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. All five issues include book and technology reviews, letters to the editor, poetry, and graphic arts.

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 page 75). 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, P.O. Box 1589, Austin, TX 78767-1589. The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International, P.O. Box 1589, Austin, TX 78767-1589.
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Call for Submissions

Members are encouraged to submit manuscripts for consideration by the Bulletin Editorial Board. The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin: Journal accepts research-based articles including Action/Classroom Research, Qualitative Research, Quantitative Research, Reviews of Literature, Program Descriptions, Position Papers, and Book/Technology Reviews. The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin: Collegial Exchange accepts articles of a more practical, personal nature, including 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, concise, and appropriate for Bulletin readers. 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 75 and the Submission Grids on page 76.

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

**Collegial Exchange (83-2; Print)**
(Postmark deadline is August 1, 2016)
No designated theme

**Systems to Address Quality Teaching (83-3; Online)**
(Postmark deadline is October 1, 2016)
professional development • certification • alternate routes • early-career educators • defining quality • National Board Certification

**Collegial Exchange (83-4; Print)**
(Postmark deadline is December 15, 2016)
No designated theme

**Culturally Proficient Leaders (83-5; Online)**
(Postmark deadline is March 1, 2017)
training • cultural change • meeting diverse student needs • role inclusion • collaborative leadership • building school community

Submit all materials to:

**Bulletin Editorial Staff**
bulletin@dkg.org
The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin: International Journal for Professional Educators

From the Editor

One special benefit of being a member of Delta Kappa Gamma derives from the Society’s inclusion of educators from 17 countries, which sets the stage for a focus on global education and international perspectives, the theme of this issue. In addition to being able to interact and share with colleagues from other countries at international conventions and in international committee work, DKG members fulfill the Society’s vision of Key Women Educators Impacting Education Worldwide in a number of ways: by collaboration with UNICEF in the Schools for Africa project; by participation in the Committee for Teaching about the United Nations (CTAUN) conferences; by providing world fellowships; and by sponsoring forums for Europe, Canada, Latin America, and the United States. In this issue, members share information and perspectives to enhance readers’ understanding of education around the globe and approaches to expanding the global insights of learners.

Exploring DKG’s collaboration and interaction with the United Nations, editorial board member Pollard interviews Anne-Marie Carlson, a member who has been actively involved in the evolution of this partnership. With the global stage set, authors offer insights into a variety of international educational experiences. Bazley takes readers to Bush Alaska, a unique setting used, in this case, to broaden the cultural horizons of preservice teachers and to remind readers of the challenges of education in remote locations. Clement unveils some of the mystery behind how teachers are trained for work in private Christian schools in China, exploring both a unique setting and concepts of support for early-career educators. Lundström and Teikari provide Scandinavian insights through articles, respectively, about the information and communication technologies that drive instruction in Sweden and the much-admired educational system in Finland.

Even as Angus urges DKG members to expand a Canadian mentoring project internationally, Sindelar describes a project initiated through Communicating Common Ground, a U.S.-based service-learning initiative in multicultural education. Figueroa Murphy explores dual language programs that provide a two-way immersion approach to bilingual education, and Wall reminds readers of ways two very old languages, Greek and Latin, can help modern students.

As ever, general interest articles supplement those on the issue’s theme. Williams and her students provide interesting perspectives on service learning, noting what they consider to be the “real truth” regarding such initiatives. Finally, McLaughlin reviews a book that explores the implications of technology expansion, particularly in the field of education.

In 2001, the Europe-wide Global Education Congress, held in Maastricht, the Netherlands, resulted in the Maastricht Global Education Declaration (2002), which noted: “Global education is education that opens people’s eyes and minds to the realities of the globalized world and awakens them to bring about a world of greater justice, equity
and human rights for all.” Surely this declaration will sound familiar to DKG members who know the Society’s Purpose 7, which is supported by this issue: To inform the members of current economic, social, political and educational issues so that they may participate effectively in a world society.

At the 2014 International Convention, a motion was made to expand a description of what may be included in the DKG Bulletin to include “abstracts printed in languages other than English.” This was an amendment of a proposal to allow publication of full articles in languages other than English. Ultimately, the International Editorial Board and International Communications & Publicity Committee were charged with researching and reviewing the matter.

After due consideration, the editorial board recommended amendment of ISR 12.21 to read:

12.21 The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin may include
   (j) abstracts printed in languages other than English.

This recommended amendment will be considered at the 2016 International Convention in Nashville, TN. The rationale for the recommendation is that allowing printing of abstracts in languages other than English will address the central issue of equity even as it eliminates or minimizes the considerable credibility and fiscal issues identified by members of the editorial board and communications and publicity committee regarding publication of full articles in other languages.

If this amendment is adopted, the submission process will include guidelines such as the following:

Members (authors) must submit the article and abstract in English. If the author wishes to have the abstract published in her native language, she must submit a translation of the abstract (from English to the native language) as supporting information. Translations provided as supporting information for final versions of the article will be published as submitted by the author(s) and will not be corrected or checked for content or typographical errors. The responsibility for accuracy remains entirely with the author(s). A disclaimer will be displayed to this effect with any supporting information published.

The editorial board will appreciate members’ support of this proposed amendment in an effort to create and honor greater international participation in the Society’s publications.

Judith R. Merz, EdD
Editor
The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin: International Journal for Professional Educators

The DKG-UN Partnership: An Interview with Anne-Marie Carlson
By Nora Pollard

An issue devoted to the theme of Global Education and International Perspectives would not be complete without consideration of The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International’s collaboration and interaction with the United Nations. Editorial board member Pollard shares insights from an interview with a DKG member who has been actively involved in the evolution of this partnership: Anne-Marie Carlson.

Anne-Marie Carlson, a member of Phi Chapter in Pi State Organization (New York), had a vision that Delta Kappa Gamma (DKG) should be involved with the United Nations. She worked diligently, achieving that goal in the early 1990s, sharing in the development of the DKG-UN partnership, and representing the Society in multiple roles. In an interview, we explored her path to this vision; the evolution of the Society’s involvement with the UN; and key issues at the international level.

The Path to a Vision
Anne-Marie’s interest in international education has long roots. Her parents were both from Norway, where she had family whom she would visit and from whom she learned about education in that country. After completing her degrees at Hunter College in New York, Anne-Marie found herself with an opportunity to work at the international school in Indonesia, where she taught reading to elementary-aged children for 2 years. Upon returning to New York, she continued to work as an elementary school teacher, reading specialist, and supervisor.

A member of DKG for 45 years, Anne-Marie has been a staunch supporter of the organization and has served at the chapter, state, and international levels. In 1980, Anne-Marie was chosen to attend the inaugural session of the Golden Gift Leadership/Management Seminar held at Baylor University. After attending the seminar, she progressed in work with the organization, holding a variety of positions, including state president, chair of a number of international committees, and Member-at-Large. Her participation did not end there, as she became interested in DKG seeking status as a Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) affiliated with the United Nations (UN).

