

The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin

International Journal for Professional Educators

2020 - Volume 87-1

**Controversial Issues
in Education**

The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin

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The *Bulletin*, an official publication of The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International, promotes professional and personal growth of members through publication of their writings. Three online issues per year, subtitled *International Journal for Professional Educators*, focus on research-based and documented works—applied and data-based research, position papers, program descriptions, reviews of literature, and other articles on announced themes or other topics of interests to educators. Two print issues, subtitled *Collegial Exchange*, focus on articles based on practice and experience related to education, the Society, women, and children, as well as personal reflections and creative works.

Submissions to the *Bulletin*, a refereed publication, are reviewed by the Editorial Board and the Society editorial staff. Selection is based on relevance of the topics addressed, accuracy and validity, contribution to the professional literature, originality, quality of writing, and adherence to Submission Guidelines (see www.dkg.org). Editorial Board members evaluate each submission's focus, organization, development, readability, and relevance to the general audience of *Bulletin* readers. Due to the diversity of the *Bulletin* audience, material that expresses a gender, religious, political, or patriotic bias is not suitable for publication.

Please send materials to bulletin@dkg.org or to Bulletin Editorial Staff, The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International, 416 W. 12th St., Austin, TX 78701-1817.

The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin (ISSN 0011-8044; USPS 715-850; IPM 0302295) is published five times each year by The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International, 416 West 12th Street, Austin, Texas. Periodicals Postage paid at Austin, Texas. Subscription, U.S. \$31 per year; single copies, \$7 each (journal) or \$5 each (magazine). International dues include subscription to *The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin*. Views expressed do not necessarily agree with positions taken by The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International.

POSTMASTER: Send address changes to *The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin*
416 W. 12th St., Austin, TX, 78701-1817.

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Published by the Delta Kappa Gamma Society International

*The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International
promotes professional and personal growth of women
educators and excellence in education.*

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Call for Submissions

Members are encouraged to submit manuscripts promoting educational research and personal/professional reflection for consideration by the *Bulletin* Editorial Board. The *Journal* accepts submissions of Action, Qualitative, and Quantitative Research; Reviews of Literature; Educational Program Descriptions; Position Papers; and Book/Technology Reviews. The *Collegial Exchange* accepts submissions relating to Classroom and DKG Practices/Programs, Viewpoints on Current Issues, Personal Reflections or Anecdotes, Inspirational Pieces, Biographies and Interviews, Book and Technology Reviews, and Creative Writing.

Submissions should be focused, well organized, effectively developed, and concise. The style should be direct, clear, readable, and free from gender, political, patriotic, or religious bias. For more detailed information, please refer to the Submission Guidelines on page 78 and the Submission Grids on page 79.

Listed below are the deadlines and, where appropriate, themes. Although there is a suggested theme for each issue of the *Journal*, manuscripts on all topics are welcome. The *Collegial Exchange* is not theme-based.

Journal: Educators' Choice (87-3; Online)

(Postmark deadline is October 1, 2020)

Open Submission: Topic of author's choice related to education.

Collegial Exchange (87-4; Print)

(Postmark deadline is December 15, 2020)

No designated theme

Journal: Global Education (87-5; Online)

(Postmark deadline is March 1, 2021)

How is education implemented in various settings/countries? • What are the common educational issues among countries? • How do educators develop intercultural understanding and multiculturalism? • How are educators prepared in various countries? • What does a global perspective of education mean? • Why is a global perspective important in education?

Journal: The Well-being School or Classroom (88-1; Online)

(Postmark deadline is May 15, 2021)

What is the well-being school/classroom? • How is mental health addressed for all components of the school community? • How are school-community partnerships developed to address trauma? • What are schools doing to address social/emotional development/learning? • What types of programs address teacher well-being?

Collegial Exchange (88-2; Print)

(Postmark deadline is August 1, 2021)

No designated theme

Submit all materials to: **Bulletin Editorial Staff** at bulletin@dkg.org
Full Submission Guidelines and other resources are available at the
Apply/Submit tab on www.dkg.org.

From the Editor

Perhaps because education as an endeavor is so personal yet so institutional—experienced so intensely yet governed and shaped so publicly—it abounds in controversial issues, i.e., those that are the subject of intense public argument and disagreement. Educators, students, parents, and the general public eagerly chime in with passionate discussion and attention to issues such as high-stakes testing, gun violence, dress codes, prayer in schools, grading and assessment practices, and more—and the editorial board of the *Bulletin* fully expected such topics to draw submissions when, in 2019, it proposed the current theme, *Controversial Issues in Education*. The evolution and challenges of dealing with the COVID-19 pandemic in early 2020, however, dimmed the focus on such enduring controversial issues and shifted major attention to the already-contentious consideration of online learning in terms of practices and impacts.

An exploration of teachers' perspectives on facing the controversies of COVID-19, contributed by editorial board member Trybus, opens the issue and is followed by an overview of key issues in virtual education environments by seasoned online instructor Lindgren. Moving to the specific challenges of virtual learning during the pandemic, Anderson considers the impact on academics, the achievement gap, and nutritional health, while Gregory shares her qualitative, Facebook-based investigation of the specific problem of plagiarism during COVID-19. Midcalf and Boatwright share their own research about teachers' and parents' perspectives regarding online learning during the pandemic.

Other articles include other controversial topics and suggested practices and programs. Johnson-Smith uses a book on culturally responsive teaching as the framework for her consideration of the importance of cultural relevance and ethnicity. With an eye to the dilemma of teacher attrition, Farmer provides a thoughtful summary of the nature and impact of stress, complemented in part by Clement and Cochran's study of the extent to which formal preparation impacts first-year teachers. Houy et al. outline an "adulthood" program at their university; Hamrick and Lock describe a mobile outreach program for individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder; and Morris and Shockley contribute their second piece regarding a unique summer professional development program.

The articles in this issue demonstrate not only that DKG members are engaged in conversations about controversial issues in education but also that they are alert and nimble in responding to emerging controversies such as those surrounding the pandemic. Articles in this issue demonstrate no controversy surrounding the fact that DKG members are key women educators impacting education worldwide.

Judith R. Merz, EdD
Editor

Teachers' Perspectives: Facing the Controversies of COVID-19

By Margaret Trybus

This article continues a series initiated by members of the Bulletin's editorial board. The goal of the series is to provide insight on a topic or work related to the theme of the issue. Here, editorial board member Trybus discusses teachers' perspectives regarding student engagement during the pandemic. The convenient sample for exploring the topic included 13 teachers who received full scholarships from a DKG chapter to complete master's level work in curriculum and instruction.

One of the most controversial issues educators have faced in their lifetimes is the shutdown of schools in March/April 2020 as a result of COVID-19, the pandemic virus. As weeks turned into months, teachers experienced many challenges with the expectation that homes could turn into virtual classrooms. Around the globe, teachers asked parents to foster learning by creating an environment that substituted for the school, the classroom, and teachers' relationships with their child. Technology skills became essential, not only for teachers but also for parents (and maybe grandparents) to teach in an online environment. Children in all grades and at all ages had to learn quickly how to adjust to a screen of learning materials and discussions, not the video games with which they may have been familiar.

A discussion regarding these concerns seemed to be the best way to get a sense of how teachers' experiences led to their perceptions of online learning, especially at the elementary school level. This discussion was held with Bellwood School District 88 teachers who were part of the Iota Chapter Cohort at Concordia University Chicago. With the likelihood that the reopening of schools in the fall would bring about a continuation of physical separation from their students, these teachers sought to be proactive by assessing their online experiences and looking for ways to improve student engagement, one of their main concerns. The central question that emerged became "Is the home a learning environment in which students can be engaged?" Teachers expressed the following concerns and concepts.

- **Homes have to be seen as learning places that eliminate distractions.**

Parents have to shift their mindsets from seeing learning as just the role of the school. Now, the burden to learn also includes parents, who must grapple with the logistics of time, place, and commitment to helping their child beyond the teacher. One educator stated, "I had kids who were home alone, and they were responsible for getting their work done on their own... Their parents may have been invested in them, but they (parents) had to work or had so many kids they didn't know how to set up a learning environment for *all* of their kids."

- **Students make meaning of learning through interaction with the teacher and with their peers.**

One teacher expressed, "We did our best to keep kids afloat, but I also see things differently... We did the best we can, but little kids especially can't stick to an activity by themselves." Here the teachers brainstormed ideas that might "mirror" a classroom, such as virtual recess in the homes that could include a scavenger hunt related to content learning, grouping students with less "teacher talk," and creating

PowerPoint games to create a sense of competition.

- **Teachers have to foster online discussions and conversations.**

Especially in upper grades, students need to share their perspectives on the content being taught. According to one teacher, “Conversations build upon each other and promote different perspectives so that student sharing leads to understanding.” In the online classroom, we cannot lose the advantage of academic conversations that help students develop the confidence and motivation to learn. “When two ideas mix, we create new ideas, and students develop dispositions when they learn to listen and speak without bias.” In online learning, such interaction and synergy are possible if the teacher makes them part of instructional delivery in the online setting.

- **Relationships and bonding need to be part of social-emotional learning.**

Online learning, by design, may overlook what we know about relationship-building in the classroom, so it gets lost. One teacher expressed, “I had a connection that I had already established with my students before the pandemic, so they knew me, and they joined me online because...they did it for me.” A concern expressed was how this would happen in the fall with new students who might not be given a chance to establish a connection if never meeting face-to-face. “They won’t know me, so I am no different than anyone else. Why would they care to log on or not?” Another teacher believed her students needed socialization and observed that, if their friends were part of the Google chat set up by the teacher, they were more likely to attend and engage.

Final Thoughts

At the time of this writing, the school district had just informed these teachers that their school year would begin with virtual, online learning at all K-8 grade levels due to COVID-19. As their school district grappled with the logistics of technology and parent communication and involvement, the teachers had already made great strides in transforming teaching and learning into this new environment.

The teachers involved in these discussions were unique in that all of them (13) received full scholarships to pursue a Master of Education degree in Curriculum and Instruction due to a Delta Kappa Gamma member who had established the William Charles Iwert and Elizabeth J. Iwert Scholarship Fund for a local chapter. With these funds, the women leaders are taking graduate-level courses, where they are continuing as a cohort of learners themselves. Together and online, they will face the ongoing challenges of curriculum, instruction, and assessment in the online e-learning environment that will most likely continue.

These educators are committed and “see this as a chance to focus on what is central (to learning) and to developing students’ problem-solving skills.” Because they are now problem-solving teachers, their experiences certainly create a possibility that will help their students overcome challenges and break new ground in remote instruction that keeps students safe. They are facing a controversial issue fraught with challenges—and facing it as an opportunity for growth and transformation.

All comments are quotations by teachers from Bellwood (Illinois) School District 88 who are part of the Iota Chapter Cohort at Concordia University Chicago.



Dr. Margaret Trybus is Professor of Teaching, Learning, and Diversity in the College of Graduate Studies at Concordia University Chicago. She has extensive experience in K-12 education as a teacher and administrator in very diverse school districts in the Chicagoland area. A member of DKG for 42 years, she has served as Iota Chapter president, member of the Illinois State Organization Executive Board, and reviewer on the International Editorial Board for 8 years. She is also a past president of Illinois ASCD and a recognized trainer and author of the book, *Leading School Change*. Empowering future women leaders is her passion, along with dedication to future work and projects through Delta Kappa Gamma.

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Proactive Pedagogical Thinking about Online Instruction

By Charlotte Lindgren

The author shares her perceptions derived from 10 years of teaching French online at a university in Sweden. Particular emphasis is placed on three points: working with the feeling of belonging to a group, recording lectures, and developing appropriate examinations. At a time when many courses are being put online, the author wishes to share her experience and encourage proactive pedagogical thinking about online instruction.

I have been teaching modern languages at Dalarna University in Sweden for 10 years. Dalarna specializes in online and distance-teaching methods, and I would like to share my teaching journey. Given the current situation, when a lot of teaching will take place online, it seems even more important to share experiences in online pedagogy. I will begin by describing my university and my working environment before offering some reflections on how my online teaching has evolved over the past 10 years.

My Work Environment

Sweden is a country in the north of Europe with approximately 10 million inhabitants. The capital is Stockholm, where the largest university in terms of student numbers is located. Dalarna University, where I teach, was founded in 1977 and is located in central Sweden in the historical region of the same name. The university has two campuses, one in the town of Falun and the other in the town of Borlänge. In the beginning, the university was founded on three pillars: technical education (the region is a center for the mining of copper and other metals and forestry), nursing education, and teacher training. Nowadays, it offers a wide range of educational opportunities in different fields. The latest available figures show 778 employees, including 46 professors, and 14,882 students.

Today, 66% of these students study online. In fact, since the early 2000s, Dalarna University has begun a fundamental effort to “put” many of its courses and programs “online.” One of the departments most involved in this process is modern languages. Today, 12 languages are taught, such as English, French, German, and so forth. At the beginning of the 2000s, those in modern languages were obliged, for various reasons, to move gradually from on-campus teaching to online teaching. This was done (Lindgren, 2020) in an extremely ambitious and conscientious way. At the time, close collaboration existed between teachers and the technicians who supported their teaching environment. The rule was that the needs of teachers took precedence over technical developments and not the other way around. Most teachers wanted to create, in an online environment, the same atmosphere as in a classroom. For them, there was no question of setting up the method of the “correspondence course.” Maintaining the interaction between student and teacher—but also between and among students—was a key consideration when the language courses were provided online. Moreover, those involved decided to use collaborative working methods and flipped classrooms for students as well as to promote collaborations actively, not only with technicians but also between teachers, in a much more intensive way than

usual in this teaching environment. Such intense collaboration between and among colleagues on pedagogy is one of the reasons I have been able to carry out my own pedagogical reflections.

Teaching French Online in Higher Education

I defended my doctoral thesis in French at the University of Uppsala in 2005; it was a study of the use of the past tense in stories of French-speaking children in Sweden published in 2008 (Lindgren, 2011). During my doctoral studies, I took several pedagogical courses, because doctoral students are often involved in teaching. I was therefore very interested in the training courses on “Teaching for University Teachers” and “Supervising Undergraduate Thesis Students,” to name but a few. Several years after the defense of my doctoral thesis, in the fall semester of 2009, I was offered a position at Dalarna University, but...the teaching was almost entirely online. I had taught online before but only sporadically when working for a private company that taught high school students who needed help in various ways. The only contact with these students was through telephone conversations.

At Dalarna University, a Virtual Learning Environment (VLE, called Fronter at the time) had been developed in which the teacher could upload reading materials and exercises and post messages and in which students could hand in their homework, find course materials outside of the course literature, chat on a forum with the teacher or other students, and also get information about the course. Adobe Connect, another online meeting program, was also used so seminars could be held online in real time. For me as a teacher, this was not just a matter of taking on and running new courses but also of learning how to teach online. Although some of the courses were still on campus at the time, all of mine had shifted to online delivery. Today we use Learn Blackboard as our virtual learning platform and Zoom as our online meeting software. But my journey as a teacher has little to do with the different programs I have used.

The teaching of French at the academic level is offered at nine universities in Sweden. At Dalarna University, French is taught at the beginner, basic, and advanced level. The basic level roughly corresponds to undergraduate teaching and the advanced level to postgraduate level study. As educators in a common subject area, department members also contribute to the teacher training program and offer student teachers courses with didactic variants, as well as courses in language didactics. Sometimes a few 7.5-credit courses are also offered on a specific subject, such as “French in the European Union,” “Literature and Culture in the Maghreb,” and so forth. Courses at the university level in Sweden always have a syllabus that includes goals for students to reach.

Reflection on Three Critical Issues: Group Feeling, Lectures, and Examination

I would now like to make three points, which could be called three conclusions, from my 10 years of online teaching. I am a little uncomfortable with the term “conclusion” because these are not at all immutable conclusions that I intend never to change again. These are works in progress. These points relate to group feeling, the recording of lectures, and the work on the different forms of examination (cf. also, Leblanc & Lindgren, 2013).

Group Feeling

Like other researchers before me (e.g. Salmon, 2011), I have noticed that within an online class, group feeling is fundamental. Students do not (usually) meet each other in real life, and they have less opportunity to form a united and confident working group. Of course, this depends on the circumstances: students who study in the teacher training program, for example, or those who study full time each semester (30 credits) on a regular basis get to know each other better and gain a sense of belonging to a group. Sometimes the students decide spontaneously to meet online between lectures and seminars. My colleagues and I found that some students create groups on social networks, such as Facebook, and meet or communicate outside of class hours. In my course guide, I add encouragement to students to get together in this way. In my courses, I always invite the students to present themselves at the beginning of the course on the forum and at the first seminar (I always introduce myself as well). I encourage them to upload a picture next to their name on the forum and to leave their camera on during seminars so we can all see each other. I do the same. As we have a rather heterogeneous group of students, which does not correspond to the idea of the “normal” student, so to speak, it is interesting for everyone to know who else is in the group.

According to several studies carried out on the university’s own data system, Linnéa, students who study online at Dalarna are often older than average. In 2018, only 12% were under the age of 24; 36.6% were 34 or younger. The rest were therefore over 35 years old, including almost 5% who were over 65. According to details from the Hofverberg survey (2018), 61% of students spent more than 50% of their time working. Forty percent had parents born outside of Sweden: 1% in the Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway), 19% outside Europe, and 20% in another European country. Sixty-three percent had Swedish as their native language, which implies that the rest did not (including some students who had French as their native language). I believe this plurality that characterizes our student groups is a fact that most of them appreciate. Some of the teachers at our university who had previously taught at one of the traditional campus-based universities have also been surprised by this plurality. What it means in practice is that a couple of students can discover during a presentation that they live in the same town in a French-speaking country and can meet to practice French. Some may have the same native language and can help each other to study French using another language for grammatical or linguistic reflections.

With this in mind, I proposed that my department implement a mid-course evaluation, in addition to the final evaluation, which proceeds as follows: The students are told they will have to answer three short questions (“what was positive?”; “what was negative in the course so far?”; and “what could be changed this semester?”). They are told that one of them will be secretary and will take notes during the discussion in a breakout room on Adobe Connect or Zoom. They talk about these issues in confidence, without the presence of the teacher, and trust each other enough to share their opinions. The secretary records their responses in an anonymous fashion and then sends the answers to the teacher, who can study them with a view to changing some things in the course. The sense of being heard by the teacher is, in my opinion, good for group feeling.

By the way, in almost all our French classes, students are placed into real-time breakout rooms for independent discussion. Some teachers use the system’s automatic function to make the groups, while others create the groups manually. For

example, as mentioned above, native-born French speakers can either be grouped together or scattered across the different groups to act as a kind of “locomotive” for the discussion. Finally, in some courses, students are also required to do group work, such as a presentation or other written work, which they must submit to the platform and/or present online. They, of course, need to meet as a small group, so virtual student rooms are set up for this purpose. These opportunities strengthen group feeling, too. My colleagues and I work hard on group feeling and getting that right.

Recorded Lectures

For a study on the perception and learning of French online by older students (in collaboration with Monika Stridfeldt, published in French, 2019), my colleague and I asked students in French to take an online sound perception test during a normal seminar on Adobe Connect. In addition to this test, the students had to answer a questionnaire that, among other things, focused on their perception of French during the seminars and in the audio documents that had been used in the course. The perspective used was gerontological, but we involved all students who volunteered, regardless of age. It then appeared to me, in the answers we received, that the students really appreciated the opportunity to listen again or to listen more slowly to some of the audio documents. It also appeared to me, having lived in a doxa arguing quite strongly against “lectures,” that, on the contrary, the lectures were greatly appreciated by the students.

In the late 1990s and early 2000s, a debate evolved within Sweden that lectures could be an outdated concept. The prevailing view was that students should be active in their learning and not passive. It was argued that, in lectures, students at best simply took notes. At worst, they merely listened or dozed off. Memorizing class notes by heart and copying them as answers in the final exam do not stimulate students’ deep learning. Instead, more active, personal student work was encouraged, and final exams were written that appealed to students’ critical thinking and analytical skills. Even better, some courses were designed with no final exam at all but with a series of smaller exams or assignments. These ideas fit well within online teaching paradigms as well because, given the limited contact time between students and teachers, there was often not enough time to give long lectures.

