to maintaining values are the foundations of honor, it is also essential that leaders act in this way. This is known as the Spirit of the Code. A leader of character will apply the Spirit of the Code when making decisions involving ethical dilemmas. Compliance with the Honor Code is a requirement for membership in the Cadet Wing and is the *minimum* standard that we expect from our cadets. Those who fail to meet this standard are disenrolled.

References

2004 Report Card: Press Release and Data Summary. *The Ethics of American Youth* [press release] Retrieved October 5, 2005, from *http://www.josephsoninstitute.org/Survey2004/2004reportcard_pressrelease.htm*

Sweeney, Nicole (2004, May 19). *Students armed with technology usher in a new school of cheating*. Retrieved October 5, 2005, from http://www.jsonline.com/news/racine/may04/230738.asp

United States Air Force Academy. *Honor.* Retrieved October 5, 2005, from http://www.academyadmissions.com/character/honor.php

The Mid-Western Educational Research Association
Gift Membership

A gift membership has been given to you, _____

by _____

Your name is now included as a member in one of the most recognized, well respected, educational research groups in the United States and Canada. Your **one year membership** includes a subscription to the ***Mid-Western Educational Researcher***, the Association's journal that highlights research articles, features, interviews, and Association news. Members pay reduced registration fees for the annual meeting held in Columbus, Ohio, in October. This conference attracts many nationally recognized leaders in educational research. Enjoy your membership.

Thank you for providing your colleague, student, or friend with a special one year gift membership to the Mid-Western Educational Research Association. It is a gift of professional involvement that is sure to be appreciated throughout the year. To give your gift membership fill out the top portion of this card and use it to inform the recipient of the gift membership; then fill out the bottom portion of this card and mail it with your check to: **Jean W. Pierce—Dept EDCSE—Northern Illinois Univ.—DeKalb, IL 60115**

	Person Receiving Gift Membership	**Person Giving Gift Membership**
Name	_____	_____
Address	_____	_____
	_____	_____
	_____	_____
Affiliation	_____	_____
Work Phone	_____	_____
Home Phone	_____	_____
E-mail	_____	_____
Fax	_____	_____
Division Preference (optional)	_____	_____

Check one below and make check payable to Mid-Western Educational Research Association.

☐ **Professional Membership—$45**

☐ **Student Membership—$25**
Student must be currently enrolled.

☐ **Lifetime Membership—$450**

The Ohio State University
2500 Kenny Road
Columbus, Ohio 43210