The Evolution of the Partnership
Anne-Marie saw NGO status with the UN as a means for fulfilling the seventh Purpose of DKG, “To inform the members of current economic, social, political and educational issues so that they may participate effectively in a world society.” In 1993,
while serving as the chair of the International Professional Affairs Committee and member of the International Program Committee, Anne-Marie approached then international president Dr. Ruby Matthews from South Carolina with the idea and was encouraged to proceed. Staunch supporters of the idea were Joan Anderson from Nebraska, chair of the International Program Committee, and Dr. Isabel Wheeler from Tennessee, who was serving as Program Services Administrator at Society Headquarters. The next step in the journey was to propose an amendment to the International Standing Rules to present to the membership at the 1994 international convention. The amendment passed and, in June 1995, DKG was approved as a Non-Governmental Organization with the Department of Public Information at the UN. Anne-Marie was appointed as DKG's first representative to the UN.

In 1996, Anne-Marie was invited to join a small group of representatives from other NGOs who were concerned about educational issues worldwide. The focus of this group was how to teach about the United Nations, resulting in the birth of the Committee on Teaching About the United Nations (CTAUN). Anne-Marie co-chaired CTAUN from 1998 until 2002 and has been the chair of the committee since 2003. Under her leadership, CTAUN has sponsored 17 conferences about global issues at UN Headquarters in New York, as well as in Georgia, Texas, and Indiana. Two of these conferences were held at the University of Texas at Austin, with steering committee meetings held at Society Headquarters in Austin, Texas.

Through the UN, DKG became involved in several noteworthy projects. Anne-Marie’s belief that DKG members would be interested in supporting children in other countries led to the Society’s work with UNICEF. Through this connection with UNICEF, DKG developed a project to help families of young children in Gambia by contributing funds toward the children’s school fees and, later, through the US Fund for UNICEF, focused on helping to create child-friendly schools in Mexico. Encouraging teacher education in Afghanistan was a third project resulting from the DKG-UN collaboration. In 2010, DKG members became involved in the Schools for Africa project, an ongoing effort at the Society’s international level. The Schools for Africa project focuses on 13 sub-Saharan Africa countries, “providing access to quality basic education for children, focusing on girls, orphans and other vulnerable youngsters” (dkg.org).

Dr. Nora Pollard has been an active member of DKG since 2004. She has served Lambda Chapter as chair of many committees, including communications/newsletter editor, as well as secretary, vice president, and president. In Alpha Zeta State Organization (NJ), she has served as newsletter co-editor and chair of the initiation, leadership development, and strategic action plan committees. Nora attended the 2010 Golden Gift Leadership/Management Seminar and currently serves at the international level as a member of the editorial board. nora.pollard@att.net

Anne-Marie Carlson has been a member of Phi Chapter in Pt State Organization (NY) since 1970. A recipient of numerous scholarships and honors, Carlson has served in elected and appointed positions at the international level since 1982, including election as Member-at-Large from 1998-2002. As the article details, she has been deeply involved in the collaboration between DKG and the United Nations since 1995 and, in particular, in the evolution of the Committee on Teaching About the United Nations (CTAUN). dfcamc@aol.com
An International View

When Anne-Marie discussed her top concerns for education globally, it became apparent that the issues are the same throughout the world. She noted that the number one concern today revolves around refugee issues. Among the concerns for refugees, housing, education, and health care for children and women are paramount. Poverty is another issue for educators globally. Children who arrive at school without sufficient food in the home cannot focus on learning. If children are worried about where they will sleep that night, concentration on their lessons may be impacted. These situations contribute to the repetition of the cycle of poverty. Specific to education, Anne-Marie noted two major problems: a concern about promoting quality primary education for children worldwide and high drop-out rates in many countries. She argued that keeping children in school longer and providing them with strong basic skills may reduce the cycle of poverty.

How can DKG members assist with these global concerns? First, support the international Society’s Schools for Africa project. Chapter and state organization level projects contributing to Schools for Africa are recommended to support the growing needs in that area of the world. Involvement in world food programs is also a possible way for members to assist. Such programs can assist not only those living in poverty, but also those in communities hit by natural disasters such as cyclones or earthquakes. Such projects are worthy recipients of assistance from DKG members, who are united by the DKG vision of “Leading Women Educators Impacting Education Worldwide.”
Four Kutztown University undergraduate teacher candidates journeyed to rural Alaskan village schools to observe and teach in this unique environment. This trip expanded the students’ cultural awareness by exposing them to the Athabasca and Aleut ways of life. It also enabled them to differentiate the preparation that is necessary to be successful in a remote, rural teaching environment versus the urban, suburban, and semi-rural environments that are more common throughout the United States. The students were responsible for authoring reflections on their experiences that covered four dimensions: (1) the schools visited; (2) functioning of an Alaskan school pen-pal project and online tutoring program; (3) the standards-based performance system used by the Alaskan district; and (4) other impressions and observations. Consistent with the literature on teaching-abroad programs for prospective teachers, the students found that living and teaching in the Alaskan villages provided an unparalleled opportunity to understand the role of diversity and culture in the classroom.

Those in the teacher-education profession know the value of placing students in a “real” classroom as interns. These experiences permit students the opportunity to put into practice the knowledge and skills they have learned from their coursework, although most often in urban, suburban, and semi-rural American classrooms. But how do educators prepare those adventurous, if not rare, students who seek to teach in remote, rural environments, such as those found in Alaska? Although these students require the same classroom preparation and knowledge provided to all undergraduate education majors, nothing but onsite experience can fully prepare a prospective teacher for an assignment in a remote Alaskan village school.

In the spring of 2013, four undergraduate students and teacher candidates from Kutztown University (KU) in Pennsylvania were afforded just such an experience, i.e., to visit, observe, and teach in this unique education environment. As in many teacher-preparation programs in the “Lower 48” states, these students had largely been exposed to educational systems commonly found in urban, suburban, and semi-rural areas. The students who made this 11-day trip to what is often referred to as “Bush” Alaska were required to prepare daily reflections of their thoughts, experiences, and observations. This
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article reviews these reflections in an effort to differentiate the expectations and preparation necessary for teaching in a remote Alaskan village as opposed to teaching in an urban, suburban, or semi-rural school system elsewhere in the United States. In doing so, it adds to the literature that has promoted the need to broaden the cultural perspectives of the next generation of teachers.