Distance or not, in 2018 a report from the Swedish Higher Education Authority showed that the average number of teacher-led hours in the humanities, social, theological, and legal sciences was only 8.3 hours per week (compared to 13.8 hours in medicine and 14.7 hours in the natural, technical, and social sciences). These hours were divided on average into lectures (4.4 hours), seminars and group work (2.9 hours), and “other” (1 hour). At my university, in the French program, the students have quite few hours of classes per week in full-time mode. It therefore seems obvious that if we spent 1 hour giving a lecture, not much time would be left for the interaction that characterizes our online teaching!

To replace the “missing” real-time lectures, the French teachers adopted different methods: in addition to assigning reading of the course literature, they could also provide students with handouts, record their lectures, or encourage students to study additional, open-access courses. After the results of the above-mentioned survey, I decided to record as many lectures as possible. I do not mean to say that I am against active student learning—far from it. But, in Sweden, lectures have had, at one time and in a certain milieu, an exaggeratedly bad reputation. My opinion is that they



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are good as a complement to other activities. Recorded lectures give students the opportunity to listen whenever they want, once or several times; to take notes at their own pace; and to read the course literature more slowly if they so desire. This then gives them the chance to discuss more reflective questions and ask their own during the seminar with other students and with the teacher.

The Question of Examination

Finally, I have also given a lot of thought to the question of examination. In parallel with various research projects, such as the one upon which the French version of this article is based (Lindgren, 2013), I thought about the fairest way to organize an exam so students could pass. As I said, students must show that they have achieved the course goals contained in the syllabus, and each course goal is evaluated. For instance, in some of our French courses, we have final exams that must be taken online in real time. When I first started teaching in Dalarna, teachers like me were also exam supervisors.

Running real-time online exams could be a complicated business. Dalarna University now has an online examination center, with clear rules and specially trained supervisors. When students arrive at the exam online in the room on the usual online meeting place, they must have their identity checked by presenting their ID cards. The students are then monitored by camera during the examination. The supervisor sees both the student and the screen. If there is a technical problem, the supervisor will call the disconnected student (the main problem is that the student sees himself disconnected and is therefore no longer visible on the supervisor's screen). The time of disconnection is noted, as are any requests for comfort breaks. A student who has been offline or away from his or her screen for too long will not have the exam recognized. A student who would prefer to take the exam on campus can always do so (but of course not currently during the pandemic). Only in two courses in the French department—in writing proficiency—must students go to an approved exam center at another university or designated study center (it can also be an embassy if they are abroad).

It seems to me after all these years that the fairest way to enable students to pass their exams without creating extra work for the teachers is to vary the methods used: written and oral exams that can be done either in real time or recorded and submitted later; final exams and continuous assessment (e.g., handing in several small assignments scattered across the semester); tests on the platform; oral presentations; and so forth. Not all methods can be used for every single 7.5-credit course, but when a student obtains points for an entire 30-credit course, varied methods demonstrate that the individual has been evaluated in different ways and has been able to show fairly that he or she has personally achieved the goals of the course.

Concluding Thoughts

In this article, I wanted to show the educational journey I have taken as a teacher in French over the past 10 years at Dalarna University in Sweden. The three points discussed illustrate how I changed my method, alone or with my colleagues and sometimes with the help of the university administration (for example, via the establishment of the online test center). First, I now work more on group feeling. For example, I spend more time encouraging students to collaborate outside of classes. Second, I record many more lectures so that students can listen to them as they

wish, at their own pace, and in addition to reading the course literature and using the course materials. Finally, after a long reflection on the fairest way to evaluate whether or not students have achieved the course goals, I think I have arrived at a good solution that uses a plurality of evaluation methods.

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Academics, Achievement Gap, and Nutritional Health: The Impact of Coronavirus on Education

By Tameka C. Anderson

The Coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic has swiftly become a major dilemma for educational leaders internationally and specifically in schools in the United States. As a result, educators and students have replaced face-to-face teaching and learning with virtual education. School leaders and educators are challenged with relying on technology devices to sustain previous learning and continue with teaching curriculum requirements. This article explores the impacts of COVID-19 on academic achievement, the perceived widening of the achievement gap for various student populations in United States schools, and nutritional health. The shift from traditional learning to virtual learning has magnified the gap in educational disparities among students. This article discusses the inequities experienced by students attending American schools and explores research from various authors. Techniques utilized by school leaders to address these inequities are discussed, as is how COVID-19 will reshape the field of education in the future.

Students attending Arkansas schools first began to feel the effects of the Coronavirus (COVID-19) in March 2020. Not only did COVID-19 usher in fears, but it also magnified the educational disparities already experienced by many students in high-poverty areas. These students went from enjoying the safety and security often provided by schools to struggling to complete virtual assignments and find adequate food to eat. Although teachers have bravely embraced the transition from face-to-face learning to virtual education, it would be hard to argue that students are still being provided with the same rigorous education they received in the classroom weeks and months before this pandemic hit the United States. It is my stance that the COVID-19 pandemic will severely impact students' academic achievement, widen the achievement gap, and damage nutritional health.

Academic Impacts of COVID-19

The first impact of the COVID-19 pandemic is that it has severely affected students' academics. School leaders and educators were forced to utilize quick and creative learning alternatives that aligned with federal and state curriculum needs to communicate and collaborate with students and parents. In the United States, the digital learning platforms vary widely from district to district and from state to state. As an educator, I recognize that some of my students quickly embraced these new remote-learning platforms, while others have struggled to navigate the uncharted waters of virtual learning.

This pandemic has also shined a light on the experiences of students residing in underserved communities across the United States. Many students are forced to complete virtual assignments without adequate access to technology devices and reliable high-speed Internet connections. The Associated Press reported 18% of students do not have access to broadband Internet (North, 2020). According to Herold (2020), the major hurdle educational leaders must overcome is provision of

equal access to technology to all students and high-speed Internet connections to millions of families (p. 2). Hence, school leaders must be proactive and “leverage the relationship between teacher and learner” by providing technology devices and Internet access (Anderson, 2020, p. 5).

According to Courtney (2020), for example, school leaders at San Diego United School District have considered providing students with previously purchased laptops to support them in the shift to distance learning. Leaders within my district and surrounding school districts have shared the same momentum as they have provided students with technology devices and stationed school buses with mobile hotspots within their communities to close the gaps and disparities. School leaders are forced to exercise one of their greatest assets: their ability to be resourceful in meeting the needs of their students. For many school districts, reducing or eliminating barriers to students’ success with virtual education has become a necessity.

Maxouris and Yu (2020) argued that “children from communities of color or low-income neighborhoods often depend on their school for a lot more” (p. 2) in order to attain educational success. This academic success varies and is based upon the students and the needs of their school and community.

Educational Impacts of COVID-19

The next impact of the COVID-19 pandemic is that it has severely widened the educational achievement gap. Educational leaders across the United States failed to implement a standardized approach to online learning. Instead, individual districts were given the flexibility to determine how students would be evaluated using an unorthodox approach. I concur with Rothstein (2020), who proposed the impacts of COVID-19 will drastically widen the achievement gap as students from middle and low-income backgrounds will experience higher rates of academic regression than their counterparts.

Rothstein (2020) also suggested academic regression is directly related to a heavy reliance on those in these socioeconomic groups—specifically parents of African American and Hispanic students—as essential workers during this pandemic. Research by Anderson (2020) supported that the “gap between students isn’t limited to Internet access; it’s also about the power and privilege of parents” (p. 3). Typically, families from this socioeconomic group live in high-poverty areas and lack the resources and background knowledge to homeschool their children successfully.

Anderson (2020) further suggested the COVID-19 pandemic will be crucial in reshaping the future of education. Tam and El-Azar (2020) similarly proposed the COVID-19 pandemic has and will continue to yield new innovations in the field of education. School leaders and educators must ensure that these innovations seek to close the already widening achievement gap and meet the needs of all students.

Nutritional Impacts of COVID-19

The third impact of the COVID-19 pandemic is that it has severely affected the nutritional health of school-aged students. Mandatory school closings across



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“**COVID-19... magnified the educational disparities already experienced by students in high-poverty areas.**”

the United States have increased school leaders' awareness of the food insecurities experienced by students living in poverty. According to Anderson (2020), school leaders are not only challenged with adapting to teaching using digital learning platforms but overwhelmed with finding solutions to providing students with nutritional meals during this education and health crisis. She contended students from "disadvantaged backgrounds will face multiple challenges, from the bottom of Maslow's hierarchy to the top: food and shelter, which schools helped to provide, connection to support children's learning, and a lack of financial buffers to carry a family through" (Anderson, 2020, p. 3).

To overcome the newfound awareness of the present food deficits, school leaders have utilized innovative methods to ensure school-aged children continue receiving the nutritional meals previously provided while attending school traditionally. Many American schools are using buses to provide students with nutritional meals delivered to their homes or bus stops within their communities. My stance concurs with North's (2020) belief that, "while cities have set up food distribution centers to help students in need, many are still missing out on the resources and sense of stability that school can provide" (p. 2) and offered before the COVID-19 pandemic.

Conclusion

The COVID-19 pandemic has led to mandatory school closings across the United States and internationally. It has also challenged educators to utilize virtual learning platforms to maintain and adhere to federal and state curriculum guidelines.

This unexpected shift from traditional learning to distance learning has magnified inequities for students in different school populations in the current educational system. This revelation has forced school leaders to identify specific methods to overcome disparities related to ensuring academic achievement, closing the achievement gap, and supporting nutritional health. Students living in high poverty areas have experienced the most hardships related to this pandemic. As a result, many of these students have struggled to maintain their academic stability because they do not have access to suitable technology devices and high-speed Internet connections.

COVID-19 has also revealed nutritional disparities and will impede the closure of the achievement gap as students have limited access to nutritional meals and become more susceptible to higher rates of regression.

To reshape the future of education, school leaders must utilize resilient collaboration and communication skills as they seek to embrace rapid technological changes and provide students from diverse socioeconomic backgrounds the same educational opportunities and resources. If COVID-19 continues, the pandemic could severely impact the state of education for students internationally and in the United States. Soon, data will allow researchers to identify the impacts specifically and determine how to reshape education.

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The COVID-19 pandemic will severely impact students' academic achievement, widen the achievement gap, and damage nutritional health.
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COVID-19 Elevating the Problem of Plagiarism: The Implied Social Contract of Academic Integrity

By Jess L. Gregory

This qualitative investigation, inspired by a social media post on a Facebook group devoted to pandemic pedagogy and the storm of responses from educators, proposes a new theoretical approach to the persistent problem of plagiarism. Integrative Social Contract Theory describes the formal and informal social contracts embedded in understandings of academic integrity and plagiarism. Although the COVID-19 crisis has elevated the issue of plagiarism through social isolation and forced distanced learning, the findings of this piece persist beyond the current situation and reaffirm that ensuring all those engaging in academic work hold the same norms to validate the social contract.

COVID-19 has changed the face of education. In coping with unprecedented levels of change and schools being forced into distanced learning, educators have created social media groups focused on such topics as pandemic pedagogy to share resources and ideas, vent frustrations, and connect with each other in a time of involuntary social distancing. On my first day as a member of the Facebook group named “Pandemic Pedagogy,” I saw a post by David Levy¹, who wrote, “What is your best plagiarism story? I had a PR exec in an MBA class; when confronted she said, ‘I understand that you have an issue here; now how can we work to resolve this?’” (Pandemic Pedagogy, 2020).

Hundreds of stories filled the feed, and several days later, I was left wondering why the problem of plagiarism continues to exist if educators are constantly confronting those who plagiarize. This article uses Integrative Social Contract Theory (ISCT; Donaldson & Dunfee, 1999) to seek an answer to this question. The thread started by Levy on March 21, 2020, at 10:07 a.m. in the Facebook group Pandemic Pedagogy (with more than 30,000 members) is both the inspiration and data source for this piece. I recognize that using social media posts as sources of data brings with it additional limitations, but in this case, the publicly shared experiences affirm the need for this piece.

Snelson (2016) reported that academic research utilizing social media—and especially Facebook content—has “entered the mainstream of academic literature” and that “social media research is emerging as a field of study in its own right” (p. 11). Grounded in the traditions of qualitative research, this study used a passive analysis approach in which the posts were observed without actively participating in generating content (Franz et al., 2019). As the posts were shared publicly and not solicited by the author, specific consent from each participant was not required (Eysenbach & Till, 2001; Franz et al., 2019); however, permission was obtained from the author of the original post.

The data for this study were extracted from a single discussion embedded within the Pandemic Pedagogy group on Facebook (<https://www.facebook.com/>

¹ David Levy is the Director of the Center for Sustainable Enterprise and Regional Competitiveness and a Professor of Management at UMass Boston. He has granted permission to use his post.

groups/pandemicpedagogy1/about/). Each post in the discussion board thread was expanded by clicking “See More,” “View previous comments,” and “View # more reply(ies)” and then saved as a PDF. The PDF of all the posts was then read multiple times and imported into NVivo, where *a priori* codes specific to ISCT were applied. The application of ISCT to the existing public data reduced the likelihood of any researcher bias skewing the data through leading interview protocols or nonverbal communication. Participants in the Pandemic Pedagogy group had the option not to post a story when they read Levy’s post, and the size of the group itself, over 30,000 members, suggests that the nearly 700 comments came from a much smaller subset of members (no more than 2.3%). This small number indicates that the posts were voluntary, and embedded within that small percentage exists the limitation common to qualitative research—the lack of broad generalizability to a whole population. Specifically, the posts only represent the experiences of those who posted them. The individuals who chose to participate in the Pandemic Pedagogy group share an identity of “educator” and the common experience of teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic.

The technique used to obtain and analyze these data came with specific limitations, chiefly that all the participants creating the posts that became the data for the study had to self-select as educators and then be approved by the seven administrators of the Pandemic Pedagogy group. Beyond this, to even know about the Pandemic Pedagogy group, an individual had to have a Facebook account and have chosen to use it during the COVID-19 crisis. Further, individuals might choose to exaggerate or distort experiences based on conscious or subconscious editing and self-censorship. Each of these limitations might have impacted the representativeness of the collected data. Even with these limitations, the voluntary posts shared by educators serve as a rich data source to understand better the collective problem of plagiarism.

Why Integrative Social Contract Theory?

To understand why ISCT applies to the persistent problem of plagiarism, I must explain the theory, but first, I contend that academic work holds within it a social contract. Whether an educator or school expressly asks a student to sign a statement about academic integrity, an educator assigning work assumes that the student understands that the work submitted will be original and created by the student. Because the social contract exists in academic writing, then the concept of plagiarism, an individual submitting the words or ideas of another as if they were his or her own, can be framed as a violation of this social contract.

Donaldson and Dunfee (1994) developed their ethical decision-making model to reflect how decisions impact communities and larger moral spaces. The ISCT model integrates the idea of norms and of moral free space that accounts for situations where no consensus of correct behavior exists (Donaldson & Dunfee, 1994, 1999; Dunfee, 2006). When no shared consensus of correct behavior exists, then the individuals exist in a moral free space where individuals or groups can develop their own moral rules as long as they are consistent with the larger norms of a community. The ISCT model includes two other requirements for engaging in a social contract: exit and voice (Donaldson & Dunfee, 1999). Together, the concepts of exit and voice represent the notion of consent, essential for entering into an agreement or contract. According to the ISCT model, individuals can only enter into a social contract voluntarily; they cannot be coerced.



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For an individual to participate in a social contract, he or she must have the ability to exit the contract or not participate. Within the context of plagiarism, an author has the ability not to write the paper. This may not truly represent an ability to exit, as the negative consequence for not writing a paper may be too costly, and therefore the author may not truly have the ability to exit. The second requirement consists of voice, where the individual can seek to change the norm. Again, an author may have the technical ability to apply to the Center on Publication Ethics (COPE) or other arbiters of what constitutes plagiarism, but the likelihood of an individual changing the larger group's conceptualization of plagiarism is limited.

ISCT then appears to apply unevenly in the situation of plagiarism with respect to the authoring of work but consistently to the assigning of papers. Educators can choose to look for plagiarism or not; therefore, the educator has the right to exit. The educator also can change how plagiarism is defined within the context of each assignment, enacting his or her voice in shifting the norm. The difference in the degree to which authors and educators engage in the social contract emphasizes the role power plays in plagiarism (Washington et al., 2017).

What Educators Said in the Feed

Unfortunately, educators who wanted to view plagiarism as a minor issue had no trouble developing posts; in fact, a few people commented on how difficult it was to choose just one example. The data affirmed that educators consistently find plagiarism is a persistent and widespread problem. One said, "It happens so often it is hard to pick one [example]." A number of posts implicated parents or family. One educator reported that a student claimed, "You can't give this paper a C! My mother wrote it, and she's a great writer." Another comment included an example of parents participating in the plagiarism:

Student was supposed to include primary sources from personal interviews.

Quoted material popped up on plagiarism checker. Student denied, saying he had emailed his father, and that was what his father wrote. I disagreed.

Student comes back the next day and says, "I talked to my dad, and he says he's sorry, but he plagiarized what he sent to me."

The parent's engagement in plagiarism, not to mention subversion of his child's education by ghost writing assignments, suggested that the parents and students did not share the norms regarding academic integrity with the educator posting the anecdote.

Not all parents are complicit in the cases shared in the pandemic pedagogy feed; one educator posted,

My favorite is when a student turned in a paper and tried to white out another student's name. When held to the light I could see the other student's name.

I called the parent who stated he was printing it out at home and he couldn't have cheated....then she had to come in and see for herself...mom punished him more than I could for the embarrassment.

Another example was shared by an educator:

I started the meeting by handing over the highlighted essay and the color-coordinated source material. Probably 75% of the paper was not her writing. Her dad picked up the paper, flipped through it, rolled it up, popped her on top of her head with it, and said, "Why have you lied and wasted our time like this"—then stood up, looked me in the eye, and extended his hand for a

shake and said, “I am really sorry about this. I have no excuse for her. Thank you for what you do.”

In these posts, the norms surrounding plagiarism appeared to be shared between the parents and the educator but not with the student.

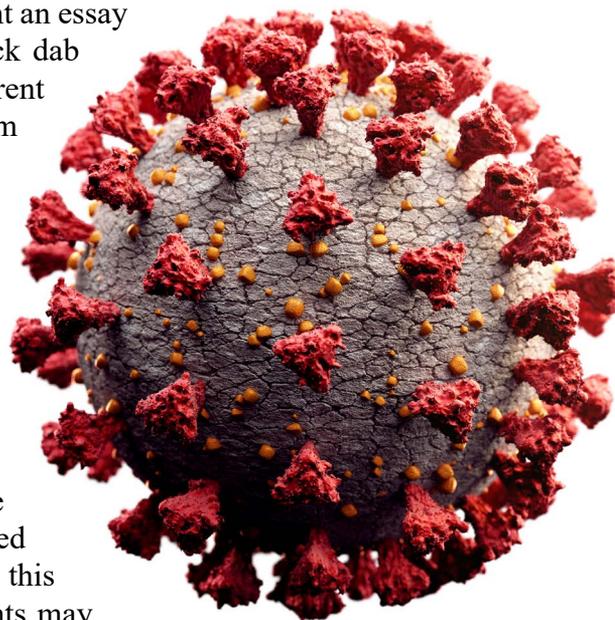
The feed included another example of the absence of a social contract in that the student did not appear to have the ability to opt out or exit the social contract. “I had a student who plagiarized her first paper by taking paragraphs from Internet sites. No ideas were connected—it was awful. Her excuse: ‘I don’t have time to write papers.’” By saying that she did not have time to write papers, this student indicated that she was not valuing the assignment; she did not want to participate. At the same time, she submitted something, which provided evidence that she did not feel she had the option not to participate at all.

Additional evidence of a student’s inability to opt out comes in the form of purchased work. Educators shared several examples of this, such as, “I paid good money for that paper!” and “A student bought an essay and didn’t read carefully enough while editing. Smack dab in the middle of the second page—in an entirely different font—were the words, ‘This essay was purchased from _____.com’.” When students do not have the ability to exit the social contract, then an additional moral question arises: Are they bound by the social contract?

Another theme present in the feed consisted of educating students as to the norms that the educator imposes on the assignment. Some educators shared stories of how they chose to educate rather than punish: “Whenever possible, it’s better to go down the teachable moment path.” Others shared how students misunderstood the nature of plagiarism: “One of my students said, ‘It’s in my own words...I typed it.’” Although the educator may have been presenting this example with a bit of cheekiness, the idea that students may not understand the standard to which their work is being held was present in other posts as well:

I had to get softer on plagiarism my last 2 years.... So I used turnitin [sic] reports early in the process and made them fix everything to eliminate failing marks. I encouraged direct quote and summary over paraphrasing to alleviate patchworking. This helped cut complaints and tears and I got a positive atmosphere back.

The educators who shared stories as responses to Levy’s post included many examples of habitual plagiarism that left a reader unsure how much education was offered to the student regarding the nature of plagiarism and how to avoid it. One educator shared that, after a student plagiarized in a paper, the administrator involved asked him to allow the student another opportunity to complete the assignment: “I was asked to allow him to submit another paper, to do it right. He plagiarized that one, too. Oh well....” This post failed to include details about what was done to instruct the student about plagiarism and how to avoid it. The tone of the post indicated a *laissez faire* attitude of the educator; it rejected the responsibility of coaching the student as to the norms and expectations of the educator and how to meet them.



Why has COVID-19 Elevated the Need for Addressing Plagiarism?

With COVID-19 forcing school districts, colleges, and universities online, educators must tap into alternative forms of promoting student learning and assessing what students learn. Ordinary processes for monitoring the learning that regularly happens in the classroom have moved into an online space with little time to prepare. Many of the assessment tools that educators use to avoid the problem of plagiarism—such as project-based assessments, assignments based on activities, or conversations from class—are now impossible or at least impractical. What remains after some synchronous lessons consists mainly of written work. Not every student plagiarizes, but I can recall, in vivid detail, when I learned about what plagiarism was. I had diligently copied the section on the Badlands of South Dakota from *Funk and Wagnall's New Encyclopedia* for a report. I used an orange construction paper cover and carefully formed my letters on the cover in black crayon. I was embarrassed and ashamed when I saw my teacher's comment that it was not ok to copy from a book, even if I listed the book as a source, and I must redo the assignment putting the ideas into my own words. I learned from that comment what was and was not acceptable. I was not provided formal instruction on plagiarism until years later in high school.

The educators in the Pandemic Pedagogy group shared their stories of plagiarism that ranged from academic colleagues and PhD candidates copying words and ideas to elementary-level stories like my own. These stories were shared in a cathartic way, to ease some of the tensions all are facing in social isolation. When one person in the thread posted, "How is it helpful in this space to tell stories of our students at their worst?" another replied, "It's a bonding activity, and a little time spent focusing on a shared experience that DOESN'T reference a global crisis." A comment the next day added, "These case studies can be instructive about things to look out for. Also, people can't talk in person in groups due to social distancing at this time." The rapid shift to distanced learning has heightened levels of anxiety around many aspects of our lives, and the space that Levy created elevated the topic of plagiarism when educators are likely dealing with this issue more frequently.

How Can ISCT Help School Leaders and Other Educators Address Plagiarism?

Leaders and educators currently face unprecedented levels of change with little time to prepare for the shifts to distanced learning. This raises questions that otherwise might have remained simmering on the back burners in education. Students (and, at times, parents) may not buy into the norms that educators have adopted. This violates the assumed social contract around academic integrity and plagiarism.

In order to engage students (and families) in a social contract, every party must agree to the shared norms, have the ability to exit, and have a way to enact his or her voice to seek a change in the norm. Leaders and educators can do this by clarifying the norms for the school community and for each assignment. Ultimately, however, pushing out the information on norms is necessary but insufficient to develop the social contract. Each person has to agree to the norms, or at least to their value. With social distancing, this may be accomplished via webinars or other virtual platforms where students and families can provide thoughts and concerns back to school personnel.

The ultimate goal is to "inspire a shared vision" (Posner & Kouzes, 1990, p. 207) more than just to push the educator's norm onto the students and families. The shared norm must be uncoerced if it is to be binding. Part of this may consist

of embedding the reasons behind not plagiarizing, the hypernorm of respecting an individual's property right to their ideas or published words, or the moral code of not misrepresenting authorship into very early curricula. Schools can integrate these ideas across disciplines rather than segregating them into a separate space or special lesson taught only by the library media specialist. Infusing the norms throughout the school helps to clarify the norms to everyone in the school community.

Finally, school leaders can support educators in how to maximize the teachable moment when in this new distanced-learning model. Leaders can create a library of asynchronous resources that educators can tap into when they need to confront instances of plagiarism. These resources can include conversation starters that respect the age and developmental level of the student involved as well as a mechanism to record the incident so that, if a pattern of habitual plagiarism begins to develop, it can be addressed differently. In some cases, plagiarism may involve a knowledge or skill issue, but when an educator must address a student (or family) who has not agreed to the school's norms, the educator will need different tools to navigate the moral free space and reengage the student into a social contract.

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Teacher and Parent Perspectives of the Online Learning Environment Due to COVID-19

By Lisa Midcalf and Patricia Boatwright

School closings due to COVID-19 brought the online learning environment to the forefront of education. This new “classroom” created many challenges for both teachers and parents. This study reveals the challenges of online teaching and learning. Perspectives held by both teachers and parents should be taken into consideration by schools when developing an action plan for potential online learning situations such as the ones brought on by COVID-19.

At the beginning of 2020, teaching and learning were turned upside down when COVID-19 started to spread through the United States. In March, drastic measures were taken that would plot a new course in education for teachers, parents, and students. Schools were closing, and many teachers were given between 24 and 72 hours to prepare to teach totally online. No one thought that the transition from a physical classroom to an online learning environment would be seamless, but teachers quickly pulled together to change their methods of teaching to be as effective as possible. After several weeks of schools being transformed to online learning environments, many questions were being raised by both teachers and parents about student learning. The researchers thought it would be beneficial to the education community to hear from teachers and parents about their experiences during this uncertain time in education.

Literature Review

Overview

Although many aspects of teaching remained the same during the 20th century, the development of technology has vastly changed the way educators communicate, learn, and engage with one another in the last 20 years. As a result, teaching in the 21st century has also changed. One of these changes has been the addition of online distance education, specifically the proliferation of virtual schools in K–12 settings. Clark (2001) defined a virtual school as “an educational organization that offers K–12 courses through Internet or Web-based methods” (p. 1). These programs allow students to learn, at least partially, through online delivery of content and instruction with some element of student control over time, place, path, and/or pace.

Research has suggested that online instruction has the potential to transform student learning and outcomes through flexible content and instructional delivery (Barbour & Reeves, 2009; Means et al., 2010). A prominent feature of online environments is the ability to present content and instruction in multiple ways, including personalizing instruction for each student’s unique learning needs. For example, the combination of audio, video, and text has the potential to provide students, especially those with disabilities, with greater access to curricula. Likewise, in the real-time nature of synchronous learning, teachers have the increased ability to monitor student progress with immediate access to performance data. In theory, such access allows teachers to customize the pace and focus of instruction to each student’s unique learning needs (Smith & Harvey, 2015).

Online education in K-12 settings has increased considerably in recent years, but is this to every student's advantage? For some students, online courses can be beneficial to help them learn at their own pace, select different locations to do their work, and choose flexible times to complete assignments. However, although online courses can boost academic achievement, they can also hinder student learning and prevent some students from experiencing a classroom environment that benefits them most. Ultimately, some learn best in a face-to-face environment, communicate poorly online, and lack the discipline and time-management skills needed to succeed in online courses (Sorenson, 2012).

Retention Rates

Online courses have a 10% to 20% higher failed retention rate than traditional classroom environments (Herbert, 2006). Totally, 40% to 80% of online students drop out of online classes (Smith, 2010). In spite of the advantages of this new learning opportunity, without supervision from either their parents or teachers, K-12 students usually fail to finish online course programs. Failure to finish courses may be due to such reasons as lack of interest or confidence, the mismatch between online materials and students' learning paths, or even their parents' perspectives of no occurrence of immediate grade improvements (Li et al., 2020). Results from a study by de la Varre et al. (2014) indicated that the reasons given by students tended to fall within the following five categories: scheduling and time constraints, academic rigor and motivation, technology problems, problems with online medium and lack of teacher immediacy, and parental influences.

Implementation and Isolation

Online programs appear to lead to poor results not because of inherent problems with online instruction but because of poor implementation. In a report from the National Center for Education Statistics, Queen and Lewis (2011) found that only 70% of school districts checked attendance, 56% monitored log-on activity, and 49% monitored time spent online. Barth (2013) believed this low level of attention to student activity and attendance would likely not occur in a traditional school.

One qualitative study suggested that teachers working in this type of setting experienced a sense of alienation. Teachers mentioned that some of them experienced a sense of disconnection from their students, from fellow teachers, and from their traditional ideas of the teaching process (Hawkins et al., 2012). One reason teachers felt alienated in virtual schools involved the absence of nonverbal communication. Some teachers reported being less certain about students' understanding of subject matter because they lacked feedback in the form of visual cues such as puzzled expressions on students' faces. Teachers mentioned that they enjoyed face-to-face interaction and believed it was an important component of the teaching process. They also reported a sense of isolation because they lacked opportunities to interact with other teachers.

Inequity in Schools and Disadvantaged Youth

Studies have indicated that online learning has a modest positive impact on some students while other students may underperform (Barth, 2013; Means et al., 2010). Students in traditional schools outperformed their counterparts in virtual schools in every case (Molnar et al., 2019). Another concern relates to the education of disadvantaged youth. Skeptics believe that online education prevents these youth from improving academically and creates inequity (Morgan et al., 2015). Toch (2010) contended that



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education programs that help disadvantaged youth, such as Uncommon Schools, KIPP, and Achievement First, experience success as a result of high levels of contact between pupils and teachers, which increase support and learning opportunities. Many virtual schools lack this level of interaction. According to Morgan et al. (2015), relying heavily on virtual schools to educate disadvantaged students will likely backfire. Although Toch (2010) acknowledged that technology is important, he contended the more disadvantaged the students, the more they need a physical place to go to for school. Many disadvantaged youth come from dysfunctional, violent settings and need social and emotional support, a type of support difficult to provide online. Therefore, the best way to integrate technology for disadvantaged students will likely be with the guidance of a teacher at a brick-and-mortar school. In such a setting, instructors trained to work with these students can provide the emotional guidance they need and include technology to promote academic gains.

Lack of Online Skills

Unlike in traditional educational settings, where learners are often passive receivers of information provided by instructors, learners in online education need to be active learners who have more control over their learning process (Reigeluth & Karnopp, 2013). Research studies on factors influencing learners' decisions to drop out or persist in online learning indicated that (a) learner characteristics; (b) external issues such as scheduling conflicts, family issues, financial problems and so on; and (c) internal issues such as social integration, academic integration, technological issues, and lack of motivation were potential factors in learners' decisions to drop out (Levy, 2007; Park & Choi, 2009). Many such factors were derived from the unique characteristics of online learning and also can be addressed by learners' self-regulated learning ability. For example, self-regulated learners can manage their time and effort in order not to have scheduling conflicts, regulate their motivation by setting up goals and rewards, or seek appropriate help to solve issues in technology. In learner-centered instruction, such as online instruction, learners inevitably have more control over their learning, so it is essential for them to self-regulate to have more successful learning experiences.

Purpose of the Present Study

The purpose of this study was to reveal the experiences of teachers and parents during school closings due to COVID-19. These experiences included teaching challenges, learning challenges, student engagement, and support systems. The findings of this study are the result of anonymous electronic surveys completed by K-12 teachers and parents. The perspectives revealed through this study may be used as guiding topics for future preparation of K-12 schools and teacher preparation programs relative to the creation of effective online learning environments.

Method

Participants

The participants of this study included 40 current teachers ranging from preschool to Grade 12, as well as 35 parents with at least 1 child participating in an online learning environment due to school closings (see Appendix A). The participants represented a variety of school districts nationwide. The exact district and state of each participant are unknown because the survey was posted on the social media sites of the researchers and was anonymous. The only identifying factors of the

participants evolve from teachers indicating the grade and content they taught and parents indicating the grade level(s) of their child(ren) participating in the online learning environment.

Data Collection and Analysis

Two online surveys were created and posted on the researchers' social media sites. The teacher survey consisted of seven questions, and the parent survey consisted of five questions (see Appendix B). The first two questions of the teacher survey and the first question of the parent survey were used for demographic data regarding teacher's grade and content and child(ren)'s grade level(s). No other demographic data were collected because the surveys were taken anonymously. The remaining survey questions were used to determine teachers' and parents' perspectives regarding the current online learning environment due to COVID-19 school closings.

Data were collected over 1 week. Researchers coded and organized each answer to a question based on key words or concepts. Categories representing the overarching concepts were then created for each question. Outlying answers were disregarded because the researchers were looking for patterns within the group of answers.

Results

The results revealed that the perspectives of teachers and of parents regarding the current online learning environment had many similarities. The data showed the following perspectives.

Teacher Survey

Most Challenging Part of Teaching Online

Communication with parents and/or students (n = 12). Several of the teachers believed that getting in touch with parents and/or students was particularly difficult. One Grade 6 math teacher attributed the lack of communication with students to the fact that "my students are not logging in." A Grade 6/7 science teacher agreed: "Trying to communicate with students who will not check email or log into their school accounts is frustrating." One kindergarten teacher expressed her concern about the effectiveness of "communicating to parents the expectations of eLearning." A Grade 5 teacher's concern regarding lack of communication was due to "not being able to help [students] to the fullest."

Lack of technology/Internet (n = 8). The lack of technology, especially access to the Internet, was a major concern for many teachers across the country, particularly for those serving students who lived in poverty areas. One middle school teacher wrote, "Many of [my students] don't have Internet access." A Grade 3 teacher indicated, "Most of my students have extremely limited access to devices, technology, and wireless." One Grade 1 teacher's school was not using Internet for the following reason: "I teach in a Title 1 school so our students do not have the technology to do online learning. They are doing packets by hand." Sometimes it was not the lack of technology knowledge on the part of the student but of the parent. "Parents are not understanding the Google classroom," stated a Grade 2 teacher.

Students not doing work (n = 8). Teachers in all grades seemed to be frustrated by the lack of work being turned in. "Participation," "getting kids to do the work," and "[students] not doing the work" populated a thread of responses for this question.



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Most Rewarding Part of Teaching Online

Improvement of teaching (n = 9). Some teachers embraced the situation to improve on their style of teaching. A high school math teacher believed she could have “more creative lessons,” while a Grade 5 and a Grade 6 teacher both sensed they were being stretched to “think outside of the box.” One middle school teacher saw this online environment as a “challenge to improve,” while a Grade 2 teacher was enjoying “learning a new way of teaching.”

Seeing students thrive (n = 7). Although some teachers indicated the lack of work on the part of the student as most challenging, some believed their students were excelling. “Dedicated,” “excited,” “taking initiative” were words used to describe students whom they felt were thriving in the online environment. A middle school science teacher delighted in “seeing students do things without direct assistance.”

Teacher appreciation (n = 3). Three teachers believed parents were more understanding of what teachers go through every day now that they had to oversee their child’s education. One teacher indicated that “parents are seeing the value of teachers,” while another noted “more recognition of the value teachers bring to the classroom.”

Biggest Challenges for Students

Disconnect with teacher and teaching (n = 14). Over one-third of the participants believed that students were having a difficult time with learning due to the lack of “face-to-face help.” Math teachers in particular noted the disconnect because “we are not there to walk them through the problems.” Other content teachers believed that students struggled due to the “lack of instant help.” A Grade 5 teacher indicated that the students were not “fully understanding [the material] based on what they read, and [did not] have their teacher there to reassure them.”

A Grade 7 math teacher found that “explaining problems via video” was not as beneficial as having the students in the classroom.

Adjusting to online learning environment (n = 14). Many differences exist between the classroom environment and the online learning environment. Teachers noticed that students were struggling in several areas once they were in the online learning environment. One kindergarten teacher found “transitioning [her] kindergarten students to online” was quite the challenge. Other early childhood teachers indicated that students were having difficulty with “adjusting to a new routine,” “staying focused,” and

“staying motivated.” A Grade 5 math/ELA teacher compared the distractions at school to the distractions of home: “The home environment has different distractions— instant technology and siblings!” General time management seemed to be a concern because students “thought this online learning was going to be easy.”

Lack of resources (n = 12). The lack of resources fell into three areas: (a) parental support, (b) technology, and (c) tools used for learning activities. Teachers questioned how much parental support students were receiving not only to do the assignments but also to get the assignments submitted. Another concern teachers had was the lack of technology, especially with minimal Internet access. Finally, teachers expressed that students may not have the resources needed to learn some of the content adequately. For

“
A prominent feature of online environments is the ability to present content and instruction in multiple ways, including personalizing instruction for each student’s unique learning needs.
”

example, a Grade 6/7 science teacher thought learning would be difficult for students who were “trying to learn science without the proper tools at home.”

Biggest Challenges for Teachers Going Back to the Classroom

Establishing routines (n = 26). “Getting back into the groove,” “forming routines again,” and “transitioning to the school expectations and pacing” were the common thread answers for this question. As one Grade 2 teacher noted, “Getting back into the routine will be a struggle. It’s a challenge after 8 or 9 weeks of summer, but this is going to be almost 5 months out of the classroom!”

Gap in learning (n = 10). Many teachers pointed out that they fear that most students will need help catching up on the material they did not learn in the online environment. A Grade 2 teacher wrote, “I feel like next year’s group of students may not be fully prepared for second grade. I will be doing some backtracking, like every grade level, and may not ever catch the students up by the end of the year.” A Grade 1 teacher made a distinction between who may need help and who will not: “[There will be] a gap between students who have support and help at home versus the ones who do not and are already behind.” Another elementary teacher emphatically wrote, “Regression! Especially in reading.”

Grading of Assignments

Assignments not turned in (n = 24). Sixty percent of the teachers responded that students were not turning in any work to be graded. One Grade 1 teacher noted that, when work is not turned in, there is “no clue on how the students are doing.” Many teachers were concerned that some of their students “have not even logged into the classroom.” A Grade 6/7 science teacher responded that only “30% of my students have turned in assignments.” Similarly, a Grade 2 teacher noted that “only 50% of the class has turned in assignments.”

Parental help (n = 6). There was a mix of responses regarding the amount of parental help given on assignments. Some teachers believed not enough help was being given while others believed too much help was being given. A high school math teacher summed it up quite nicely: “Integrity is difficult to determine in the online environment.”

Parent Survey

Biggest Challenges for Parent or Child

Time to help (n = 10). Parents indicated that time was the biggest challenge they were encountering when their child needed help. Many of the parents stated they worked full-time, either outside the home or, now, from home. As one parent of a first grader mentioned, “I am not as available as I would like to be since I am juggling work and schooling my child.”

Technology (n = 8). Just as teachers were concerned with technology being a challenge, parents also thought technology was a challenge. Many districts continued using Chromebooks, and parents did not know “how that technology works.” One parent did not know “where to find assignments,” while another was frustrated with “figuring out Zoom meetings.” Internet availability was also a concern mentioned among the parents.

Learning concepts (n = 5). This answer actually was more about parents learning concepts than the student doing so. A Grade 4 parent said the challenge was

“remembering skills/facts that I haven’t used in decades!” Middle school and high school parents indicated the following: “I’m having to learn [Algebra 1] in order to teach the lesson.” “All of a sudden I’m helping with Geometry and Calculus! I don’t know the answers!”

Student Learning: Better or Worse

Sixty percent of parents (n = 21) believed their child(ren) was/were not learning as much in the online learning environment. One parent indicated that his child “needs direct instruction from a teacher,” while another expressed, “I don’t have the proper training to teach.” Self-teaching seemed to be a concern of many parents who noted that students had “too much to figure out on their own.” One parent summed it up: “Nothing replaces the interaction of the school environment.”

Some parents (n = 11) believed that their child(ren) was/were maintaining or doing better in the online learning environment. One parent asserted there were “less distractions at home,” while another wrote that her child was “already a strong student” and that the transition to online learning “was very easy.”