Expanding Cultural Awareness in Teacher Candidates

The literature on teacher preparation reflects a growing recognition of the value of providing “teaching abroad” opportunities to prospective educators. The argument for such programs is based on the need for U.S. educators to develop an enhanced cultural awareness due to the increasing diversity in American schools. Marx and Moss (2011), along with Cwick and Benton (2009), strongly supported total immersion in another society as means to broadening a teacher’s cultural awareness. Additionally, Trilokekar and Kukar (2011) credited teaching-abroad experiences for teacher candidates as a means to develop a greater worldview and global consciousness.

Cwick and Benton (2009) found teacher-abroad programs can be differentiated based on their duration. Short-term programs last a few weeks and usually involve traveling among various countries and staying several days in each location. This experience allows candidates to learn about schools in various areas within a limited time frame. Long-term study abroad programs last anywhere from 8 to 16 weeks. This type of experience affords greater immersion in an area and allows teacher candidates to acquire a deeper sense of the culture.

An alternative to total immersion as a means to broaden cultural awareness is described by McMillon (2009) as a pen-pal project between teacher candidates and inner-city students. In this project, largely White, middle-class, prospective teachers corresponded with predominantly African American, at-risk fourth graders in an inner-city school as a way to obtain a greater understanding of their respective cultures and the literacy barriers these inner-city students faced. As byproduct, this correspondence exchange also provided the fourth graders a view of educational and career opportunities that could be available to them in the future.

Less discussed in the literature are opportunities for U.S. teacher candidates (i.e., those from the Lower 48 states) to become immersed in small, remote villages in Alaska where the resident populations are primarily comprised of various Native American ethnicities and the perspectives that such experiences provide. The preservice teachers who took part in this journey became acquainted with the Athabasca and Aleut cultures, as most of the residents in the villages that they visited were of these ethnicities. As one of the visiting students (Student A) noted, “The Athabasca and Aleut cultures are more than just something that individuals are born into; it (sic) is a way of life that is followed in ‘Bush’ Alaska.” The name Athabasca was given by the Cree Indians after the large Canadian Lake Athabasca (ANKN, 2006). The Athabasca people refer to themselves as Dena or

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Kelsey White, Mallory Bobak, and Cialey Pintande are undergraduate students and Ambria Liles is a graduate student at Kutztown University, Kutztown, Pennsylvania.
the people. Traditional tenets of this culture include respect for all living things and the importance of sharing within the community (Alaska Native Heritage Center, 2011).

Aleut is the name most often used for the individuals who settled on the Aleutian archipelago, including the Pribilof Islands, the Alaska Peninsula, and the Aleutian Islands. The Aleut name was given by the Russian fur traders who entered this area around 1750, although many Aleutian people refer to themselves as “Unangan” or “coastal people” (APICDA, 2013). Present-day Aleutians live a subsistence life that relies heavily on the sea for economic livelihood; in addition, they hunt and fish for most of their food. “They hold fast to their traditional culture and values by teaching past and present Aleut customs to their descendants so that, they too, can culturally teach and train the following generations” (The Aleut Corporation, 2012, ¶19). The current population of Aleuts is approximately 2,200, and about 300 speak the native Aleut language (APICDA, 2013).

The following review of the reflections prepared by students who took part in the journey to Bush Alaska supports the value of immersing students in unfamiliar cultures as means to broaden their cultural awareness and horizons. This immersion opportunity was an outgrowth of a pen-pal project with a village school in Alaska that, in turn, evolved into an online tutoring program as well.

Pen-pal Project and Online Tutoring Program

KU has entered into an educational partnership with a school district in Alaska that has afforded preservice teachers the opportunity to engage in several projects with students who attend small, remote village schools within this district. This partnership began with a focus on Alaskan children in Grades K-2 and largely of Athabasca origin. It has since expanded to involve Grades K-6 in multiple villages, some of which are comprised largely of Athabasca people, while others are Aleut. In any event, a common attribute throughout these villages is that school children have little access to age-appropriate books, writing supplies, and materials outside of their classrooms.

The relationship between KU and Bush Alaska began in the fall of 2010 as the Kutztown University Liaison Project, under the guidance of KU professor, Dr. Kristen Bazley. Through this project, students in undergraduate and graduate teacher-education classes were paired with children in an Alaskan classroom to provide instructional assistance. The goals of this initial undertaking were twofold. First, graduate and undergraduate teacher-education students were to gain new insights and appreciation for a culture to which they may have had little or no prior exposure, thus enhancing their professional preparation in terms of diversity development and perhaps even career choices (Bazley, 2012).

A second goal of the project was for these students to practice the creation of learning activities that had been introduced to them in their classes for each specific child using Alaska’s state standards. Prior to this project, the undergraduate students had little experience creating an educational-based activity that would be put into the hands of a specific child; rather, most of their classroom training consisted of developing mock lessons or activities. University students were provided information about the Athabasca culture and the village through classroom instruction and research. Importantly, to assist the assigned university partner in working with each child, the Alaskan classroom teacher also provided a biography of each student in terms of his or her academic interests and educational needs. With this type of information, the university students communicated throughout the semester via e-mail and Skype with their paired Alaskan students for the purpose of customizing appropriate educational materials and activities that would address the identified needs and interests of each child for use both in the classroom and the students’ homes. For
example, these materials included activities geared toward learning the alphabet, word identification, reading comprehension, and math facts, as well as learning about other states in the United States, science, and geography. Graduate students, who were largely inservice teachers, were able to include their own classroom students through a pen-pal exchange, thus exposing their students to a new cultural experience. Upon completion by the university students, the learning materials were shipped to the village and distributed to the children in the classrooms. As the children became proficient in using these activities, they took them to their homes for further practice and reinforcement of the skills (Bazley, 2012).

Within 2 years, the KU Liaison Project gained popularity among the participating KU students and was recognized by the school district as making a positive contribution to student learning in its district classrooms. This recognition, in turn, resulted in the expansion of the project to encompass online distance tutoring in Alaskan district classrooms by participating university students. In addition, selected KU students were provided an opportunity to visit these classrooms in order to gain on-site experience in this educational environment and observe the impact of their work with the Liaison Project.

The Alaska Reflections
The KU students who made the journey to Bush Alaska were required to reflect on their experiences in terms of the following dimensions: (a) the schools they visited; (b) functioning of the pen-pal project and online tutoring program in which they participated while on the KU campus; (c) the standards-based performance system used by the Alaskan district; and (d) other impressions and observations. Student reflections regarding these dimensions are discussed in the sections that follow in a composite manner, as there was little commentary variation among the participating students. Direct quotes from specific students are used to elaborate and highlight these findings, as appropriate.

The Schools
An immediate observation made by the university students was the small size of the communities they were visiting and the schools that serve these communities. The largest village on the trip had about 500 residents, while other villages were even smaller. They quickly found that these small populations resulted in a correspondingly small student-to-teacher ratio of about 7.5 to 1. Each of the university students noted that this small student-to-teacher ratio permitted one-on-one instruction that would not be possible in many schools in the Lower 48 states, where student populations are often larger.