Support from School/Teacher

Eighty percent of parents (n = 28) believed that they were receiving adequate support from their child’s school or teacher. Only 7% (n = 7) believed that they were not receiving adequate support.

Time Spent on Schoolwork

Seventy-seven percent of parents (n = 27) noted that the time their child spent on schoolwork was adequate. Nine percent (n = 3) thought the amount of time spent on schoolwork was excessive, whereas 14% (n = 5) indicated a minimal amount of time was spent on schoolwork.

Discussion

Based on the findings of this study, it appeared that both teachers and parents were concerned about the outcomes from the online learning environment that was implemented so quickly when schools were closed due to COVID-19. Many of these concerns, particularly those related to technology, time, communication, and motivation, are supported in previous research studies (Levy, 2007; Park & Choi, 2009; Reigeluth & Karnopp, 2013; Sorenson, 2012). This online learning environment has affected the way school leaders think regarding learning. The following questions need to be considered if the online learning environment becomes the fallback plan when schools may close again for an extended period of time.

Questions

Question 1: What training needs to be put into place for teachers so that they are equipped to adapt their face-to-face teaching to the online learning environment?

Many South Carolina universities offer a technology course as a part of their education program (e.g., Clemson University, 2020; Coastal Carolina University, 2020; Francis Marion University, 2020; Furman University, 2019). One of the objectives of this course is to teach preservice and inservice teachers how to use technology in their physical classrooms. However, research suggests that

these learning experiences alone may not be sufficient for developing effective online teachers (Archambault, 2011; Rice & Dawley, 2009). Teachers must have specific knowledge of pedagogy, content, and technology, as well as an understanding of how these elements interact to help them teach in virtual environments (Basham et al., 2013). Roblyer (2006) found that successful virtual schools train teachers extensively, and some programs even include a supervised teaching session with a mentor, providing teachers an opportunity to learn valuable online skills. This training is indispensable because good teachers in brick-and-mortar schools will not necessarily perform effectively online.

Both teachers and parents were concerned about the outcomes from the online learning environment that was implemented so quickly due to COVID-19.

Question 2: What accommodations will be given to students who lack technology, particularly Internet access?

According to a Pew Research Center analysis of 2015 Census Bureau data, approximately 15% of U.S. households with school-age children lack high-speed Internet access. Some teachers in our study indicated that their students worked on assignment packets that the parents either picked up or received via mail instead of being in the online learning environment. This solution is one to be considered by all schools—not that all students need packets, but can packets be sent to individual students who may not have Internet access? All students need to be able to learn when schools are closed, so parents should be assured that their child will have equal access to the learning others receive.

Question 3: How can schools better equip parents for the online learning environment?

Communication by schools, teachers, and parents is key to success. In this study, both teachers and parents voiced frustration about the lack of communication between and among all parties. School leaders need to establish expectations for all involved, and those expectations need to be clearly communicated. Just as an emergency plan is in place for certain situations in school buildings, an emergency online learning environment plan should be developed, communicated, and followed.

Limitations of the Study

Lack of Prior Research

Although the topics of online learning and the online learning environment are not new to researchers, no research was found regarding the nationwide shutdown of schools due to COVID-19 and its impact on the effectiveness of online learning. Because of the lack of research, the researchers relied on studies regarding online education and its effect on student learning for the underpinnings of this study.

Small Sample Size

The sample size for this study was small: Only 40 teachers and 35 parents filled out the surveys. Those are small numbers when compared to the thousands of teachers and parents who quickly had to adapt to the online learning environment.

However, within this small sample, many of the answers given by both teachers and parents were similar, leading the researchers to wonder if these answers would remain similar with a larger sample size.

Self-Reported Data

The surveys only recorded self-reported data. The researchers depended on the accuracy of all the given answers. Due to the anonymity of self-reporting, the researchers did not have the opportunity to ask follow-up questions that may have helped with understanding the participants' perspectives.

Future Research

Much can be learned regarding the impact of COVID-19 on education. Education's future will be shaped by the following research questions: How did the online learning environment change teaching practices? What effects did online learning have on student achievement? What kinds of students flourished in the online learning environment? What training should teachers and preservice teachers be given that will prepare them to be effective teachers—not only in the classroom but also in the online learning environment? Questions such as these are only the beginning of what we can learn. The face of education has been changed forever by COVID-19. What we learn and do from here and into the future will determine what the face of education will look like for years to come.

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Appendix A Teacher and Parent Demographics

Teachers

Grade Level	# of Teachers	Grade Level	# of Teachers
4 K	1	4/5	1
K	3	5	6
1	2	6	2
1/2	1	6/7	2
2	3	7	1
3	5	8	2
3/4	2	9-12	4
4	4	Not given	1

Parents

Parent	Grade of Child(ren)	Parent	Grade of Child(ren)	Parent	Grade of Child(ren)
1	1, 4	13	5, 7, 11	25	4K, 1, 9
2	2	14	4	26	8
3	1	15	3, 7	27	7, 8
4	K, 8	16	4K, 5, 9	28	9
5	4	17	K	29	1
6	K, 2, 5	18	7, 10	30	12
7	4	19	1, 2, 2, 6	31	9
8	6, 7	20	11	32	6, 8
9	4	21	7, 12	33	5, 9, 11
10	1	22	7	34	1, 5
11	5, 11	23	11	35	4K, 1
12	5, 7, 9	24	9, 12		

Appendix B Survey Questions

Teacher Questions

What grade do you teach?

What content area(s) do you teach?

What has been the most challenging part of teaching online?

What has been the most rewarding part of teaching online?

What do you believe has been the biggest challenge for your students regarding learning in an online environment?

What do you believe is going to be the biggest challenge you will face once you get back into the classroom?

Parent Questions

What grade is your child in? Please list all the grades if you have more than one child.

What has been the most challenging part of having your child(ren) taught in an online environment?

Do you feel that your child is learning as well in the online environment as he/she learns in the physical classroom? Why or why not?

Do you feel you are getting adequate support from your child's school/teacher during this time of online teaching? (Yes/No)

The amount of time my child is spending on school work each day is . . . (Minimal, Adequate, Excessive)

Cultural Relevancy Trumps Ethnicity: A Descriptive Overview of a Culturally Responsive Framework

By Loretta Johnson-Smith

Through the exploration of Zaretta Hammond's (2015) book, Culturally Responsive Teaching and The Brain: Promoting Authentic Engagement and Rigor Among Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students, the author reveals how the Ready for Rigor framework equips teachers with resources to teach diverse students effectively. This framework description provides an overview, goals, specific personal examples, and outcomes of the framework while addressing the question, "To what extent does the ethnicity of a teacher have an impact on the students he/she teaches?" Based on Hammond's premise, ethnicity does not have primary influence on student learning. Moreover, teachers are encouraged to use Hammond's framework to implement culturally responsive teaching practices with fidelity to have the greatest impact on student achievement.

Once believed that ethnicity played a critical role in teaching students effectively. This belief began in Grade 6 when I experienced the six-period schedule. There, I started to compare one teacher with the next. My history teacher, Mrs. Barris, a Black woman, had stern disciplinary practices and knew how to keep even the roughest bunch of students in line. Down the hall was my mathematics teacher, Ms. Hayes, a White woman who struggled daily to teach a 50-minute class period. This notion of *ethnicity matters* developed further as I embraced my journey to become a teacher. As a student teacher, I was placed at a high school with Ms. Wyant, an interracial woman of Black and Hawaiian descent, as my master teacher. Her math class consisted of mostly Black and Brown students. Alongside me stood another student teacher, Mr. Kobblec, who was a White man. As the semester progressed, students vocalized how they preferred Ms. Wyant and me as their teachers rather than Mr. Kobblec. I initially thought that they were giving him a hard time due to his ethnicity and lack of relatability. But I later learned that it was more so his relatability and not solely his ethnicity that hindered his relationship with students.

As we know, schools are comprised of many students and teachers from varying ethnicities, cultures, and backgrounds. For example, public schools in the United States include students in prekindergarten through Grade 12 who are 49% White, 15% Black, 26% Hispanic, 5% Asian/ Pacific Islander, 1% American Indian/Alaska Native, and 3% two or more races (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019). The ethnicity breakdown for U.S. public elementary and secondary teachers shows 80% White, 7% Black, 9% Hispanic, 2% Asian, less than 1% Pacific Islander and American Indian/Alaska Native, and 1% two or more races (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019). Thus, imbalances between the ethnicities of teachers and the students they serve are obvious. Kanjufu (2002) once argued that the diverging ethnicities between student and teacher result in achievement gaps. Following, Kunjufu (2011) articulated gender differences and the effect of gender when teaching Black male students. Although these factors are noteworthy, rather than focusing on a single gender, racial, or ethnic group, Ladson-Billings (2014) demanded that

educators must consider the global identities that are emerging in the arts, literature, music, athletics, and film to reach youth more effectively; she noted the “shifts of identity that now move us toward a hybridity, fluidity, and complexity never before considered in schools and classrooms” (Ladson-Billings, 2014, p. 82). Embracing the physical, social, emotional, and cultural elements of a child, the Ready for Rigor framework was birthed.

Based on the Ready for Rigor framework developed by Zaretta Hammond, the ethnicity of the teacher does not solely impact students’ academic performance. Instead, in her book, *Culturally Responsive Teaching and The Brain: Promoting Authentic Engagement and Rigor Among Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students* (2015), Hammond asserted it is the teachers’ cultural awareness, learning partnerships, information processing techniques, and establishment of learning environments suited for a community of learners that promote students’ success; these four components are what shape the Ready for Rigor framework. “This simple framework organizes key areas of teacher capacity building that set the stage for helping students move from being dependent learners to self-directed, independent learners” (Hammond, 2015, p. 16). This framework encourages ethnicity awareness as a means for teachers to become culturally in tune to teach diverse learners in efforts to close the achievement gap.

As portrayed earlier, ethnicity denotes belonging to a social group that has common national or cultural traditions, whereas culture involves the customs, behaviors, arts, and practices of a social group. In developing an understanding of these two concepts, a teacher should become culturally responsive. Ladson-Billings (1995) said that the term “culturally responsive” suggests a “synergistic relationship between home/community culture and school culture” (p. 467). In becoming a culturally responsive educator, the teacher embraces the whole child in efforts to reduce the achievement gap. Hammond (2015) described the irony of this problem by stating that “we often talk about the problem of the achievement gap in terms of race—racial relations, issues of oppression and equity—while ironically the solutions for closing students’ learning gaps in the classroom lie in tapping into their culture” (p. 21). Accordingly, culture, not ethnicity, has direct influence on student learning. In this article, I examine the Ready for Rigor framework’s goals, resources, and outcomes as they relate to culture’s impact on student learning.

Ready for Rigor

The goal of the Ready for Rigor framework is to support teachers as they make learning more accessible and comprehensible for students. This framework presents resources and strategies for teachers and students to thrive in the classroom:

The Ready for Rigor frame attempts to provide some insight into how we can help students acquire and use their natural, culturally grounded cognitive resources. In addition, it illuminates the connection between culture, schooling, and the larger dynamics of race, class, and language in society that shape the educational experiences and outcomes of many students of color and English learners. (Hammond, 2015, p. 6)

Through the connection of personal and societal experiences, past and present, students are able to learn new educational content by using familiarities within their lives. The goal of Hammond’s framework is “...to help educators understand how to operationalize culturally responsive teaching, especially in service of our most vulnerable and underserved students” (Hammond, 2015, p. 5). With this approach,

teachers tap into students' cultural being as a means to promote students' academic growth. At the end, with this framework, the goal is to assist teachers in helping dependent learners learn how to learn (Hammond, 2015).

Theory into Practice

In order to teach diverse students efficiently, teachers must gain a deep understanding of themselves as well as of the students they serve. Hammond (2015) provides a plethora of resources that challenge teachers' instructional practices as they do so; these practices are embedded within the Ready for Rigor framework. Resources include mindfulness reflection protocols, strategies for classroom management, tips to listen with grace, guides to assess classroom climate, a rapport interaction tally tracker, creation of a pact guide, an asset-based feedback protocol, tips to develop a growth mindset, conversation-starter strategies, and classroom aesthetic checklists (Hammond, 2015).

A practice I am proud to say I implemented with fidelity was the Listening with Grace practice (Hammond, 2015). This practice means to give the speaker complete attention by being attentive to the emotions being expressed, resisting judgment, listening with compassion, and encouraging the speaker's cultural way of communicating. For example, at times during instruction, depending on the context, I would suppress my professional tone and use colloquial dialect to relate with my students or get across a mathematical point. Because I am an educator who works at the same school that I once attended, I am familiar with the community and culture. I believe that I share cultural experiences with my Black and Brown students. This practice of connecting culturally has been extremely helpful when teaching the minority groups in my classes.

I also found the four macro-level instructional strategies to be very impactful when teaching. Hammond's (2015) four strategies are

1. Ignite – Getting the brain's attention.
2. Chunk – Making information digestible.
3. Chew – Actively processing new information.
4. Review – Having a chance to apply new learning. (p. 128)

Although I did not call segments of my lessons these exact titles, the process and experience were the same with my students. When planning for instruction, I always incorporated warm-up or motivational tasks to get students' minds into the receptive state to learn. One vivid example of an introductory lesson on exponential functions was when I told the story about rabbits reproducing on a magical island. The story was partially fictional and partially true. Because of the animations, graphics, music, and the fluctuation of my voice, students were at the edges of their chairs, listening attentively. This portion of the lesson ignited students' interest in the content being presented.

Next, because this lesson was an introductory and exploratory, I gave students time to chew on the information given. Hammond (2015) suggested to "insert chew time after 15–20 minutes of instruction in the form of a 5–7 minute break. During the break time students processed what they heard, either with a drawing, in writing with the prompt" (p. 131), and so forth. After I elaborately depicted the rabbit scenario, I gave students unstructured think time. Here, students spoke with one another or completed a rough sketch of what they thought graphically was happening to the rabbits. In addition, to assist students with cognitively processing the quantitative and qualitative information given, I gave students various organizers: t-table, coordinate



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plane, writing prompts, and M & M's as manipulatives to visualize two rabbits and the reproduction cycle. Hammond (2015) called these tools cognitive routine aids. In this lesson, students learned the multiple characteristics of exponential functions.

Last, the class and I engaged in a review game. Here, students sorted various graphs and tables, identifying the similarities and differences between linear, quadratic, and exponential functions. As Hammond (2015) described in her book, the chunking phase is not a direct process for the student but a process the teacher goes through when planning right-sized portions of information. What the teacher says and does impacts learning.

As an educator, I am very mindful of my interactions with students. I take note of what I say and how I say it in an effort to avoid unintended conflict. Although I am intentional with my thoughts and actions toward my students, I sometimes fall short; once a year, I have always had one or two students who developed some sort of tension with me. With hopes of finding a solution, I studied the Mindful Reflection Protocol by Dray and Wisneski (as seen in Hammond, 2015) and noticed six steps toward mindfulness:

1. Explain the attributions that you have about the student.
2. Write out or reflect on your feelings and thoughts when working with the student.
3. Consider alternative explanations by reviewing your documentation and reflections.
4. Check your assumptions. Share your reflection with a colleague, parents, and/or community members.
5. Make a plan.
6. Continuously revisit this process to reassess your attributions and your progress with the students. (pp. 61 – 62)

When looking back on certain situations with students, I can admit that I partially invested in building awareness about my students. During my personal reflection, I replayed classroom outbursts from students: I took notes of when and how the student disrupted the class; I also described the behavior to other colleagues as a means of looking for help. While I did all these steps personally, I did not take time to include the student in this reflection process. Step 3 of this protocol asks teachers to consider alternative explanations by looking at external factors and/or personal factors that could be influencing the student's behavior (Hammond, 2015). Oftentimes, I overlooked the humanity of the student—omitting his or her emotional being; I had forgotten that I was teaching the whole child who had a life outside of the classroom. For this reason, a disconnect occurred between these types of students and me.

In situations such as these, Hammond recommended creating a pact. Hammond (2015) said, "The pact is a formal agreement between teacher and student to work on a learning goal and a relational covenant between them" (p. 94). Pacts are beneficial for building rapport as well as student achievement. To build this pact, Hammond (2015) offered tips to begin the process:

1. Ask the student to identify what he thinks is getting in the way for him around a specific learning target.
2. Together, select a learning target that is small, specific, and significant.
3. Set a deadline for mastering the learning target.
4. Set up benchmarks to check on progress and offer corrective feedback.

5. Share what you are willing to do as the student's ally.
6. Be explicit about your belief in his capacity to master this learning target.
7. Forewarn him that you will ask him to stretch himself and that it will feel uncomfortable.
8. Ask him to explicitly name what he intends to do as part of the partnership to meet this challenge.
9. Create some type of simple ritual to mark the occasion.
10. Write down key agreements and notes from the conversation after you end the meeting with the students. (pp. 95 – 96)

Working with the entire class, I have all students internalize each learning target—meaning they unpack it, set goals to master it, and establish deadlines in relationship to the grading windows. Moreover, as a routine with my students, I have shared my pacing plan, outlined which lessons address specific learning targets, and encouraged all students to do their best on each learning target assessment. As the students' ally, I provided tutoring during lunch and by appointment after school, assigned practice problems via IXL (an online platform), and offered multiple attempts for students to show mastery on learning target assessments by adapting the Mastery Learning and Grading model (Armacost & Pet-Armacost, 2003). In addition, when students demonstrated mastery of content, as a ritual I added their name to an academic recognition wall via an image of a kite titled "Learning Target," with the bows of the kite listing students' names. As you can see, although I strived in building an academic climate, I failed at personalizing students' needs with respect to learning targets. I mainly taught to the whole group and entrusted that students were doing their part. In building a pact, however, Hammond (2015) said to "find a way to organize the classroom schedule so that you can have periodic conferences or check-ins with students" (p. 96). If I continue some of the practices mentioned above but instead structure classes to talk to students individually on a biweekly basis, I should have better success with creating a pact.

Conclusion

With these resources and more, I have found that the Ready for Rigor framework and its resources are most impactful when implemented with fidelity. Student success is not dependent on the ethnicity of the teacher but on the commitment the teacher has to teaching diverse students effectively using culturally responsive teaching practices. Hammond (2015) said,

The trick is to get each movement going independently, then synchronizing them into one rhythmic motion. The practices are only effective when done together. In unison they create a synergetic effect. The Ready for Rigor framework lays out four separate practice areas that are interdependent. When the tools and strategies of each area are blended together, they create the social, emotional, and cognitive conditions that allow students to more actively engage and take ownership of their learning process. (p. 18)

To see such success, teachers should apply one small practice at a time and gradually include more in daily practice. In doing so, teachers—Black, White, Asian, and so forth—can learn more about themselves and their students as they strive to teach multicultural students effectively when using the Ready for Rigor framework and other culturally responsive teaching practices.

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Teacher Attrition: The Impacts of Stress

By Dionna Farmer

Teachers are subject to high amounts of stress because of issues they experience through their work environment. Because education is a profession filled with relationship building, problematic relationships with students and parents can cause teachers undue stress. Teachers are subjected to a myriad of issues, from violence within the classroom to workplace expectations that are beyond the scope of their professional knowledge. Teachers may also experience compassion fatigue and burnout from constantly working with students who have severe issues. Parents and unsupportive administrators are also causing the educational workplace to be stressful and embedding a culture that causes teachers to leave the profession. State and federal policies limit the ability of educators to utilize mental health benefits for situations that they experience as a result of their employment. This research summarizes the extent and scope of how those who work in the field of education are put at risk for mental health issues resulting from stress on the job.

Nationwide in the United States, approximately 20% of teachers will leave the profession by the end of their third year of teaching, and 50% will leave by the end of their fifth year (Boe et al., 2008). With 17% of new teachers leaving after their first year and 10% of veteran teachers (with 10 or more years of experience) leaving the profession annually, significant numbers of classroom teachers are exiting the profession each year and seeking new career paths (Blatt, 2016). According to the United States Labor Department, during the first 10 months of 2018, public school teachers quit at an average rate of 83 per 10,000 each month (Hackman & Morath, 2018). Although this is still low compared to “the rate for American workers overall—231 voluntary departures per 10 thousand workers in 2018—it is the highest rate for public educators since such records began in 2001” (Hackman & Morath, 2018).