The visiting university students noted that these communities were described to them by their host teachers and village residents as “fishing” villages, because seasonal commercial fishing was the primary form of employment for most of the working population. The university students found teachers to be trusted and respected members of their communities—communities that are “close-knit” and family-like. They observed
a relationship between culture and education that has existed for many years and has contributed to a working bond between teachers and students, teachers and the community, and students and their parents.

The university students found the concept of “tabula rasa” (i.e., every student comes to school as a “blank slate”) was evident in the investment made by both educators and guardians in nurturing youth in these communities. They became acquainted with vocational and career programs created by both the schools and the elders in the communities to assist in the new generation’s growth. These programs were tailored to meet the needs of individual students by extending the traditional school setting into career-development training. For instance, students were afforded opportunities to travel outside of their villages to receive vocational training that could lead to employment in a trade. One example provided to the visiting KU students was that of a high school student who traveled outside his village to receive vocational training as a welder. KU Student A reflected on this program as follows: “The student fulfills standards for graduation in the district, receives higher-level credit for exploring different areas of concentration, gains a perspective on another village, and has learned a trade that can be used to improve their (sic) home community.” Thus, students who participated in this program fulfilled the requirements for high school graduation, gained new perspectives from traveling and visiting other communities, and then brought viable occupational skills back to their villages.

Pen-pal and Online Tutoring Observations

Before arriving in the villages in Alaska, the KU students who had participated in the online tutoring (a grant-funded program established by the partnership district) were slowly beginning to see subtle results of their efforts. For example, one Alaskan student who would only type answers to questions eventually began giving verbal answers through use of a microphone, a development that marked an improvement in this student’s verbal communication skills. However, the onsite visits afforded the KU students a far better vantage point to observe the impact of their online efforts. The visiting teacher candidates observed and reflected that pen-pal letters brightened the Alaskan students’ day. They could not wait to read the letters. The Alaskan students followed a routine once they received their individual letters. They would highlight or circle each of the questions asked by their university pen pals, so they knew to create a response to that question in their return letter. Each student carefully read his or her letter, highlighting questions that may have been asked, and remembering any details that their KU pen pals disclosed about themselves. They also took great care and pride in the learning activities they received from their pen pals. The visiting KU students had opportunities to interact with the Alaskan students in utilizing these activities and observed how these activities enhanced student learning in a fun and enjoyable manner.

In one village, teacher candidates and the professor were able to view a KU online,
distance-tutoring session in math. Watching this session allowed the university students to observe the impact of their online tutoring efforts from the perspectives of the Alaskan students. It was quite evident that the Alaskan students were fully engaged in their online tutoring sessions and enjoyed the opportunity for contact from outside their villages. These students were also pleased with the one-on-one attention they received from their university tutors because their questions were readily clarified and they would not have to leave a topic until they gained a full understanding.

Observing a session from the perspective of those in the Alaskan classroom allowed participants to take ideas back to Pennsylvania and implement them into online sessions. For instance, it became clear that establishing a personal rapport with the student at the outset of a tutoring session was essential for productive tutoring to occur. Simply asking the student about his or her day, what he or she enjoyed doing outside of school, and so forth, often established the type of foundation necessary for moving forward with the tutoring session. When responding to this type of question, one student told his KU tutor that he enjoyed snowball fights with his brother, and at the end of the session, the tutor told this student that their next meeting would include word problems that involved snowball fights—a prospect that visibly pleased the Alaskan student.

It was also apparent that tutors needed to maintain constant activity and contact throughout the tutoring session in order to retain students’ attention. The university students observed that tutors were most effective when using visual aids in their sessions, such as the whiteboard function in the software Blackboard Collaborate. Moreover, use of Blackboard Collaborate video function permitted tutors to view students’ facial expressions as content was presented, which helped them evaluate students’ understanding and progress.

**Standards-based Performance Systems**

The schools in the district visited by the KU students utilized a standards-based performance system. In this type of system, students worked towards meeting specific, predetermined standards and were able to do so at their own pace. Students did not move on to the next level until they met at least 80% proficiency. Generally speaking, they were able to move through the standards quickly or to take the time they needed to fully grasp a concept. As discussed above, class sizes were small, but it was also not uncommon to have students on different grade levels or different achievement levels in various subjects. For example, one student was at Grade 1 level in math and Grade 2 level in reading.

Teachers differentiated instruction for their students in order to meet the needs of every level in their classrooms. Eight sets of standards existed that the students must meet from Kindergarten to 12th grade. These included standards for reading, math, social studies, writing, science, cultural awareness, employability, and technology. Typically, direct instruction was used for math and reading. AIMSWeb and Aleks were the two main software programs that the KU students observed being used for progress monitoring in reading and math.

Student B commented that this standards-based system differed from the prevailing structure in place in most schools in the Lower 48 states in many ways. Perhaps most notably, the classroom curriculum was flexible, based on the students’ needs and not on their assigned grade levels. One village teacher told Student D “she loves the flexibility to teach the best way for her students as long as standards are being met and the proper information is being relayed.” In comparison, schools in the Lower 48 typically have a strict curriculum that needs to be followed, all too often resulting in some students who
are passed along from grade to grade without being completely ready to move on. With the standards-based system, students were able to take the time they needed to meet the required criteria, and they did not have to be on the same grade level in all subjects. As Student A noted, another village teacher suggested that “the standards-based system works well for the particular cultures in the villages, and these students would not work well in our Lower 48 standards system.” A final observation made by the university students was that the standards-based system provided the Alaskan students with accountability and motivation to achieve academically.

Other Impressions and Observations

A frequent concern expressed to the KU students was the prevalence of alcoholism in Bush Alaska communities, to the extent that drinking alcohol has grown to be a part of the culture. Student C wrote, “I read in the research prior to our visit that one of the major maladies in Bush Alaska is widespread alcoholism...” Further, one village faculty member told Student C, “Sadly, drinking has grown to be a part of the culture, and a large majority of the adult population drinks heavily.” As noted by Jester (2002), this is a problem that has had a negative impact on student performance. In the villages visited by the KU students, classroom teachers attributed frequent student absences to a combination of alcoholism and the culture’s laid-back lifestyle, because parents did not wake up on time to take their children to school. These teachers noted that it was not uncommon for students to arrive at school in the morning and have difficulty focusing because they had not eaten breakfast. Student D noted this problem during her school visits but then saw a vast improvement in attention span after lunch. She speculated that students coming to school hungry could be an outcome of low-income households and alcoholic parents. Unfortunately, this speculation draws support from published data on poverty and substance abuse in Alaska. For instance, according to the U.S. Census Bureau, the poverty rate for the area of the schools visited, 17.7%, was above both the statewide and national rates (i.e., 11.2% and 14.8%, respectively). Moreover, data collected through the 2009 National Survey on Drug Use and Health showed rates of dependence on illicit drugs and alcohol among Alaskan residents to be among the highest in the country on most measures (2009).