Work-related stress is a well-known concept with roots in every facet of a teacher’s workday. Teachers are expected to have constant knowledge of each student’s mental state in order to make necessary referrals. Many administrators are exploiting teachers by unfair treatment and giving staff members more work than they can manage on top of their daily duties (Jacobs & Teise, 2019). When situations arise where students are put in direct danger, teachers are in the forefront of ensuring their safety. Teachers are experiencing compassion fatigue at a level that is unprecedented. The expectations put on educators in their work environment have a direct relationship to the current mental state of educators.

Special educators are at particular risk. The 2012-2013 Teacher Follow Up Survey (TFS) indicated that nearly 20% of teachers in the field of special education either moved schools or left the profession (NCES, 2014). When coupled with approximately 10% of special educators who transfer to general education each year, the numbers are alarming. Kersaint et al. (2007) noted that one significant reason for these departures is the emotional stress involved in teaching special education. Williams and Dikes (2015) confirmed that special education teachers report high levels of both emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. As these feelings are coupled with low levels of personal accomplishment, special education teachers experience burnout at higher rates and more quickly than their general education

peers, likely contributing to their higher rates of turnover (Mitchell & Arnold, 2004; Williams & Dikes, 2015).

The perceptions that teachers have related to working conditions influence positive or negative outlooks at a particular time. Perceptions of working conditions have also been linked to teacher satisfaction (Boyd et al., 2011). Teachers who report more positive working conditions also report greater satisfaction with teaching, while those who report less satisfaction report less than desirable working conditions. This holds true when comparing teachers within the same school (Boyd et al., 2011). Although the correlation of working conditions to satisfaction is not surprising, this serves as a reminder that an individual's perceptions are his or her own reality.

In their 2007 study, Kersaint et al. examined the factors that influenced teachers in Florida who had either left the profession or remained. They identified six factors that influenced teachers' decisions regarding staying or leaving:

- administrative support
- financial benefits
- paperwork/assessment
- family responsibilities
- joy of teaching
- time with family. (p. 508)

Loeb et al. (2005) indicated that the strongest predictor of teacher stress is how a teacher perceives his or her workplace characteristics. Existing research has examined how workplace characteristics, such as administrative support, student behavior, classroom autonomy, teaching conditions, school organization, and professional culture impact teacher turnover (e.g., Boyd et al., 2011; Buckley et al., 2005; DeAngelis & Presley, 2011; Kelly & Northrop, 2015; Tye & O'Brien, 2002). Although these factors can be examined individually, with some having greater impact on individual teachers than others, it is likely that they do not function in isolation from one another. Furthermore, Kukla-Acevedo (2009) stated that workplace characteristics are "driven by administrator behavior" (p. 443), which provides additional evidence of the interconnectivity of these factors. Boyd et al. (2011) stated, "Not surprisingly, schools with more positive working conditions on one dimension also tend to have more positive working conditions [in] other dimensions" (p. 318).

Factors in Perceptions of Working Conditions

School Leadership

Supportive principals are indirectly able to alleviate the stress that their teachers feel (Saekiet al., 2018). Administrative support, as defined by Boyd et al. (2011), is "the extent to which principals and other school leaders make teachers' work easier and help them to improve their teaching" (p.307). A lack of administrative support plays an important role in teacher attrition (Struyven & Vanthournout, 2014). Fifty-one percent of movers indicated that poor administrative support was a reason for dissatisfaction in their previous workplace, while 32% of leavers indicated it as a factor of their dissatisfaction (Ingersoll, 2000). Referring to "executive support," (2013, p. 265), Burke et al. argued that support provided by school leaders strongly impacts a teacher's decision to remain in the profession. Kersaint et al. (2007) also found that a lack of administrative support plays a role in teachers' decision to leave the profession.

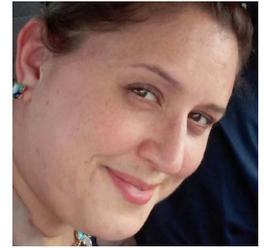
Ladd (2011) utilized the results of a statewide teacher survey in North Carolina to explore the relationship between teachers' perceptions of their working conditions and their departure rates from their schools. The survey examined working conditions by asking teachers about the quality of school leadership, professional development opportunities, opportunities for collaboration, facilities and resources, and growth and leadership opportunities for teachers. Ladd analyzed survey items designed to measure the quality of school leadership, including whether the teachers viewed the administrator(s) as supportive with student discipline and classroom instruction, as well as if they were perceived to be fair with the evaluation process, included teachers in decision making, upheld high expectations of both students and teachers, and were trustworthy. Ladd found that the quality of school leadership was the highest predictor of teacher departure rates of all working-condition variables. Additionally, she found that the quality of school leadership had a stronger effect on teacher stress than the school characteristics of percentage of free or reduced lunch prices or the percentage of students of racial minorities.

Positive Relationships

Burke et al. (2013) found that the most influential factor identified by beginning teachers in their decision to remain in the profession was "student involvement," described as the "extent to which you engage your students" (p. 265). This aligned with existing literature that explored the motivations of those entering the teaching profession, including the desire "to make a difference in the lives of their...students" (p. 265). Individuals who find that their visions of what teaching would be like do not match the reality of their experiences are more likely to leave the profession (Rinke, 2013).

Positive staff relationships have also been found to impact teacher stress, with teachers being more likely to stay in schools in which they engaged in positive relationships. Allensworth et al. (2009) defined positive relationships as those that are "trusting and working" and that allow teachers to feel comfortable engaging in discourse with their peers about their challenges and seeking advice from others. Correspondingly, collegial support and relationships play an important role in teacher attrition (Burke et al., 2013). Collegial support refers to the level of support offered by other teachers within school, which is a great importance to teachers, particularly new and beginning teachers. Similarly, positive relationships within the school setting with colleagues and between individuals who are involved in student learning allow for professional collaboration, which leads to higher levels of stability among a faculty (Burke et al., 2013). One may conclude that when positive relationships and collegial support are missing, the likelihood of teachers moving or leaving increases.

An individual's desire to be liked, accepted, included, and supported is not exclusive to person-group interactions but is also applicable at the person-individual level, defined as the compatibility between an individual and a significant other in his or her work environment. Hargreaves (2001) explained that, although "classroom responsibilities are at the core of teachers' work, it is teachers' relations with other adults that seem to generate the most heightened expressions of emotionality among them" (p. 506). In fact, while many teachers describe their work of teaching as a source of pleasure, negative emotions such as dissatisfaction, anger, frustration, and fear seem to surface more frequently when describing their professional relationships (Hargreaves, 2001). The findings of the study described in this article



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differed slightly from those of Hargreaves (2001). Each of the participants described in detail their interactions with individuals within their new building, primarily their building administrator. However, participants who experienced a strong fit with their administrators expressed positive emotions such as joy, happiness, and relief when describing their new professional relationships.

Mental Health Issues

Teachers have reported increased contact with health providers due to increased disaster exposure attributed to traumatic events such as school shootings and community violence. Schools have increased code-red, active-shooter drills and professional development to teachers related to mental health for children (Green, 2016). For example, after the shooting at Columbine High School in 1999, about 60% of the staff left. High turnover is common after an event such as this because one of the most common ways of coping is to run from a situation.

It is common, furthermore, for those who work in professions that help people to experience compassion fatigue. This type of fatigue is caused by being vested in a situation with high emotion (Hupe & Stevenson, 2019). Compassion fatigue is inevitable among professionals who advocate for children (Hupe & Stevenson, 2019). Educators work daily with children who come to school with a variety of needs. Due to the likelihood of teaching children who have experienced trauma, teachers may acquire indirect symptoms such as interpersonal isolation, diminished professional performance, and behavioral changes. Because of the extreme nature of the needs of many children, educators are vulnerable to experiencing secondary traumatic stress. Teachers who have experienced secondary traumatic stress reported having feelings of self-doubt and blame, restlessness, and haunting imagery of the children (Hupe & Stevenson, 2019).

Stress is considered the main factor contributing to job dissatisfaction, job-related illness, and early retirement. Stress research has focused on identifying specific stressors and the reaction that comes from those stressors (Brenner et al., 1985). Particularly, teachers' stress results from their work responsibilities. This level of stress can also come from work demands that are beyond the scope of their professional understanding (Ekornes, 2017). For example, first-year teachers are evaluated at the same level as a veteran teacher. This can be overwhelming to someone who has just entered the teaching profession. Even with peer support, a new teacher may not understand the acronyms and terms used in conversation with other teachers or administrators. Teachers who repeatedly receive exposure to emotionally charged social situations will experience a feeling of emotional fatigue that will eventually cause them to leave the profession (Schwarzer, Schmitz & Tang, 2000).

The effects of work-related stress are associated with depression, anxiety, muscle pain, headaches, and insomnia (Aznaret al., 2006). A variety of factors within the workplace, such as support, long hours, and student behavior, can contribute to teacher stress (Saekiet al., 2018). Stress is heightened when there is an actual or threatened loss of valued resources. A balanced life between work and home has been identified as a positive resource for individuals looking to abolish stress (Fontinha et al., 2019). Individuals who either take work home or work more than 50 hours per week tend to show less mental well-being on psychological assessments.

Mental Health Assistance for Teachers

Unfortunately, at this time, no bills or policies exist that directly address the need of mental health benefits specifically for teachers. Title XXIX, Chapter 394: Part 1, Florida Mental Health Act addresses the overall needs, assessments, and evaluations of those giving referrals to mental health facilities and eligibility for reimbursement of services. The statute is written in a general format and primarily addresses minors, veterans, and those who are mentally incapacitated.

The United States Congress enacted the Paul Wellstone and Pete Domenici Mental Health Parity and Addiction Equity Act (MHPAEA) of 2008. This federal law requires private health insurance companies to have a parity for mental health and addiction benefits (MHPAEA, 2008). This act addressed the lack of access for mental health benefits by providing the same level of coverage as provided for physical health problems. Several issues exist with his act, however. Those who have medical insurance through a group plan (of 50 or more people) are eligible to utilize mental health benefits. Many teachers opt to utilize their employer's medical insurance plans. Should staff members or educators not opt to sign up for the employer's insurance, they would not be eligible for utilizing the mental health benefits. The MHPAEA does not include the financial issues that come with copayments, deductibles, and utilization limits (Cunningham, 1970) that would cost educators more than they could afford. Teachers hand in more medical insurance claims than people in other professions, often blaming stress as their reason for sick leave from school (Olivier & Venter, 2003).

Other Key Factors in Decisions to Stay or Leave the Profession Assessment and Accountability

In the current movement of high-stakes assessments, one can argue that teachers endure a high amount of stress. Test-based accountability policies have been reported by teachers as associated with high levels of stress. The accountability policies have a direct correlation to negative workforce outcomes (Saeki et al., 2018). Approximately 30% of teachers have experienced clinically significant anxiety specifically related to test-based accountability policies (von der Embse et al., 2015). Teachers in less-typically-tested Grades K-2 also experience a high level of stress. Teachers in state- testing grade levels are expected to abide by accountability policies that require their students to take an informal assessment of their reading and math knowledge (Saekiet al., 2018). Teachers thus work in conditions where student achievement is directly linked to their annual evaluation, and accountability policies that use student test scores to calculate the proficiency of teachers have damaging consequences on the teacher's mental health. Teachers have also become more involved in voicing their concerns regarding educational policy and reform due to the fact that educational policy is swiftly implemented at the district level and has a direct impact on a teacher's work life (Loeb et al., 2013).

Kersaint et al. (2007) found that paperwork and assessment play a role in teacher attrition, particularly within the middle and high school levels. Santoro (2018) explained unprecedented expectations to collect, analyze, and maintain voluminous amounts of data and information and the effects on the teacher workforce. She described this process of intensification as "the increased professional demands added to teachers' workloads without concomitant time provided to incorporate new expectations or any reduction in previous duties" (Santoro, 2018, p. 28). Although some teachers "may accept the intensification of their work when it is held out as a

promise of professionalism” (Santoro, 2018, p. 28), others comply simply to avoid disciplinary action or poor performance evaluations. Regardless, when left to fester, intensification often results in increased feelings of job dissatisfaction and burnout.

Equitable Education

Equitable education is a stress that teachers concede for their students. If primary and secondary education leaves gaps in supporting students, then the students who come from an uneducated background are not going to receive the same educational opportunities as their peers. Teachers are then overloaded to ensure that students who have a weaker educational background are mastering grade-level content (Pachane & Melo Vitorino, 2015). Under ESSA, research-based interventions are required for children who are academically behind their peers. These interventions require implementation by teachers within the classroom, which in turn requires teachers to have not only knowledge of research-based intervention but also an understanding of how to use the intervention and keep records of data each time the intervention is used (Zinskie & Rea, 2016). Ensuring that students from a weakened educational background are mastering grade level content is another example of a stressor for teachers who want their students to succeed but do not have the time to teach content with fidelity.

The ESSA revised and reauthorized the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. It followed a previous reauthorization known as the No Child Left Behind (NCLB). After a decade of NCLB’s education reform policies, which included high-stakes accountability policies of standardized testing, teacher evaluation systems, and changes in collective bargaining agreements, teachers and educational leaders began a grassroots movement to reform education (Zinskie & Rea, 2016).

Parental Involvement

Chavkin (1993) noted a plethora of research that proves a disconnect between what is considered parental involvement and teacher-parent interaction. Dealing with adverse events caused by parents contributes to the mental health strain on teachers (Bauer et al., 2007). Teachers understand that their students are supported when a positive relationship is built between school and home, and thus pressure exists for teachers to build such a relationship with parents so that the student receives optimal academic support at home (Prakke et al., 2007). The strongest predictor of a teacher feeling disconnected from his or her work comes directly from negative relations with parents (Ekornes, 2017). A negative relationship between a teacher and parent directly stresses the education that is provided for students. Research also shows that violence demonstrated toward teachers by parents and/or students impacts the value of instruction that teachers are able to deliver (Fisher & Kettl, 2003).

Discipline

Twenty-two percent of movers and 24% of leavers stated that discipline and behavior issues were reasons for high stress and causes for leaving a school (Ingersoll, 2000). According to Kelly and Northrop (2015), “the most important organizational determinant of attrition is the behavioral climate of the school; teachers are much more likely to leave a school with disruptive, inattentive, or hostile students” (p. 630). Their findings aligned with those of previous researchers (Guarino et al., 2006; Ingersoll, 2001; Kelly, 2004). Teachers also indicated low levels of student engagement and lack of motivation as factors that influenced their level of stress (Tye & O’Brien, 2002). School safety refers to “school conditions that affect the

physical and psychological well-being of students and teachers” (Boyd et al., 2011, p. 308). Safety concerns range from classroom misconduct to violent behavior and/or criminal activity that may result in arrest. Not surprisingly, schools that struggle to maintain a safe school environment have higher levels of teacher stress and turnover.

School Violence

Violence within schools is becoming more and more common. According to the National Center for Education Statistics, 5.8% of the nation’s 3.8 million teachers had been physically attacked by a student (National Center for Education Statistics, 2014). Forty-four percent of teachers who had been victims of physical assault reflected that the attacks resulted in a negative impact on their job performance. In the past 10 years, bills proposed throughout the United States have sought punitive measures toward violent students, but the bills rarely received unified support. For example, a bill proposed through the legislature in Wisconsin was referred to as the Teacher Protection Act. This bill would have allowed teachers to remove a violent student from the classroom setting for up to 2 school days (Will, 2018). Unfortunately, support for this bill was insufficient, and it died during the legislative session prior to making it to the Wisconsin Senate.

Conclusion

The public school system in the United States is charged with providing high-quality education to every student in Kindergarten through Grade 12. To accomplish this tremendous task, an ample supply of skillful, trained individuals willing to serve as teachers (Guarino et al., 2006) is needed. Various factors related to occupational stress have a direct correlation to the supply of qualified teachers who choose to continue in the profession (Saeki et al., 2018). A need exists to provide resources to educators for dealing with job-related stressors. According to a 2015 *Stress in America* survey, only 25.5% of schools offered stress management education to staff. Many districts offer programs that address wellness but only at a basic level of understanding (Lever & Mayworm, 2017).

Daily, teachers ensure the health and safety of students, engage multiple students toward mastery of standards, collaborate with colleagues to create lessons or assessments, submit documentation about student progress, communicate with parents, and attend informational meetings set forth by school administrators. Teachers who encounter high levels of stress from poor work conditions, such as inadequate time for planning and preparation coupled with teaching a heavy workload, have shown increasingly negative health that includes emotional exhaustion (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). This core stress does not include the time that teachers put into involvement on various school committees or after-school tutoring that enhances student achievement and may qualify as a highly effective feature on evaluations. Workplace characteristics such as administrative support, school organization, and professional culture all influence one’s decision about his or her position for the subsequent school year (DeAngelis & Presley, 2011). Ultimately, teachers who believe that their work is meaningless will experience a decline in mental health that will culminate in their leaving the profession (Hupe & Stevenson, 2019).

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A Sharp Contrast: First-Year Teachers With and Without Teacher Preparation

By Mary C. Clement and Jill Cochran

Reaching out to recent college graduates who had pursued teaching jobs, the authors corresponded via email with survey questions to students with whom they had worked. Six teachers responded: Three were fully-certificated teachers who had completed student teaching experiences, and three were college graduates without certification and with little or no teacher education preparation. Their answers about preparedness, stress, and job support represent small case studies of new teachers with varied preparation experiences working in STEM (math and science) fields in elementary and secondary schools.

“I only lasted one year as a teacher. It was probably the hardest year I had ever encountered. I was constantly working, preparing, grading, stressing over the next week’s lesson plans and how I was going to make it interesting and engaging to the students” (First-year high school science teacher with no teacher education preparation).

“My feeling of being prepared was an 8/10. I feel that I was adequately prepared to teach content, manage a classroom, manage time, provide feedback, and create assessments” (First-year Grade 3 math teacher with full teacher certification).

This article addresses the issues faced by beginning teachers in STEM (science, technology, engineering, and math) fields by reviewing email correspondence and survey responses from six recent graduates. Three were fully-certificated and licensed upon completion of their traditional undergraduate teacher education programs, while three others began teaching in private school settings without teacher preparation. Their responses indicated the contrasts between starting a teaching job with and without teacher preparation. Questions about how to increase the importance of teacher preparation are discussed.

Background

In an effort to increase enrollment in math and science teacher education programs at Berry College, a program was initiated and supported by a 2018 Noyce Grant of \$1.2 million. At this small private college in north Georgia, the annual number of student teachers in all programs (elementary, middle, and secondary) was averaging 40, with only 2–3 of those graduates certified in secondary STEM disciplines. In the fall of 2019, as part of the developing STEMTeach program, email surveys were sent to eight new teachers working in the STEM fields to elicit feedback on their preparation to teach. Six teachers chose to complete the surveys. Follow-up email surveys were sent through March 2020. Because of the Coronavirus outbreak, that school year had a unique ending with remote learning, and the last survey questions were not sent.

The survey questions (Appendix) included how graduates found jobs, their induction into their schools, and their perceptions of preparedness in subject content and teaching. Participants were asked about the support received, as well as time and stress management.

In Their Own Words

The fully-certificated teachers had no trouble finding teaching jobs in public schools. One teacher received her job offer in December for the following August. One received her job at the school where she completed student teaching. The third teacher was hired after his first interview.

Of the three non-certificated teachers, two used a for-profit online service, Southern Teachers Agency (southernteachers.com), to find jobs in private schools. The third teacher did not indicate how she found her job opening but wrote, “I felt that they (the school) wanted to hire me but I also went through a very arduous interview process which consisted of four different interviews, a lunch, and a 30-minute demonstration in front of students.”

When asked about perceptions of preparedness to teach, one fully-certificated teacher wrote,

I greatly appreciated my educational psychology and classroom management classes because the strategies that I learned are ones I have to keep in mind every day. I would rate myself an 8 (out of 10) in preparation to teach. I had a ton of classes at the college and practical experiences in a school.