The KU students’ reflections also contained sentiments expressed by many of the teachers they visited that education is generally not viewed as a high priority in these remote village communities. Faculty members in all three villages visited commented that, typically, many students do not leave their villages once they complete school and move into adulthood, and as a result, many parents do not attach great importance to education for purposes of upward mobility. Not surprisingly, this type of attitude contributes to frequent student absenteeism, which the faculty members viewed as a problematic. In fact, one Alaskan school Web site warned that students who missed more than 13 days of school in the average school year of 170 days would not graduate in 4 years (Neumann, 2012). In response, Student B reflected, “These statistics show just how vital it is for students to be in school on a daily basis in order to graduate within the general 4-year period.”

In the course of discussing student absenteeism, the Alaskan teachers also commented that their students frequently missed school due to sports competitions taking place in different villages and in Anchorage. In one village, they mentioned that students were absent due to travel with the family during the school year. However, teachers also voiced the sentiment that the standards-based system discussed above does help to offset negative factors, such as hunger and frequent absences, that cause students to fall behind in their schoolwork. Moreover, if the student transfers to another village school, the curriculum
remains consistent due to the standards-based system, thus enabling a continued progression of learning.

Discussion and Conclusions

The reflections submitted by each of these students revealed that this journey was an invaluable experience. Not surprisingly, both their written and verbal remarks expressed sentiments that they came away with a far broader and more comprehensive understanding of teaching in a diverse and rural environment than they could have acquired through coursework and textbooks.

Each of the four dimensions on which they focused helped to differentiate the expectations and preparation needed to take on this type of teaching assignment from those more typically found in the Lower 48. First, the schools were smaller in size and thus had small enrollments, class sizes, and faculties. Of course, these small schools were a function of the small communities in which they were located, which in turn permitted greater familiarity among the teachers and their students and families. The teachers in the Alaskan villages were truly part of their communities and not just “8 a.m.-to-4 p.m. teachers and community members” as may be the case at many Lower 48 schools. Whether this level of close proximity and familiarity has broad appeal to those in the teaching profession is open to discussion, but the visiting university students reflected that close relationships among teachers, students, and their families seemed to enhance the students’ learning experiences.

The Internet affords these students much needed contact with the world outside their villages. Thus, not only does online tutoring staffed by KU preservice teachers augment classroom instruction provided in the Alaskan villages, but the pen-pal correspondence program has also proved to be a form of positive communication and interaction for these students. Perhaps even more so than in most Lower 48 schools, teachers in Bush Alaska need to be able to exploit fully the advantages of computer and Internet technology to provide a twenty-first century educational experience for their students.

The standards-based performance system used in the Alaskan villages is a departure from the performance system found in most Lower 48 schools. This system provides many advantages, as discussed above, for the unique environmental circumstances that are present in schools in the Alaskan Bush. In Pennsylvania, and perhaps elsewhere in the Lower 48, undergraduate teacher-education programs do not prepare students to teach in districts that utilize a standards-based performance system. Thus, prospective teachers who acquire positions in districts where this type of performance system is present would have to adapt and learn how to function within this type of approach while on the job.

The final dimension covered by the visiting students was “other impressions and observations.” The consensus reflection expressed by the students on this open-ended dimension related to diversity and cultural awareness. Not surprisingly, none of these students had prior contact with the Athabascan and Aleut ethnicities before becoming involved with the pen-pal and online tutoring programs at KU. The opportunity to become immersed in these cultures through their journey to Bush Alaska provided an unparalleled familiarization opportunity; these sentiments are consistent with those expressed by Marx and Moss (2011) and Cwick and Benton, (2009). The university students commented in their reflections that, even though they had had diversity coursework, until they spent time in the Alaskan village classrooms, they did not realize how essential it was to integrate students’ culture into their teaching approaches to enhance learning. After watching students sing a song in English and then in their native Athabascan language, Student A reflected, “Although I have observed in many classrooms in Pennsylvania, I never saw how
to truly integrate culture with curriculum as I saw here. It really gives them a sense of who they are and how important it is to bring that into the classroom.”

In conclusion, although teaching “abroad” experiences have been with credited with developing teacher candidates with a greater worldview and global consciousness (Trilokekar & Kukar, 2011), the feedback received from students who visited schools in Bush Alaska suggests that similar opportunities also exist closer to home—a finding consistent with those offered by McMillon (2009). Their feedback offered evidence that an onsite immersion experience can expand the cultural horizons of teacher candidates far beyond what any college classes or textbooks could ever provide and, moreover, presents insights to improve preparation not only for Alaska-bound teachers, but also for the larger contingent of new teachers who will be faced with increasingly diverse classrooms elsewhere in the United States.

References


Early-Career Teachers in Chinese Christian Schools

By Mary C. Clement

Few Americans get to visit Christian schools in China or learn about the work of training teachers for those schools. In this article, the author outlines what she learned in her experience with private Christian preschool and elementary schools and a teacher-training institute in China. She reflects on visits at schools that were self-funded by the Chinese teachers who founded them, on interviews with teachers who were young Chinese citizens, and on professional development she delivered in a series of half-day workshops. Topics include help and support for early-career teachers and teacher retention in this unique setting.

My love of travel and my passion for quality teacher education led me to spend time in May 2015 in private Christian schools in China. Although tourist travel to China has become extremely popular, few Americans get to visit Christian schools in China or learn about the work of training teachers for those schools. In this article, I outline what I learned in my experience with these schools and at a teacher-training institute in China. Due to the sensitive nature of being a Christian in China and of teaching in a Christian school there, no specific cities, schools, or teachers are identified.

Background

Prior to 1949, missionary schools, both at the K-12 and higher-education levels, had a marked presence in China. With the 1949 political change in China, these schools were forced to close, and their reestablishment began slowly after 1979. Levin (1987) wrote of what one oral historian of the time called “a renewed emphasis on educational standards, a new interest in the experience of Christian education” (para. 6).

In just the last 10 years, small, private Christian schools, predominantly for preschool through Grade 9 students, have experienced marked growth. Often started in apartments or homes, these schools offer a curriculum that includes English language and Bible studies. Private Christian schools for Chinese children are generally recognized by the Chinese government, just as Christian churches are now recognized there. After elementary school, students may seek enrollment in the public school system or a secular private school; many plan to go to high school and college abroad. Of course, as Christian schools are established, teachers for these schools are needed, making Chinese Christian-teacher training a developing field.