Another fully-certificated student wrote,

I found the classroom management aspect of the teacher education program the most useful. It helped me to prepare for my class before the school year began and allowed me to adjust on the fly this year. Also, the in-depth student teaching that was offered along with great mentoring by my cooperating teacher and supervisor helped tremendously.

The non-certificated teachers could not rate their formal preparation to teach, as two had no teacher education classes and one had only completed a one-semester-hour orientation class. Their comments about preparation in general included the following:

- I do not know much about creating a structured lesson plan, but I have been getting better and now have a system. Classroom management has been OK but could have been better from the start.
- I have been struggling with classroom management and wish I could somehow have practiced it before I started.
- I was probably a 3 or 4 on a scale of 10 to be prepared since I didn't go through any courses.

Regarding content knowledge, all six students indicated confidence in their knowledge of the subject content, math and/or science. However, one fully-certificated teacher wrote, “I am pretty confident in my ability to work with my content area. On the other hand, I wish I had more content-related classes that pertain to teaching strategies and how to differentiate in the content.” This was an indicator that knowledge of the content is not enough, as teachers need specific pedagogical knowledge for that content.

Induction programs and mentoring have been shown to help all new hires, especially if mentors have training in how to help beginning teachers (Kardos, 2004). The teachers in this survey study had a variety of induction experiences, ranging from a highly-supportive program with ongoing professional development to no new teacher induction. Imagine being the new teacher with no teacher preparation who also found that “there was almost no new teacher orientation. I was just kind of thrown into the life of a teacher.”

How stressful did these new teachers find their jobs? Teachers in both categories—certificated and not—reported stress in their jobs. However, contrasts existed. A non-certificated teacher wrote, “The first semester was so stressful and discouraging to me that I was semi-dreading coming back from the Christmas break. I had already pretty much figured out that teaching was not for me, and I was just discouraged.” (Author’s note: She did leave at the end of the first year.) A first-year teacher who completed a year of student teaching in the school where she was hired wrote, “My first semester of teaching was a 3 out of 10 for stress. Having a great team of other teachers helped me to be less stressed and get help when I needed it.”

How did the newly-hired teachers find their schools as workplaces? A fully-certificated teacher wrote, “Our district also lets out early on Wednesdays so that teachers can get the professional development they need and schools can work as a staff to better one another.” That comment contrasted starkly with this comment from a non-certificated teacher: “I feel like I have little to no support from my administration and my mentor teacher. There are only two people with science degrees on staff...so I was roped into being the middle school STEM coordinator.” Loading a new teacher with an additional duty—as opposed to giving teachers time to work together—makes the job even harder. Such overloading can be more common in small and private institutions where non-certificated teachers tend to find teaching positions.

Relating Teachers’ Comments to The Research

Although this article shares only snapshots of the experiences of six first-year teachers, some of their comments do mirror what is known from the research on teacher education. For example, why do seniors in college decide to seek out public or private teaching jobs with little to no preparation in the field and no certification/licensure? Our own students have reported comments and issues to us in the past. Some decided to pursue teaching late in their degree program or post-graduation because they did not know what to do with their chosen major, decided not to go to graduate school in their field, or had heard that “anybody can teach.” Some were encouraged to start teaching and to “pick up” teacher certification as they proceeded, because you can “learn from experience.” Some would have liked to pursue teacher certification but decided too late in their college years to do so. Others, knowing that they wanted to teach early enough in their degree program, still chose not to pursue certification.

Darling-Hammond addressed the indecision surrounding selecting teaching as a career:

Although there are certainly accounts of teachers who have valued their preparation, more popular are stories of teachers who express disdain for their training, suggesting that they learned little in their courses that they could apply to the classroom.... These views have often led to the perception that if there is anything to be learned about teaching, it can be learned on the job, through trial and error if not with supervision.” (2006, p. 6)

Three non-certificated teachers in this study were certainly experiencing trial and error, especially with regard to planning, instruction, and classroom management, key components to quality teaching.

College students, their parents, and society need to know there is a knowledge base of teacher preparation, and it does matter! Teacher educators must also decide, within the confines of their state accreditation, how much teacher education is



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enough to graduate a new teacher ready to go to work. What exactly does a teacher need to know and be able to do to assume the duties of a classroom teacher (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005)? When should additional education be added to the teacher's training? The college teacher education program cannot address everything, attempting to graduate students with multiple certifications and add-on endorsements. There simply is not enough time. At the same time, some teacher education programs have requirements above and beyond their state's requirements, perhaps keeping potential candidates out of programs.

While field experiences are important, those experiences must be do-able within the sequence of classes needed to graduate (see, for example, Grossman, 2018). Some students may be more willing to complete a basic teacher preparation program if it is perceived as manageable during a 4-year bachelor's degree.

Teacher educators need to increase recruitment efforts on their college campuses, informing freshmen and sophomores about improved teacher salaries and benefits so that there is time for students to consider adding teacher preparation to their programs. Teacher educators can work with professors of the STEM fields to encourage their students to take the first education class and then decide on completing teacher education. This is a hallmark of the Uteach model for STEM teacher preparation that has been successfully adopted at many schools (Uteach, 2020).

As a professor of teacher education, I (Clement) find that informing students about the differences of teaching with and without teacher certification are immense: salary, assignment, and benefits are quite different for those with full certification. I remind students that starting a full-time teaching job and then trying to be a student at night and in the summers to earn certification will be extremely time-consuming and difficult.

Public school districts and private school organizations need to prioritize teacher recruitment and hiring. Hiring is a year-round job (Clement, 2015). Of course, schools with excellent reputations for supportive administration and reasonable workloads are not experiencing the same needs for hiring non-certificated teachers as are schools with lesser reputations. Places where teachers feel empowered may be able to choose from a large pool of certificated candidates (see, for example, Ingersoll, 2003).

The school as a workplace needs to be designed for the success of teachers, as Susan Moore Johnson wrote in her 2019 book, *Where Teachers Thrive*. Johnson's research indicated that teachers thrive in schools where hiring systems are well-refined, principals are supportive instructional leaders, teachers' time is structured for their needs, and financial resources exist. The simple fact that three of the new teachers were hired with no certification may be indicative of the workplaces existing in those schools. Is it possible that those schools could not attract better prepared, certificated teachers?

Final Thoughts

The cover of the March 2020 *Phi Delta Kappan* magazine asked the question, "What kind of profession is teaching?" Professional organizations, including Delta Kappa Gamma, need to keep asking the tough questions about the profession of teaching and advocating to all involved in teacher preparation. Organizations can advocate that teacher certification and licensure are tremendously important. Hiring non-certificated teachers may fill a gap in a classroom for a short time but will not reduce the teacher shortages in STEM fields or other areas by creating career teachers.

Much research has been done on teacher preparation and the retention of teachers in their jobs. Simply asking teachers about their work may remain one of the best methods of finding out what we need to know. The six teachers in this small study stated appreciation for being asked about their first year of teaching. They expressed hope that their comments might bring about positive change in getting more students to complete teacher education courses and start careers in education, especially in STEM fields.

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Appendix

Questions for Induction / First-year Teachers

September

1. You've been hired! Were there challenges finding a job or receiving the job offer? If so, please describe.
 - Did you feel "recruited" as a candidate during the interview process?
 - Did you receive a lot of information about your current position in the interview?
 - Please describe your teaching assignment: number of classes; number of preparations; number of students; any other required duties.
2. Preparation:
 - Now that you are teaching full-time, what parts of your teacher education program have you found most useful?
 - On scale of 1 to 10, where 1 is totally unprepared and 10 is totally prepared, how would you rate your preparation to teach? Why?
 - If you could have had more preparation for something you have encountered early in the year, what would that preparation have been?
3. Content:
 - Some new teachers find themselves "studying" the content that they teach. Overall, how well do you feel about the preparation you have had to teach the content? (math, biology, etc.)
4. Induction is a big umbrella that shields the new teacher from the storm of the first year of teaching. Induction typically includes orientation, ongoing support seminars for professional development, and mentoring. About induction:

- How helpful was the new teacher orientation? Please describe what the orientation was like and discuss the most helpful part.
- Are there ongoing support seminars/workshops just for new teachers? In some districts this includes before or after-school workshops or seminars during scheduled inservice days.
- Are you assigned a mentor during this year? If so, about how much time have you spent with your mentor during the first semester? What are some activities that you and your mentor did that have been supportive and beneficial to you to date?

November

5. Observations and evaluations
 - When was the first time that anyone who was not your evaluator/administrator observed a class and gave you feedback? If this has happened, briefly describe the experience.
 - When was the first time that your evaluator/administrator observed your teaching and gave you an evaluation or feedback? Briefly describe that experience.
6. Classroom management
 - Please describe support you have received from the school's management discipline guidelines. Examples: The school has a management plan with consequences. The school provides positive incentives. School administrators provided a management workshop.
 - How well do you feel about student behavior in your classroom? What has helped you the most with management? (Examples: procedures and routines, a posted list of rules with consequences and positives, teaching management and behavior to students, etc.)

January

7. Time and stress management
 - How do you feel about the time you have to prepare for your classes? What might help you to have more time for teaching?
 - How stressful was the first semester of teaching? On a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 is low stress and 10 is very high stress, how would you rate the stress of the first semester? What, or who, helped you to cope with that first semester?
 - With a semester of experience, what challenges face you in the coming semester?

March: *Working with and supporting student learning for all students*

8. At this point in the school year, how is student achievement? What have been successes you have experienced? What surprises have you experienced with regard to students' academics?
9. At this point in the school year, how do you rate the supportiveness for new teachers at your school? Please describe experiences with administrators, mentors, and colleagues.

Final questions: April/May

10. What advice do you have for other first-year teachers in YOUR field (especially STEMTeach)?
11. What advice do you have for your professors of education?
12. What changes would you suggest to the teacher education program for future students? (examples: more courses in _____; fewer courses in _____; more field experience in _____)

Please rate your success as a first-year teacher on a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 is limited success and 10 is great success.

What else would you like to share about your first year of teaching?

Thank you so much!

Adulthood 101: Real Skills for Real Life—A Critical Science-Based Course in the Texas Tech University Family and Consumer Sciences Education Program

By Gencie Houy, Karen L. Alexander, Cynthia L. Miller, and Kristie Storms

Individuals are emerging into adulthood without understanding basic life skills such as paying bills, cooking, eating healthy, planning a budget, problem-solving, and conflict resolution. At Texas Tech University, educators in the Family and Consumer Sciences Education program have created a course entitled “Adulthood 101: Real Skills for Real Life” to address the lack of life skills in students during their college years. With a critical science-based perspective, this course teaches students the skills needed for personal development, health and wellness, citizenship, communication, consumer choices, employability, parenting and childcare, and balancing work and family.

Adulthood is the practice of behaving with the characteristics of a responsible adult, especially completing everyday essential tasks such as paying bills, planning a budget, cooking dinner, or doing laundry. More and more individuals are moving into adulthood without the knowledge of these daily life skills. Giddens’s (1991) theory of a protective cocoon is applicable to modern parents and families. Giddens described this theory as “the defensive protection which filters out potential dangers impinging from the external world and which is founded psychologically upon basic trust” (Giddens, 1991, p. 244). Parental over-protection, now often referred to as helicopter parenting, may have left young people overly reliant on their emotional connection with their parents—in turn leaving them unable to form their own problem-solving and coping strategies (Luna, 2018).

A 2011 study by Maryam et al. showed the effectiveness of life skills training for adolescent students in an educational setting. This study found low self-esteem can cause suicidal thoughts, aggression, anxiety, and depression. Adolescents with low self-esteem have difficulty completing basic life skills (Maryam, et al., 2011). In recent years, these negative behaviors have increased significantly. Due to a lack of self-esteem, 30% of adolescent students will develop a diagnosable mental health disorder during their lifetime; 70%-80% of these students will not have received any life skills training (Maryam et al., 2011). The experimental study (2011) assigned 80 students to learn basic life skills; the other 80 served as a control group and were not taught life skills. The life skills course consisted of 10 sessions twice a week for 50 minutes each. Contents of the session included self-awareness, empathy, interpersonal communication, effective relationships, coping with stress, emotional management, problem solving, decision making, creative thought, and critical thinking. After the course, all students completed the *Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory Adult Questionnaire (CSEI)*. Data collected showed the mean score of self-esteem for the students who completed the course was higher than that of the control group, indicating direct instruction and experience with life skills may have a positive impact on self-esteem.



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Family and Consumer Sciences teachers teach life skills that can help raise self-esteem and enable individuals to become more productive citizens and perfect the art of “Adulting.” “The field of Family and Consumer Sciences (FCS), founded as home economics, is the comprehensive body of skills, research, and knowledge that helps people make informed decisions about their well-being, relationships, and resources to achieve optimal quality of life” (American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences, 2019, p. 1). The FCS Body of Knowledge is the current framework that serves as the foundation for the field. This body of knowledge consists of

- Basic Human Needs
- Family Strengths
- Individual Well-Being
- Community Vitality
- Human Ecosystems
- Life Course Development
- Wellness
- Resource Development and Sustainability
- Global Interdependence
- Capacity Building
- Appropriate Technology Usage. (American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences, 2019)

Life skills are taught in middle school and high school classes by certified FCS teachers, but not every student takes these courses because they are considered electives. At Texas Tech University, the FCS program has created a course for those students growing into adulthood during their college years. Entitled “Adulting 101: Real Skills for Real Life,” this course is open to any Texas Tech student.

The Critical Science-Based Perspective

In the creation of the Adulting 101 course, the critical science-based approach outlined by Montgomery’s (2008) discussion of curriculum development was utilized. The critical science-based perspective is common to FCS curriculum and focuses learning on how-to skills and knowledge coupled with the application of critical thinking and problem solving. Students can understand their multiple roles in life and directly apply the content to real situations as they examine family, career, and community issues (Montgomery, 2008). This is accomplished through hands-on activities as well as by emphasizing cognitive and social skills. The critical science-based approach views the teacher as a facilitator who organizes engaging learning experiences and guides learners. The central focus of the critical science-based perspective is researching perennial or reoccurring problems that affect everyday life and taking action to improve the problems (Montgomery, 2008).

Perennial Problems

A perennial problem is not necessarily negative, as most associate with many of life’s problems. Rather, a perennial problem is more of an issue that requires ongoing thinking and questioning to resolve. Like most problems, these involve a number of choices to make or actions to take that could be good or bad. For example, parenting is a perennial problem that requires ongoing thought and constant modification. Parenting lends itself not only to ordinary questioning but also to deeper questions. Perennial problems are stated as questions to guide the curriculum and to guide thinking and discussion. These questions are usually posed as “What should be

done about...” Examples would be, “What should be done about parenting?” and “What should be done about following a budget?” Examination of these questions can help the teacher and even the learners to determine “What should be taught?” Perennial problems are considered to be evolving because they are ever changing with different contexts and factors. They require thought and inquiry to resolve and may return because of new life situations (Montgomery, 2008).

Three Types of Actions

Technical actions are the first of three actions that can be used to resolve a perennial problem. Montgomery (2008) showed that technical actions use predetermined goals as a type of success measurement. Once the goal is achieved, then the product is considered complete. Technical actions are used within the critical science-based approach because the focus is on completing course goals and gaining how-to skills (Montgomery, 2008). For example, students can balance a bank account because they can apply the basic math skills necessary, but being aware of the need to do such and taking the action of managing money effectively moves beyond the technical actions required to resolve that perennial problem.

The second form of action is interpretive. This action focuses on deeper interaction and communication within families and students to learn culturally and to develop deep relationships. An example of an interpretive action would be a couple coming to an agreement and understanding about how they will share all of the home responsibilities and family values. Interpretive actions can also be within the workplace and community. This action is used within the critical science-based approach because the emphasis is on applying processes, critical thinking, and active learning (Montgomery, 2008).

Third is reflective action. This area includes deeper questions that must be examined against beliefs and assumptions about perennial and evolving problems (Montgomery, 2008). Examples of questions that might be asked are, “What do I believe families should look and act like?” or “Why do I believe this?” Other questions could be “Why do racial tensions exist?” or “What are the distorted beliefs within the schools?” Reflective actions fit into the critical science-based approach because the subject matter is based on reflective questions, such as “What should be done about food and wellness?” or “What should be done about family and human development?”

These three forms of action are viewed as a system because they all must be used together to address both perennial and evolving problems. Technical, interpretive, and reflective actions are also viewed as a system because the actions are interrelated, and all types of action could be required (Montgomery, 2008). All three of these actions are implemented in the curriculum for Adulting 101.

Practical Problems as an Approach to Learning

The critical science-based perspective applied to Adulting 101 also utilizes practical problems as an approach to learning. The selected practical problems are those specifically related to a student’s life. A practical problem could include the student’s family life, work life, civic life, or other areas of life. The problems relate to the students because they are real concerns for families and family life.

The process of gaining knowledge is also included in the curriculum approach for this course because the process is just as important as the knowledge students are developing. This process includes teamwork and collaboration and the time to learn conflict resolution. Intellectual and social processes are important because they include practical reasoning for students and the ability to test theories. Practical



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reasoning means finding logic through the problem-solving process (Montgomery, 2008). This process helps students solve real-world problems through hands-on experiences. Using the critical science-based approach as the curriculum framework for *Adulting 101* allows students to experience practical reasoning in a supportive environment where the processes can be learned and practiced. For example, students in the course are expected to review their own credit report as an assignment. For most of them, this is the first time they look at their credit report or even realize they have a credit report. Students are then instructed to review their credit report, reflect on items listed on the report, and implement a plan to move forward financially with their credit report in mind. They learn that this report will be with them for the rest of their lives and will affect future purchases and possibly future job opportunities. Learning practical reasoning through assignments such as this helps provide a foundation for students to apply in current and future situations with their family, employers, peers, and other relationships.

Adulting 101: Real Skills for Real Life Course Goals, Objectives, and Outcomes

The philosophy and goals of the course are to

- equip all students with the skills to empower them to face life's challenges, cope with stresses in positive ways, and make impactful decisions that contribute to their future success;
- empower students to learn through their lives and adapt positively to family changes, job changes, and individual changes;
- employ students to be productive members of society by learning to be healthy, adaptable decision makers when it comes to food, economy, social wellness, communication, employability, stress, family, and personal life. (Today's Life Skills, 2007)

This course provides students with opportunities to hone skills needed for personal development, health and wellness, citizenship, communication, consumer choices, employability, parenting and childcare, and balancing of work and family. By the end of this course, students are expected to meet the following eight objectives:

- Grow as an individual, function personally and in relationships with others, develop positive self-esteem, sound decision-making skills, and obtain coping abilities.
- Practice good health habits, select and prepare nutritious foods, eat a variety of healthy foods, cope with stress, get enough sleep, get plenty of exercise, and avoid drug use.
- Respect the rights of others in both work and family/personal life.
- Communicate ideas and understand others in regard to developing and sustaining relationships.
- Make wise consumer and financial decisions related to creating a budget, purchasing, insurance and investments, and personal loans.
- Recognize employment opportunities, secure employment, exhibit characteristics that promote employability and self-improvement, and balance work and family responsibilities.
- Identify family systems, parental rights, responsibilities, and parenting education.
- Manage multiple roles, set priorities and goal setting, and cope with life situations. (Today's Life Skills, 2007)

Adulting 101: Real Skills for Real Life is an online course that is available to any Texas Tech Student. Students have weekly modules to complete. This course is relatively new, but enrollment thus far has student representatives from many different majors. Incoming freshman seem to be attracted to this course because it will help them balance their newfound sense of freedom in a university atmosphere and give them the tools needed to be successful adults.

In the course, students are assessed with a pre- and posttest. Students use a scale from 1–5 to indicate their level of knowledge on completing each “adulting skill,” with 1 meaning “I have no idea how to do this skill” and 5 meaning “I already know how to do this skill.” Skills assessed on the pre- and posttest include such items as read a pay stub, use credit cards sensibly, understand health insurance, rent or own a home, shop for groceries, fill a prescription, have a face-to-face conversation, practice good health habits, eat a variety of healthy foods, exercise, get enough sleep, select nutritious snacks, avoid alcohol use, avoid drugs, and do laundry. Although formal, longitudinal data is not yet available because course implementation is recent, observations suggest students are acquiring these skills through the focus provided by the course.

This evaluation measure was replicated from a previous study by Couch et al. (1991) on the need for life skills in adolescents. Their study was conducted to identify life skills with future expectations for work and family and to also explore the relationship between work and family expectations and life skills. The objectives were to define and identify life skills, measure students’ current abilities in life skills as perceived by students and adults, assess students’ need for life skills in the future, determine students’ future expectations for work and interpersonal life, and utilize implications drawn from research in the development of curriculum modules to teach life skills to secondary students. The life skills questionnaire was formed to survey students in the areas of self-responsibility, communication, consumer skills, relationships, personal development, parenting and childcare, employability, balancing work and family, management, citizenship, health and wellness, household management, leadership, academics, and cultural awareness (Couch et al., 1991).

Overall, Couch et al.’s (1991) study showed secondary students viewed their current life skills as moderate for most life skills categories. They perceived higher levels of competency for skills related to self-responsibility and lower levels for skills related to nutrition and wellness. Students saw all of the life skills as important for the future (Couch et al., 1991).

Conclusion

At Texas Tech University, educators in the FCS Education program have created a course that provides highly applicable skills in the real world and that, in turn, allows students to feel successful beyond the course. Students feel instant gratification by being able to utilize these skills in their daily lives. In implementing this course, students have already shown increased confidence in achieving basic daily tasks such as being able to cope with stress more effectively, make more informed choices, and take responsibility for their actions. Having the confidence to balance a bank account, cook a nutritious dinner, gain self-esteem, establish positive relationships, or apply for a job is vital to becoming a productive citizen. Individuals must learn and understand these concepts sooner rather than later to feel successful in life.



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Providing Behavior Analytic Supports and Services: A Unique Approach to Rural Service Delivery

By Jennifer Hamrick and Robin H. Lock

Texas Tech University's Burkhart Center for Autism Education and Research works with communities and families in the greater West Texas area to provide behavior analytic services to individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder. This program description presents information about a service-delivery model for a mobile clinic that provides ABA services with collaborative design for both families and educators of individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder in the underserved areas of rural West Texas. Overall goals of the mobile clinic center on collaborative practices among educators and families of children with the disorder with a focus on interventions based on individual assessments. Current findings specific to telehealth interventions as well as obstacles and challenges that are part of the clinic are addressed.

The Mobile Outreach Clinic for Autism (MOCA) is a relatively new initiative directed at collaborative practices with both educator- and parent- or family-mediated interventions for individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD). MOCA is a traveling clinic that provides services to families similar to those provided to individuals who can travel to the clinic at Texas Tech University in Lubbock, Texas. MOCA allows service providers from the Burkhart Center to reach a greater number of individuals across all areas of West Texas, with a focus on families who do not have the resources available to receive services. Our experience with MOCA has convinced us it is truly possible to provide quality services to families and teachers in remote areas.

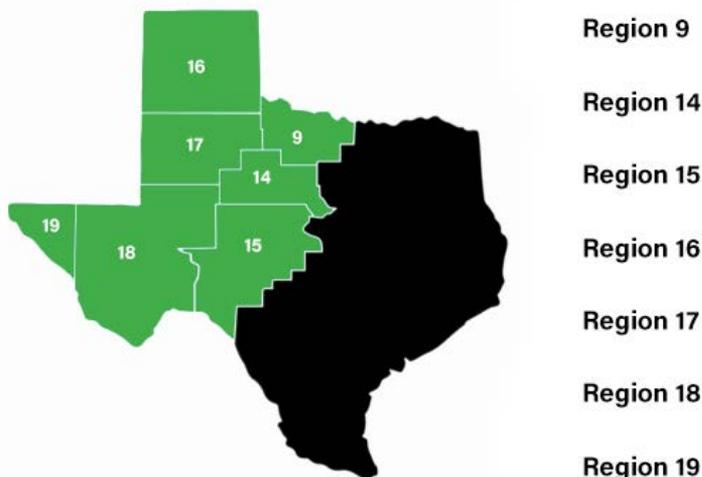
Throughout the state of Texas, more than 2,000 schools are classified as rural by the Texas Education Agency. Many of these schools are part of districts in West Texas (Texas Education Agency, 2019). Research has shown that students receiving special education services in rural areas often lack a comprehensive Individual Education Plan (IEP) to address each student's needs (Hott et al., 2019). Research has also indicated many teachers lack training in evidence-based practices to best address the needs of students (Knight et al., 2018). MOCA helps families and educators identify skill deficits for students with ASD and provides coaching and feedback when implementing interventions to address said deficits.

MOCA services are focused on families in rural areas and families who live in underserved areas of West Texas (Figure 1). Possible participants are identified in a multitude of ways: (a) targeted social media posts, (b) dissemination to the Texas Tech University Burkhart Center's current email list, (c) shared information to Education Service Centers in the service areas, and (d) outreach to community service providers in rural areas, such as medical clinics and churches. The primary role of these community partners is to broadcast information to these areas and the families who could directly benefit from MOCA. Their role is to share with schools and families the wealth of services the mobile clinic provides while giving families the information necessary to schedule individual assessments with MOCA.

Once identified, parents or caretakers are contacted as part of the intake process to gather information about the child with ASD. During the intake process, MOCA

Figure 1

Areas of Texas in which MOCA Services are Provided



Note. Each area identified on this map represents one of the seven Educational Service Center (ESC) regions in West Texas.

an assessment can be specifically chosen to determine specific needs for which a plan or program can then be developed. After the evaluation is completed, a plan for intervention is developed and shared with the family. The family and the MOCA service providers then discuss the goals and what intervention may look like. A plan for meeting via telehealth is then developed.

staff collect basic information about the child and his or her family, conduct a Functional Assessment Interview (FAI), and request the child's most current IEP. When the interview process is complete, a face-to-face visit is scheduled to complete formal assessment.

Varied methods are used when scheduling the face-to-face visits in a community. For instance, the Burkhart Center's mobile clinic has partnered with local businesses ranging from hospitals, churches, schools, or Education Service Centers to set up face-to-face clinic appointments. In many cases, these entities have allowed us to use their buildings or provided space for our mobile unit. Once a family's individual needs have been determined,

Goals

The overarching goal of MOCA is to provide an individualized program both parents and educators can easily implement for children with ASD. Each training and assessment provides parents and caregivers with the knowledge and skills necessary to address the challenges and deficits that are sometimes part of ASD while also supplying information and support for the child's teacher so all parties are working cohesively to address deficits. Specifically, by the end of each assessment, each participant will have an assessment team complete the following: (a) identify and gather information specific to each family's needs based on assessment findings, (b) develop a program to address needs such as deficits and challenging behavior, (c) understand variables to teach desired behaviors, (d) understand variables to address and prevent problem behavior, and (e) provide parents and caretakers with information about resources available to them throughout the state.

Resources

For MOCA to be successful, multiple resources are utilized throughout assessment and intervention. Funds for travel, technology, assessment and materials, staffing, and community partners are all critical components of the mobile clinic that help to ensure the success not only of the program as a whole but of individuals with autism who receive services.

Funding for Travel

With the expansive area MOCA covers, funds are allocated to cover travel costs. These costs include fuel, vehicle maintenance, and hotel stays for community

visits that are farther than a typical day's drive in West Texas. The Burkhart Center currently has a 12-passenger van and a travel trailer that has been outfitted to conduct assessments with families. The bedroom area of the trailer was modified by removing the bed to use the space as an office for parent interviews and paperwork. The dining area booth was removed to allow more space for assessment and interaction with the child during assessment.

Technology

Technology resources utilized by MOCA staff include laptop computers to complete intake forms, write assessment results, and connect with telehealth software to conduct meetings with caretakers and educators. MOCA providers use Zoom, a videoconferencing software for online meetings (Yuan, n.d.). Encrypted telehealth software protects the privacy of participants, so the Zoom Healthcare plan is a crucial technology to ensure confidentiality. Internet connection is critical for both the mobile clinic and participants. When traveling, MOCA has Wi-Fi hotspots in order to access resources to share with families during and after the assessment. For follow-up sessions conducted via telehealth, families often use their smart phones or a device such as a tablet or computer to interact and participate in the telehealth sessions once the assessment is complete.

MOCA'S only limitation is related to the very few families without Internet or smart devices to participate in follow-up sessions. This problem has been solved by collaborating with the child's school in order to schedule sessions with the families and teachers together. A current request for funding to establish a lending library of devices is being considered in order to help address this limitation and ensure all families who reach out have an opportunity for services.

Assessment and Materials

Assessments used as part of the intake are individualized based on the child's needs as well as on total goals the caregivers are interested in addressing. Once the evaluation is complete, parents receive a copy of overall results and are encouraged to share with their child's teacher in order to foster additional collaboration. An assessment kit of materials (i.e., books, manipulatives, games, toys, etc.) has been put together for travel and is taken to each assessment appointment.

Staffing

MOCA is currently staffed by a faculty member of the College of Education who serves as principal investigator of the project; a full-time, board-certified behavior analyst to oversee assessment and intervention practices; and a graduate research assistant who implements a majority of the telehealth interventions. Together, this team works collaboratively not only to train the graduate research assistant to provide high quality services via telehealth when providing intervention but also to ensure high treatment integrity and consistent implementation of services for all families who participate.

Community Partners

Community partners have been an essential part of the success of MOCA by helping share information about the services offered as well as providing space and support when visiting communities. By building on already-established relationships with school districts, Educational Service Centers (ESCs), and other community



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organizations, MOCA has had great response in terms of the number of families receiving support.

Measures of Success

Evaluating the effectiveness of the services listed above provides MOCA with an understanding of the needs of many families across West Texas. It is critical not only to document successes but also to examine where deficits occur when supporting parents and teachers of children with ASD. By continuing to gather information about effectiveness, MOCA continues to move forward with the overarching mission to increase services for these individuals. Three different metrics are discussed.

Cumulative Totals of Training Participation

MOCA travels to areas to provide group trainings to families and caretakers to address basic problem behaviors as well as to explain methods to address these behaviors. Cumulative totals of participation are collected in order to keep track of the number of children served regionally.

Preliminary Outcomes

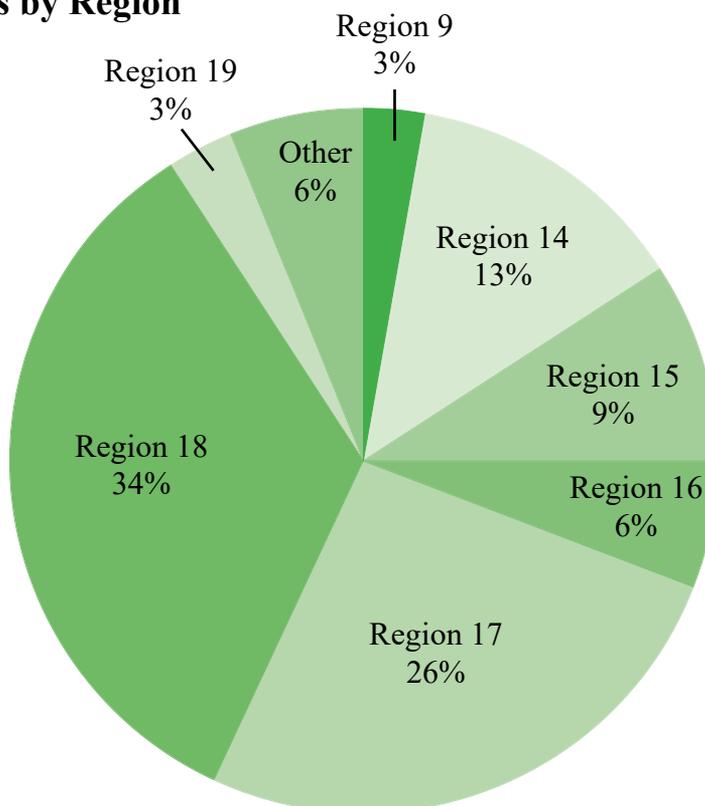
Percentages of participants per ESC region are shown in Figure 2. Texas Tech University is in Region 17, where 26% of participants are located and which is second in size only to Region 18, which includes 34% of participants and covers an incredibly large portion of West Texas (see Figure2). Community partners from this region have been very active as they are aware the number of services for their families is significantly limited.

Figure 2

Percentage of Participants and Intake Calls by Region

Note. Percentages are based on location of participants who contact MOCA for services.

Participants by Region



Cumulative Totals of Resource Assistance

MOCA supplies information to families to increase their awareness and understanding of resources available to them throughout the State of Texas. For example, state organizations such as the Texas Workforce Commission are responsible for multiple programs for people with disabilities to encourage independence and vocational skills. In order to qualify for these services, families must first sign up (*Programs for People with Disabilities | Texas Workforce Commission, n.d.*).

Preliminary Outcomes

A staggering discovery during intake calls is the number of families unaware of state funding to address needs of individuals with disabilities. Community Living Assistance and Support Services (CLASS) and Home and Community-based Services (HCS) are resources that provide funding to families for resources for children with disabilities, including a diagnosis of ASD. Figure 3 shows only 1 of 101 participants was aware of and signed up for the CLASS/HCS waitlist prior to participating in MOCA.



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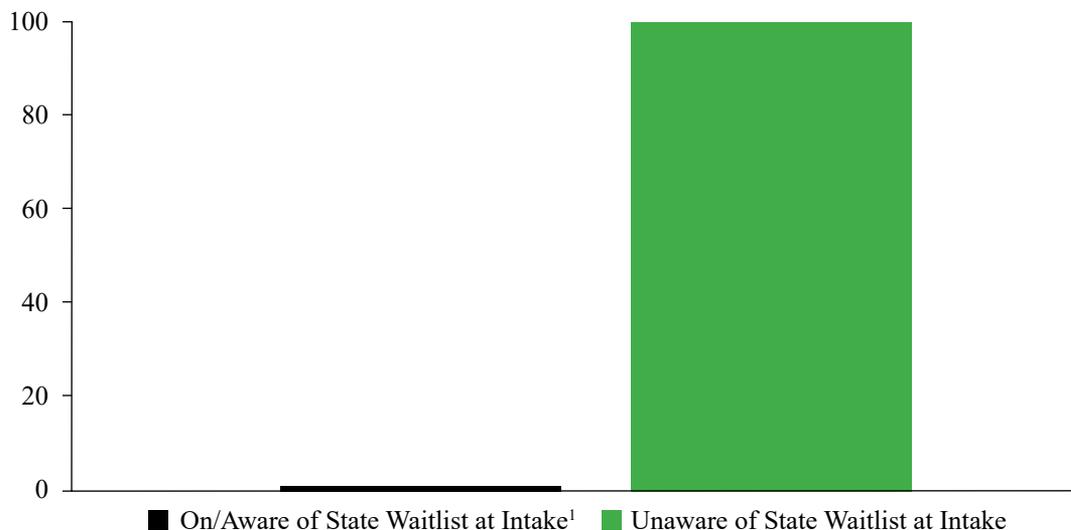
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Figure 3

Family Awareness of CLASS/HCS Funding & Waitlist (n=101)

Note. Percentages are based on location of participants who contact MOCA for services.

Parent Responses to Intake Question About Funding Waitlist



Social Validity

Social validity is assessed through satisfaction with this program as measured by a survey at the completion of the parent training. Parents' perceptions of the effects of intervention on their stress levels as well as on their child's behavior are measured through a Likert scale and general participant feedback. Some of the comments and feedback parents have shared after receiving intervention services with MOCA illustrate the general trend of comments: "We've never seen her have this type of interaction since pre-k" (she's now 8); "her tantrums are nothing like they were before we started this"; "she requested to go to the doctor and told him exactly where her stomach hurt—the doctor had to make sure it was actually her because he couldn't believe it."

Summary

As MOCA grows across West Texas, families and educators continue to express their enthusiasm for the services. Development of quality interventions was often left

to local school districts as part of a child's IEP, yet many educators in rural areas have little exposure to or preparation for working with ASD (Hott et al., 2019). Clients laud MOCA for both the assessment information and the telemedicine coaching to ensure that interventions are undertaken with fidelity. MOCA not only supports individuals but also provides a model for others to expand their ASD outreach. By taking quality interventions to rural counties and connecting people through telemedicine to clinic-based interventions previously existing only in metropolitan areas, MOCA furnishes an outstanding formula for helping children achieve their best possible outcomes.

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Connecting Summer Inservice Professional Development to Team Teaching

By Ronald V. Morris and Denise Shockley

Appalachian social studies teachers from Ohio engage in professional development through summer inservice programs by traveling to a state each year to learn about the land, people, and culture. As they engage in inservice sessions and professional study and travel experiences, they reflect on their practices in a supportive peer environment before bringing their experiences back to the classroom. In assessment of the impact of this program, the theme of "teaching" emerged from assertions of "human connection" and "comparison," with the subtheme of "peers" supporting such connection. The theme of "geography" emerged from assertions about "culture" and "wilderness," with the subtheme of "native" supporting "culture" and the subthemes of "nature" and "fauna" supporting "wilderness."

Appalachian teachers from southeastern Ohio continue to engage in summer professional development in a long-term cohort. The cohort meets 4 days during the school year to engage in professional development, and then the teachers go into the field for 7 days to explore a location as part of a multiple-year social studies enrichment dedicated to enhancing their experiences as teachers. The summer field studies on-site allow them to bring knowledge back to their classrooms. The secondary teachers travel to cultural, geographic, and historic sites to learn more about people, places, and events. Their most recent trip involved traveling to Alaska. The teachers are products of Appalachia, where they live and teach. Experience outside of Appalachia is an important part of giving them different perspectives to share with students. The regional educational service center coordinates this annual project and is interested in the question of how teachers learn from their field experience, take initiative, and translate it into meaningful classroom instruction for their students. After the travel experience, the service center sends master teachers to observe in the classrooms to determine if the teachers incorporate material from the professional development into classroom instruction. In 2019-2020, teachers determined to form peer groups to team teach together.

Literature Review

A review of the literature focused on the use of field trips in social studies classes, the issues that limit the use of field trips, and the impact of field-trip-based professional development on the creativity of teachers. Teachers use a variety of methods to develop effective field trips. Moreover, teachers may use oral history, timelines, or role-play as part of the field-trip curriculum. Local field trips may mobilize stakeholders from school districts, historic sites, and universities to explore content at historic sites (Coughlin, 2010). The collaboration between and among such partners results in historical research and chronological thinking. Furthermore, field trips that are proximal and low cost are important teaching tools that offer interdisciplinary connections within the community. For example, Groce et al. (2013) described the content accessible from students visiting a cemetery, including architecture, art, economics, geography, history, immigration, math, mortality rates, names, religion, science, stone carving, and public health. When teachers engage

students in firsthand community field-based activities, they challenge students both to interpret and to denote data that represent struggles with social issues. The active involvement of the students in the challenging process of investigating topics directs them into planning, gathering resources, and enacting problem-solving activities.

Teachers know that field trips are an important instructional practice and have used them effectively for many years. However, obstacles stand in the way of secondary teachers taking field trips during the school day. Secondary social studies teachers cite economic pressure, fuel costs, and high-stakes testing as reasons for offering fewer field trips (Kenna, 2019). In spite of such obstacles, teachers use field trips to get students to use inquiry to examine their community and to introduce them to important people and resources in the community. The teacher helps students learn concepts that examine how humans work with the environment when they use natural resources that involve complex social and environmental problems (Jorgenson et al., 2018). Teachers help students make decisions about the use of fuel sources, costs, and impacts of the resources they use. Investigations in the field provide students with data to use when teachers use instructional practices that ask students to make decisions on issues. Teachers support an active pedagogy that furthers citizenship development in their students.

Professional Development

Secondary social studies teachers continue to need relevant teacher inservice. Professional development needs to be meaningful and designed to tie the school with the community. McGrew et al. (2019) recounted offering professional development that coupled economic development with school and community relationships. They explained that the curriculum has narrowed away from the community, that community-based experiences linked with experiential learning remain important in offering inservice experiences, and that inservice training for social studies teachers can be accomplished in a field-study format. Such a format provides the opportunity to conduct geographical investigation at heritage and cultural sites. Professional development that provides in-depth content exposure results in teachers being able to read the landscape, value it, and harbor the disposition to teach about it (Morris, 2017). Acquiring a sense of place through professional development requires time at the site necessary to experience the place, to document it through technology, and to question it through historical inquiry prior to seeing the multiple perspectives found in controversial issues.