Teachers for Christian schools in China may have completed teacher training in a public university or a normal college, not unlike the normal schools of the past in the United States. Because “educational reform in higher education in China is ongoing” (Jinming, Jin, & Yan, 2005, p. 17), online training is also growing for teacher-education candidates (Yan, 2009). However, many teachers who begin work in a Christian school
have not received public higher education in teacher training. More commonly, an early-career Christian teacher may have a degree in another field and then seek teacher training after making the decision to become a teacher. This is similar to the career changer who becomes a teacher in the United States.

Many teachers in Chinese Christian schools are parents who seek this private education for their own children. They may complete a 1-year intensive teacher-training program at a private institute or may begin teaching after a summer of training. Some may begin teaching without the formal training and learn on the job as they begin teaching in private schools. Finding out about the teacher-training opportunities usually happens through friends in the church network.

**Teacher Training**

In my visit to a private Christian teacher-training institute, I saw much of the curriculum to be identical to that studied by the students at my college in Georgia. The students obviously learn methods of teaching, educational psychology, classroom management, and how to work with special needs students. The “hot topics” might include brain-based learning, differentiation of instruction, understanding by design, and teacher leadership. However, the training in Biblical studies and Christian approaches to teaching and learning set this training apart from training for public school teachers. (For more about the Christian approach, see, for example, Van Brummelen, 2009).

When I interviewed Chinese teachers who were in their last week of a year-long program, I asked why they were becoming teachers. Their answers indicated that teaching had become a true calling for them. Their Christian beliefs led them to “follow their passion” to help children learn and to lead children to know the Christian faith. Most of the teachers that I interviewed were in their 20s and had found out about the teacher training program through their churches.

One interview with a new graduate of the teacher-training program provided much insight into the decision to choose Christian teaching. The young man had a bachelor’s degree in politics and had worked 6 years in business, yet he knew he wanted to teach as his father and other relatives had. However, he had a negative experience in the public school system. When he found out about teaching in a faith-based school, he became very passionate about learning to be a teacher and getting a job. When he spoke of getting his first job as a teacher of first- and second-grade students, he smiled as if he had just won a lottery. He already dreamed of perhaps starting a new Christian school in the future.

Another teacher I interviewed had 5 years of experience in a public school and explained that being a teacher’s assistant had helped her learn to teach. What she liked best about teaching was being able to plan her own lessons and do things her own way. She looked forward to working in a private Christian school because she felt it would empower her more to teach as she believed she should and not just to teach students to memorize

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and get ready for a test.” Her simple statement suggested much about the need for teacher empowerment early in a career to promote success and self-efficacy.

Help and Support for Early-Career Teachers

The challenges of teaching in small, private Christian schools in China are many, including the financial issues of getting enough student tuition to pay the teachers, rent a building, and provide teaching resources. Additionally, teachers and administrators have to build the curriculum. Imagine starting a school, or joining the faculty of a very young school, and being a new teacher. It suddenly starts to be overwhelming. All teachers that I interviewed were Chinese citizens, although some international teachers do join a school faculty in some locations.

When I asked a beginning teacher about his concerns regarding the first year of teaching, he said that he was ready because he had a purpose. He said that “professional teachers teach professional knowledge” and that his training had provided that professional knowledge. When I asked about the kinds of support he wanted as a first-year teacher, he replied:

- When I do things wrong, please tell me in a friendly way.
- When I don’t get it, give me more time to understand.
- When I don’t have confidence, please give me a smiley face.
- When you want to say something to me, just say it.
- To make me stronger, please give me the opportunity.

A strong, supportive principal would be wise to listen to the wisdom of this new teacher, as a supportive principal can be a key to retaining effective beginning teachers. When I had the opportunity to speak with a principal who hired many early-career teachers, I was very pleased to hear her say that “a passionate leader” helps new teachers to succeed.

Teacher Retention

A new teacher who had studied finance entered teaching first through volunteer work at a village school. She realized that she was not thinking of being a teacher but of being a Christian and of finding work as servant to her faith. Through summer study and an internship in a school, she became a teacher. She remembered starting her first class with an empty room and searching to find a curriculum. When asked what kept her in teaching those first difficult years, she reported several key issues.

1. Having a school leader who leads curriculum and gives structure to what should be taught is critical.
2. Having a mentor is good support, but the mentor has to know how to communicate with a new teacher.
3. Supporters of young teachers need to know how to guide adults to learn.
4. Weak supporters (administrators) critique. Strong supporters are more positive.
5. The leader of the school should see herself or himself as a servant leader.
6. Being able to be in contact with the teacher-training institute can be very helpful.
7. Working in teams can be useful, and having time after the students leave to talk to each other is very reaffirming.
8. Observing other teachers helps new teachers, especially if done in a collegial way.

Personal Reflection

During my time in China, I was able to teach four workshops for early-career teachers. I titled my workshop presentation *A Dozen Things Successful Teachers Do* and included additional material on classroom management and lesson planning or design. Most of the attendees at my sessions had very little teaching experience; most were entering teaching or working in their first 2 years. In all of my own teaching—both in high school and college—I had never had such attentive students. The respect and mindfulness of the students was startling. One workshop took place on a Saturday afternoon, and, after 3 hours, the young teachers asked me to keep teaching.

The role of professional development for beginning teachers cannot be over-emphasized. Learning to teach has always been a continuing process. It begins with formal training, includes student teaching or an internship, and continues with professional learning opportunities throughout a career. As one teacher I interviewed said, “Teacher training opens the door; then you get a job and go in and look around and learn more.”

Travel always provides new opportunities to learn. After my work with the schools, I joined a tour group and completed a whirlwind, 21-day trip in China. Although hiking on the Great Wall, seeing the giant pandas and the remarkable terra cotta soldiers, and shopping for pearls were all great experiences, it was working with teachers that made my trip remarkable. We have much to learn from early-career teachers from around the world, including those who work in the very unique situations of Chinese Christian schools.

References


Always Learning: A Swedish Perspective
By Martina Lundström

The author discusses information- and communications-technology competencies that drive instruction in Sweden. She argues for progressive growth and change by educators to embrace and use these technologies to meet the needs of students.

Humans are always learning, but traditionally, learning has been a part of teaching in the classroom. The Internet has changed the possibilities of learning, and pupils can learn 24 hours a day! The learning takes place all the time—in school, at home, or outdoors. This reality is something all teachers face when they meet their students. How can educators meet pupils' needs in today's classroom?

In *A Framework for Developing and Understanding Digital Competence in Europe*, Ferrari (2013) described five main information and communications technology (ICT) competencies: information, communication, content making, e-safety, and problem solving. In Sweden's schools, teachers have possibilities to use ICT to provide pupils with education that will encourage them to learn 24/7.

**Information**

In all classrooms in Sweden and elsewhere, teachers educate pupils on how to value information. Students need good guides when searching the Internet; thus, teachers must have good skills in how to search the Web to be able to guide them. Teachers can cooperate with the librarian at the school, if they are lucky enough to have one. Librarians are most often skillful in web browsing and can advise others in how to search electronically to find relevant information. Wikipedia and news from different channels can be accessed in classes. All pupils, no matter what age, will benefit from discussions about how to value these different sources.