Classroom innovation by teachers is an important factor in professional improvement. Bascia and Maton (2016) found a less restrictive atmosphere in alternative schools as opposed to public schools in Canada that allowed them to support school-based curriculum innovation. Teachers desire professional growth as a function of self-improvement, and they are passionate about what they do desire to innovate as part of their desire for self-improvement. Some teachers seek innovation in their teaching through gaming and through a more comprehensive understanding of child development (Kuanysheya et al., 2019). Other teachers desire to improve curriculum opportunities for their students.

Teachers who innovate in the classroom need support. This support should come from both peer teachers and school administrators to help implement new ideas. Teacher initiative is demonstrated in classroom instructional practices when such environmental support is present (Fouts, 1989; Nartgün & Taskin, 2017). The supporting of teacher innovation becomes important for experimentation and school

improvement. Teacher empowerment occurs when teachers believe they have agency to influence the curriculum and instructional practices where they teach. Holdsworth and Maynes (2017) found that local adaptation in supporting teachers developed and sustained innovations. A compilation of professional capital, teachers' beliefs and attitudes, followed by school structures, leads to teacher innovation. Success in innovation fuels further interest in future attempts to stretch and grow. Teacher practice and sustained innovation lead to positive school change.



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Team Teaching

Team teaching can enhance existing relationships, such as those that may exist within a social studies department among teachers who teach different sections of the same subject or between two teachers who each teach juniors in United States History. The relationship may involve the same social studies department members who teach different classes or grades, such as a Grade 10 World History and a Grade 11 United States History teacher collaborating on a central theme like World War II. The relationship may involve teachers from different fields—such as a Grade 10 American Literature instructor and a Grade 11 United States History instructor—teaching related content,

McCall (2017) described retirees who volunteer in the school as effective mentors who can provide powerful inquiry collaborations while enriching social studies instruction. In effect, this relationship capitalizes on the experiences of already-formed bonds between peers and reconfigures it for enrichment. Barnes et al. (2010), a peer teaching team, learned again that their students had few experiences and little prior knowledge and that creating new knowledge was difficult; however, they created an issue, activity, and reflection model that helped their students be successful. Furthermore, they explored economic concepts while using exploration and imagination through process drama. Each of these examples offers opportunities for different kinds of team teaching.

Secondary social studies teachers used team teaching to provide multiple perspectives when Dobbs et al. (2016) worked as a team to determine that their students needed general reading comprehension skills. The perspectives of World War II from a World History teacher or a United States History teacher provided the students with different insights. DiCamillo and Bailey (2016) team taught urban secondary English and U.S. history interdisciplinary classes that were culturally relevant and authentic, and the challenges they encountered supported their beliefs about instruction. The team brought different ideas about the same curriculum to the students. Strogilos and King-Sears (2019) found that team teaching resulted in extra help for students and benefited teacher interactions, student learning, and social participation. The teachers found that it increased their coverage in the classroom. At the same time, team teaching provided extended ways for students to engage in activity and discussion. Team teaching may build on existing relationships or build new teaching combinations, as was the case for the teachers engaged in this field-based project.

Methodology

Thirty-five Caucasian secondary social studies teachers from Appalachia in southeastern Ohio, roughly evenly split by gender and years of experience, created reflections while on their field trips to report what they learned as part of an ongoing professional development program. When teachers returned to the classroom in



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the fall, master teachers observed one class period to determine the impact of the summer’s field trips on classroom instruction. The master teachers were employed by the educational service center and were retired classroom social studies and language arts teachers with advanced degrees. The participating teachers reported to their entire professional development group the results of their local team-teaching experience, including the names and grades involved, the content with which they worked, and the perceived impact on the students.

Results

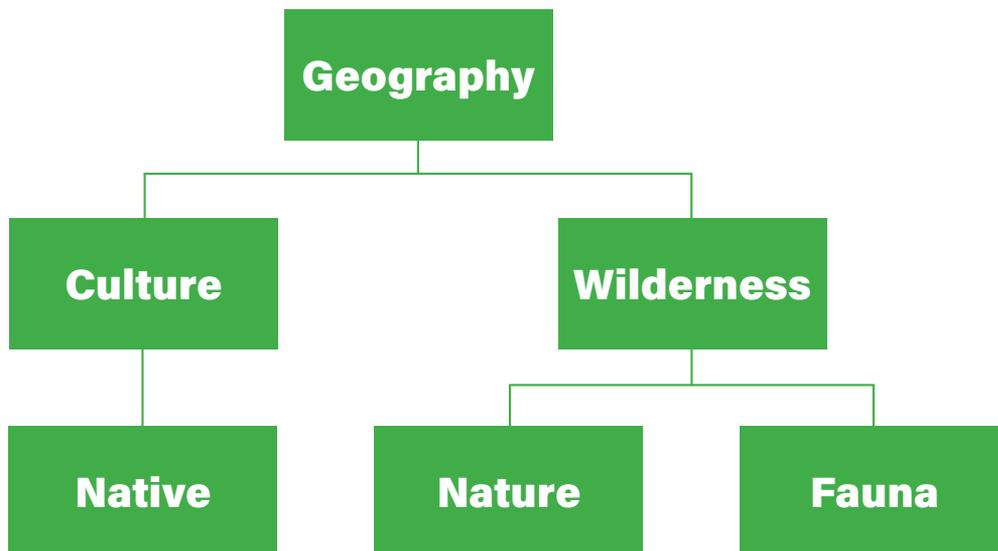
Results of the professional development as revealed by reflections from the teachers indicated a theme of recognizing that the experience was essentially geographic in nature. Anytime the teachers talked about the interaction between humans and the land or discussed regions or movement, they were expressing their understanding of geography. Megan said, “Gallia Academy offers a geography elective course. Denali National Park features endless resources for geography lessons. A visit to this park builds upon the geography lessons I created...” Teachers built upon knowledge from a disciplinary field in the context of personal experiences that continued to engage them professionally in curriculum design. Furthermore, the teachers built on their knowledge of a disciplinary field to create layer upon layer of instructional materials for their classrooms.

Assertions related to culture and wilderness supported the theme of geography. Teachers described culture as being an important concept developed through the professional development. The experience required that teachers learn about a different culture than their own. Gene said, “During this trip I learned much about the geography, culture, and history of Alaska.” Teachers identified culture in their responses to the trip; however, they also appreciated the role the culture played in their enjoyment of the experience. Multiple cultures—from immigrant, to natives, to Indigenous people—all played a role in the teachers’ understandings about Alaska.

The theme of culture was supported by the subtheme of native (see Figure 1). The teachers found the voice of the Indigenous population to be a very important part of the trip. In the course of the professional development, teachers interacted with native people as they learned about their traditional culture.

Figure 1

Theme of Geography in Relationship to Themes of Culture and Wilderness and the Subthemes of Native, Nature, and Fauna



One of my favorite things from this trip to Alaska was the Cultural Center. [High school] Juniors and seniors worked there as guides and each one lead a portion of the center [activities]. . . . At the center we were able to see replicas of the native homes and [to] also [see] reenactments of their dances. It was just one of the neatest things I have seen. Many of the young people were native and you could feel the love that they had for their way of life. (Stacy)

The teachers heard the voices of native people reflecting on what they thought made them unique. The teachers also got to see segments of traditional culture at the Cultural Center from authentic voices that helped them to see how the community life worked. The voices of native people were important in tying teacher reflection responses to the theme of geography through the professional development.

The teachers identified the concept of wilderness as being an important part of the professional development. Every time the teachers talked about the places that impacted them, the National Parks, or the physical landscape, they were describing wilderness.

It was rugged and beautiful, but it was untamed. And even today, most of the land immediately off the beaten path looks like it has been untouched by human hands. I found myself thinking about what early Europeans must have thought as they sailed into Seward, seeing orcas and whales, possibly for the first time. Alaska must have seemed like a different world to them, and it truly was the Last Frontier for America, once we took possession of the land mass. (Waylon)

The teachers were struck by the mountains and glaciers that surrounded them on land and sea. For the teachers, the concept of wilderness was easy to define as a textbook definition but much more difficult to construct based on their prior experiences. The subthemes of nature and fauna from teacher reflection responses supported the theme of wilderness as important parts of the professional development.

The impact of the land on the teachers was defined as the concept of nature, and experiences with nature included sensory stimulation and emotional response to the land. That is, teachers responded to the land through an emotional reaction to the environment. David said, “The glacier was undoubtedly the most remote, isolated, and beautiful place I have ever visited. It is difficult to describe with words the powerful silence and majesty of that place.” The feel of the ice beneath their feet and the sound of calving glaciers created impressionable moments. The sensory experience bombarded the teachers with elation, and they identified this as an essential part of the event. The idea of nature as a theme helped teachers to identify the theme of geography as an important part of the professional development as noted in teacher reflection responses.

The land and sea fauna impressed the teachers as much as the grandeur of the land. The animals in nature were a powerful attraction to the teachers, who were surprised to see the amount of animal life they encountered.

The ocean life blew me away; we saw Orcas whales, Humpback whales, porpoise, otters, sea lions and many species of birds... I loved watching the moose eating leaves off a tree with her calves. Driving through the park was so much fun searching the mountain and fields for wildlife! I loved it! Moose, fox, caribou, bear, and rabbits! (Dian)

The wild animals foraged for food and tended their young, which captured the imagination of the teachers. To the teachers, this was what the great outdoors was

all about, and it created new perceptions about the nature of Alaska. The teachers identified the experience of viewing fauna through the professional development as an important part of describing the event as geography.

In addition to seeing the nature of the experience as geographic, the teachers recognized the focus of professional development as teaching. They discussed, thought, and planned for teaching.

I typically teach Jack London's "To Build a Fire" to my English I students in the fall. The information about the gold rush from the first session will allow me to better set up the historical context for my students. I feel that my better understanding of the needs and desires of those involved will translate to my students, and the subject matter will appeal to many of my reluctant readers. Another way I plan to incorporate what I've learned is in my Honors classes. We do a unit on Naturalist authors where we read excerpts from Thoreau's *Walden* and some of Whitman's poetry from *Leaves of Grass*. After last year's trip, I added some of the writing of John Muir to the unit, and now I'll be adding the stories of Rockwell Kent, as well as using his painting Resurrection Bay, which I was able to see and take a picture of at the Anchorage Museum. . . . This artwork will offer my students . . . [an opportunity] to think critically and analytically. (Stephanie)

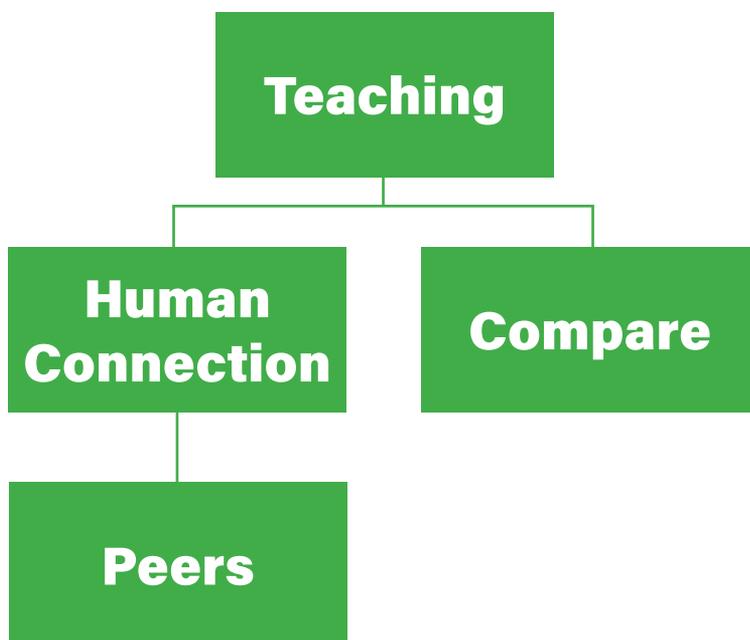
The teachers thought of ways they could incorporate their professional development experience into their classrooms to augment their present practices. They also considered how their new experiences would influence their students and shape the assessment practices in the classroom.

The themes of human connection and comparison supported the theme of teaching as seen in Figure 2. The teachers found the human connection important as an idea that defined the nature of their experience in the professional development. Individuals, local people, guides, and facilitators all enriched the teachers and their experiences.

The diversity of the people and the vastness of the territory are two of the things that I find most interesting. The toughness of the people to thrive in this environment is very impressive. These people have faced many challenges, but always seem to find a way to adapt and move on. (Mike)

Figure 2

*Theme of Teaching
in Relationship to the
Themes of Human
Connection and
Comparison and the
Subtheme of Peers*



The teachers enjoyed sitting face-to-face with new people who had similar issues in their lives but lived in different locations. The teachers appreciated the interaction with content experts and professionals who acted as interpreters to the people.

The subtheme from teacher reflection responses of peers supported the assertion of human connections. Peer interaction was an important idea to the participants, who found it to be a major concept in their professional development. Teachers found their peers to be both relational and instructive as important factors in mediating their understanding of the trip. Brent said, "We have a number of hours to discuss

educational topics and gain insight into how to better serve our students.” Teachers liked passing the time with their friends, but they also relished the conversations of their peers. Teachers discussed the people they met, the unique experiences they were having, and how the trip was changing them.

Teachers identified an important aspect of the professional development to be the comparison that they did between their home and the site they visited. Comparison was an important idea that allowed them to consider their location and the similarities and differences with other places.

. . . people have found ways to survive and bind themselves to the land. I can't help but think of home. Appalachia is very different from Alaska in many obvious ways, but the deeper I consider the connection, there are some less obvious similarities. The connections to Appalachia became more important to me with every day that I spent in Alaska. Alaska's reliance upon natural resources as the extract industries are very similar to the coal and steel of home in the Rust Belts. Whether it is oil, gold, fish, or coal, this is not, nor has it ever been, easy work. A reliance upon the land breeds a love and respect for the land. While our mountains in Appalachia may not rival Denali, the humbling feeling of being hugged by the landscape persists just as the people do. (Adam)

Some of the guest speakers made comparisons between the two locations—their home and the home of the teachers. Some of the teachers also made comparisons between land, people, teaching, and social problems. The themes of geography and teaching had the largest impact on the teachers during the professional development.

Teacher Initiative

On the trip, one of the teachers partnered with another he met in Alaska, and they developed a team-teaching experience. They created a series of classroom experiences with Zoom that allowed students to compare their life in Appalachian Ohio with that of students in tribal community Alaska. Each teacher talked about life in his respective community for the students in the other state.

As the initial teacher talked with his peers, other educators desired to try team teaching to enrich their classrooms. Ultimately, 10 teachers formed partnerships to work with other teachers in the group to present information in each of their classrooms. The regional educational service center provided funding for substitute teachers to cover the classrooms. Teachers reported the results of their experience to the entire group of teachers.

One cluster of Grades 10-12 teachers presented information on New England using PowerPoint, video, food, and puppets in an Appalachian studies class. Even though their curriculum leads the teachers to study regional economies, they are still using information they learned the year before. The teachers started by making connection to animals of the west such as via the bison puppet, which was much safer than bringing in a bison, and brought in a live lobster to discuss the geographical impact of the fishing industry. The teachers demonstrated the economics of the global maple production business with a silver dollar pancake and real maple syrup for each student along with another export: blueberries for blueberry muffins. This was followed with the implications of global warming on syrup production and fishing. Students examined the number one industry of Maine—tourism—and then looked at maps of New England states and the ski industry. Looking at the population of

the New England states, the students considered state constitutions and town government. This cluster of teachers incorporated their summer experience into designing instructional experiences that illustrate the ideas in Figure 1 about culture and wilderness as reflected in food traditions and monetizing wilderness tourism. Based on experiences in Alaska, teachers developed topics of instruction built on the similarities between the two regions.

A cluster of three Grade 12 teachers looked at issues in senior Appalachian Studies classes, including coal mining, future planning, and music. As the teachers examined current cultural problems from a historic perspective, they developed context. The teachers helped their students by using maps to identify the geography of Appalachia and delineate the history of the region since the Washington presidency. The teachers shared why the people came and the countries that influenced both the language and music. They discussed the history of the coal wars between labor and management in their area and, using maps that illustrated routes used in migration to the northwest, discerned patterns in migration—some migrations permanently for work and others just to make enough money before returning home. They provided migration statistics. Teachers then described life in the midwest for Appalachians and negative stereotypes before interviewing Appalachians. Students discussed by referencing their prior research and shared their conclusions about Appalachian culture. This cluster of teachers incorporated their summer field studies into their classroom instructional practices by examining the ideas of human connection as they looked at stories of migration and made comparisons in relation to issues in their own Appalachian region.

Conclusions

Field trips have been used for many years to support the work of secondary social studies teachers. In this program, providing inservice to teachers through field studies translated into experiences that teachers applied into their curriculum for secondary social studies students. Teachers took the initiative based on their field studies to improve their classroom teaching experience. Their peers and the regional educational service center staff supported their endeavors to improve their classroom performance through facilitating team-teaching experiences. Teachers worked together with their teams to enhance their classroom practice as a result of the teacher professional development program.

Teachers discovered meaning on their field studies to Alaska by identifying ideas such as native experience and how the instructors interpreted it as culture. They also found the ideas of nature and fauna in their field studies experience. The ideas of culture, nature, and fauna all combined into the idea of wilderness in the field studies, leading to the broader theme of geography as seen in Figure 1. Similarly, in their field studies the teachers found the idea of peers, which broadened into the idea of human connection. The ideas of human connection and comparison supported the idea of teaching as the second major trend of the field studies experience as seen in Figure 2.

Teachers discovered meaning from the field studies as illustrated in Figures 1 and 2. The field studies experience inspired the teachers with new content and insights about the places they visited. They carried that meaning back to their home communities, where they applied thoughts and ideas in their classrooms. The teachers innovated a network of team-teaching experiences that would help them convey information to their students. Using the same ideas from Figures 1 and 2, the teachers created team-teaching clusters to instruct their students in the ideas that were so important to the

field studies that they had experienced. The teachers innovated in their instructional strategies and were supported by peers and the institution to enhance the learning experiences of their students. The combination of the themes of teaching and geography reflected the teachers' focus on the site content and their continuing concentration on their application of information into their professional daily activities.

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- Although there is a suggested theme for each issue of the *Journal*, manuscripts on all topics are welcome. The *Collegial Exchange* is not theme-based.
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- Please see Submission Grid on the following page for specific requirements of the types of manuscripts appropriate for publication.
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- References should refer only to materials cited within the text. Nonretrievable material, such as papers, reports of limited circulation, unpublished works, and personal communications, should be restricted to works absolutely essential to the manuscript.
- Abbreviations should be explained at their first appearance in the text. Educational jargon (e.g., preservice, K–10, etc.) should be defined as it occurs in the text.
- Place tables and figures on separate pages at the end of the manuscript. Use Arabic numerals and indicate approximate placement in the text.
- Photos, graphics, charts, etc. that may enhance the presentation of the manuscript may be included. Contact the editorial staff (bulletin@dkg.org) for information regarding the use of photos.

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Publication	Submission Type and Description	Word Length	Requirements
<i>Journal</i>	Action/Classroom Research: Organized, systematic, and reflective analysis of classroom practice with implications for future practice in teaching and learning.	1,500-4,000	Abstract; documentation; bio; photo
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<i>Journal</i>	Review of Literature: Presents supporting and nonsupporting evidence to clarify a topic and/or problem of interest and value to educators; synthesizes and critiques the literature; draws conclusions; mentions procedures for selecting and reviewing literature; may include narrative review, best evidence synthesis, or meta-analysis.	1,500-3,000	Abstract; documentation; bio; photo
<i>Journal</i>	Program Description: Provides an overview and details of a single program in an educational setting. Goals, resources, and outcomes are included. No marketing or promotion of a program is allowed.	1,500-2,000	Abstract; documentation; bio; photo
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<i>Collegial Exchange</i>	Book Review: Combines a summary and personal critique of a textbook, resource, or book (fiction or nonfiction) related to education or to women and children	400-700	Bio; photo
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