**Communication**

Many tools can be used for communication, and teachers can support direct communication with such tools in the classroom. As a member of Delta Kappa Gamma, one has many possibilities to find teachers who would love to partner in a project with other classes. Such partnering supports intercultural communication and can help pupils gain important skills. Similarly, many teachers take part in online activities and learn from other teachers on Twitter and groups on Facebook. Social media are powerful tools in the classroom! Teachers can guide pupils and be role models on the Internet by providing feedback on digital content. Direct communication on Skype will increase skills in language and give pupils power to communicate with others. Teachers can find other classes who are curious and want to take part in #mysteryskype to find out where another school is located. Many apps support classroom interaction.
Content Making

Most pupils are connected to the Internet all the time. They play games, listen to music, “hang” with friends, and share content, such as on YouTube and other channels. In school, educators can provide them with skills on how to be producers and not just consumers. Being a content maker in the digital world is a valuable skill. Teachers and students can use the Internet as a tool to publish the class work online or to publish e-books, films, wikis, podcasts, and so forth. For additional depth, the teachers can ask, “What does the code look like on this website? Who did it?” Many initiatives for coding are emerging and some national syllabi include this skill for Website creation. For example, in Sweden, the syllabus will be updated during 2016 to include coding in some of the subjects. Coding today is easy, and even young pupils can use visual coding to make their own computer games or programming robots. Skills in computational thinking will benefit the students!

E-safety

Awareness of how to support children in the world of e-safety is of importance to all children and parents. The best way to support them in the digital world is to listen and to offer help when needed. Everyone should know how to take a screenshot and to whom to talk when something occurs on the Internet. When pupils have something to tell educators, they must listen—just as they do when bullying appears in the schoolyard.

Problem Solving

Teachers and pupils work with problem solving in everyday life. Most teachers will agree that they must encourage children, and sometimes themselves, to persevere through digital learning. It is OK to make mistakes and to admit mistakes. Teachers who are not willing to learn how to work with digital content in classes should rethink and figure out how to develop their teaching skills and make classroom work relevant for all pupils.

In Sum

When school work is accessed online and the pupils find engaging content after school, they will most likely take part. They will use their devices to learn, in school, at home, or outdoors; they will always be learners. Bring Your Own Device (BYOD), schools in the cloud, flipped classrooms, and gamification will be in the classroom in the near future—if they are not there already (The New Media Consortium, 2015). In only a few years, everyone will be even more connected to the Internet, and all teachers must thus find ways to support digital learning. As educators, we must ask how this will affect our classroom performance, and we need to find better, less obsolete ways to support learning.

References


Martina Lundström is a teacher with 15 years of experience educating children ages 9-15 in the subjects of Swedish and Slojd (Handicraft). A member of Mu Chapter in Sweden State Organization, she is currently employed as development leader in the Municipality of Linköping in Sweden. Her mission is to enhance learning by supporting and inspiring teachers in how to use digital tools in the classroom. At the 2015 regional conference in Borås, Sweden, Lundström presented a workshop on the theme of this article. Martina. Lundström@linkoping.se
Perspectives from Finland: Educational Voices
By Kaija Teikari

The author provides information about the Finnish educational system, admired as one of the best in the world. She captures the flavor of the system through an overview of its history, a sample visit to two Finnish schools, and direct comments from Finnish students about “good” schools and principals.

Finnish Education: Yesterday and Today

The Finns will celebrate their 100th anniversary of independence in 2017. Finland had been at war from December 1939 to spring 1945—and survived. According to Sahlberg (2011),

The post-World War II era was one of political instability and economic transformation, but it also gave rise to new social ideas and social policies—in particular the idea of equal educational opportunities. Understanding why education has become one of the trademarks of Finland is difficult without examining these post-World War II political and social developments. (p. 14)

Reporting on the post-war era, Sahlberg (2011) also noted:

- Educational opportunities were unequal: access to grammar or middle schools existed only for those living in towns or larger municipalities
- In 1950, there were 338 grammar schools, where pupils could apply to enroll after 4, 5, or 6 years of state-run basic school; just 27% of 11-year-old students enrolled in these schools, which consisted of 5-year middle school and 3-year high-school
- Of these grammar schools, 103 were operated by the state, 18 by municipalities, and 217 were by private citizens or associations. Legislation guaranteed state subsidies to private schools.
- Most municipalities offered an alternative path to those who could not or did not want to enroll in grammar schools: a 2 to 3-year study in civic schools after the compulsory 7-year basic education. (p. 15)

The early elements of the current system were prepared in the second half of the 1960s. As Sahlberg explained, “The new school is born” (2011, p. 21). This comprehensive school system (Finnish peruskoulu) was to begin in the northern regions of Finland in 1972 and reach southern areas by 1978. The new peruskoulu merged grammar schools, civic schools, and primary schools into a comprehensive, 9-year municipal school. This eliminated worries about losing opportunities for grammar school: “All students, regardless of their domicile, socioeconomic background, or interests would enroll in the same 9-year basic schools governed by local educational authorities” (Sahlberg, 2011, p. 21).

The Figure about the education system in Finland in 2011 is a valid picture about today! The figure indicates that
- Finnish pupils start preschool at the age of 6 years.
- They complete a unified comprehensive 9-year basic school: the first 6 years mostly with form [class or year] teachers and the last 3 years with subject teachers.
- Those who need or want to repeat basics do so in the 10th grade.
- At the age of 16, students enter either upper general secondary or upper vocational secondary schools; these schools are nongraded.
- As the crosswise arrow shows, upper general and vocational secondary schools can utilize each other’s curricula.
- Primarily upper general secondary education is required for studies of law, medicine, and so forth in universities, but the crisscross of arrows tells about the flexibility of secondary school structures.

Illustrations of the System at Work

As a practical way to understand the abstract framework at work, I include two perspectives: that of a visiting educator and that of students within the system. The first captures the norm in Finnish schools; the second is based on considerable research with Finnish students.

Visiting educator. On a recent visit to Finland, one American school principal asked which good school she should enter. She was told that she could visit any school—all of them will do! We join Ms. X for a visit to two schools, one in the countryside and the other in the capital city, Helsinki.

Entering the schoolyard of the country school during the break, we meet pupils running around and playing in the snow. One teacher is talking to a group of boys, who
seem to have been making and throwing too-big snowballs! Another teacher is building a snowman with preschool children (6 years of age). Soon the bell calls everyone inside. The principal, waiting at her office door and greeting us, shows us in. She explains this is a unified comprehensive school of 400 students with age groups from 6 to 16 years. Preschool used to belong under the rule of the municipal social sector, but today the education sector has the administrative role. Both form and subject teachers have taken their master’s degrees at universities. A teacher’s profession is highly appreciated—and not only because of vacation in June, July, and half of August! Upper secondary students know that they must have good school-leaving reports to get into university, and they also know that they will have to study hard for 5 years!

At 11 a.m., Ms. X is taken to the dining hall for lunch. While having a tasty meal among students and teachers, she learns that free, warm meals have been served to comprehensive school students since 1942. Not only warm meals, but all basic education is free of charge—which means free books and free bus trips for those living at the distance of more than 5 kilometers from school. Ms. X further learns that the school year is comprised of 190 days, and the minimum number of lessons per week varies from 19 to 30, depending on the level and number of optional subjects taken. No regulations govern class size, and teaching groups normally consist of pupils of the same age. Maybe Ms. X is a bit surprised to hear that there are no school inspections anymore, but there are more specialties. Finland has Lutheran State Church, and students who profess Lutheranism have to study religion at school. Finland also has two official languages, Finnish and Swedish. On certain coastal areas in western and southern Finland, Swedish is the language of instruction. The most popular and compulsory foreign language is English (called A1-language); Swedish (B1-language) is compulsory for every Finnish student, as Finnish is for those whose mother tongue is Swedish. Depending on the size of the school, optional 2-year courses are offered in “rarer” languages, such as German, French, Italian, and Russian. The national core curriculum is formulated by the Finnish National Board of Education (FNBE; 2009) and, besides setting the minimum number of lesson hours (222) for the 9-year peruskoulu, now includes renewals for the future. There will be more focus on how to teach instead of what to teach; on students’ participation in planning new methods; on more options in lower grades; on connecting several subjects into modules to be studied together; and on assessment of learning-to-learn skills. Within the framework of the FNBE, schools and local authorities form their own curricula regulations. Teachers choose their own teaching methods and materials and carry out assessment in their respective subjects both continuously and through tests. An intermediate report is given at least once during the school year. After completing the 9-year comprehensive schooling, students are awarded their certificates. Finland had participated in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development’s Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) in reading, math, and science and had been a top-performer during the years 2000-2009. Although the latest survey (2012) showed severe deterioration both in reading and math, only 16.5%

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Global Education and International Perspectives

of Finnish students are not doing well at school among the OECD-countries on average.

The next day Ms. X is taken to a large, upper secondary school in Helsinki, where there is no playing around on the schoolyard and no teachers walking outside. Again, lunch is ready, and the guidance counselor welcomes the visitor, apologizing for a bit hurried atmosphere; she has just returned from a lesson with tens of students getting ready for the upcoming matriculation examination. This national examination (arranged twice a year) is comprised of four compulsory tests covering the two national languages, a foreign language, and mathematics or general studies (humanities and natural sciences). Optional tests may also be included in the examination. Before getting their certificates-of-matriculation exam, including testing on the entire upper secondary school syllabus, students attend guidance lessons in class or meet the counselor individually. They receive orientation to further studies, study skills, self-knowledge, occupational fields, working life, and the nationwide databased application systems (Haime & Valtonen, 2014). The upper secondary school curriculum is also being renewed, and part of the matriculation tests will be taken with computers. Higher education awaits.

Students’ voices. As part of doctoral dissertation work focused on tracing values, virtues, and well-being in the education sector of one Finnish city (Teikari, 2016), I met several teachers, principals, and other staff members—and 446 students of various ages. Although I analyzed informants’ responses through the lens of theories of philosophical ethics in the dissertation, those responses are in and of themselves both informative and intriguing. My questions to the students were A good school? A good principal? What are they like? Responses are presented with my translations from Finnish to English in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1
Students’ Views of “Good School”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comprehensive, 7-12 Years</th>
<th>Comprehensive, 13-15 Years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Sometimes something exciting would happen.</td>
<td>• In a good school there is food for all the students and teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• It would not be boring- except only sometimes.</td>
<td>• You wouldn’t have to worry about anything.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• You could sit beside the one you like—if it really works out.</td>
<td>• Staying calm/tolerant – let others be different.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• You would always come to school in a good mood, and leave feeling good.</td>
<td>• In a good school you would feel at home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• There teachers are watchful: no bullying please!</td>
<td>• It arouses appreciation in younger students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• You can go and comfort somebody.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Summary
Both comments by adult informants inside the education sector and the above “live” responses from students offer rich data to be delved into philosophically. Their comments augment the summary of the history and current structure to provide a delicately shaded overview of education in Finland!

Table 2
Students’ Views of “Good Principal”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comprehensive, 7-12 Years</th>
<th>Comprehensive, 13-15 Years</th>
<th>Upper Secondary, 16-18 Years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• The one who decides to buy two basketball stands on the school yard.</td>
<td>• Doesn’t shout all the time.</td>
<td>• Always available… present.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ensures there is no smoking, blackmailling, using drugs or drinking alcohol at school.</td>
<td>• Someone you can talk to.</td>
<td>• Not intimidating.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The one who explains things so well that everybody understands.</td>
<td>• A good principal must also know how to teach.</td>
<td>• Has authority.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Knows other languages.</td>
<td>• Sees to it that there is always a teacher available for students.</td>
<td>• The one who understands young people well.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The principal must not be away too often.</td>
<td>• The one who encourages you to do your duties.</td>
<td>• Knows what is needed: is qualified.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• A good principal is not severe, but punishes you if needed.</td>
<td>• The characteristics of a good principal are similar to those of a good teacher. So: a good principal treats everybody fairly and takes students’ suggestions and opinions into consideration and tries to make them come true.</td>
<td>• Takes care of the job satisfaction of both students and teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• She (principal) could give my teacher a piece of paper asking me to visit her in her office just for fun.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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</table>

References
A Call to Participate in Prime Mentors International: Mentoring “At-Risk” Children
by Carmella Angus

Prime Mentors of Canada (PMC) is a charitable organization currently based at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, University of Toronto, and run by a distinguished Board of Directors. The term “Prime” is based on an acronym suggesting a program and individuals that are Positive, Responsible, Inspiring, Multi-talented, and Exemplary. Founded in 1987 by Professor Conchita Tan-Willman, PhD, PMC was honored in 1993 by the Federal Department of Health and Welfare as one of the most outstanding intergenerational programs in Canada. PMC has also received the Presidential Citation from the World Council of Gifted and Talented Children for its contribution to the development of human potential. With its 27 years of experience and proven outcomes, PMC may serve as a global model for boards of education throughout the world and could become known as “Prime Mentors International.”

Rationale, Vision, and Mission

PMC’s vision and mission focus on tapping the potential talents of “at-risk” children, ages 9 to 13 years, who are from socioeconomically deprived neighborhoods. These at-risk, bright children are often neglected at home and consequently are underachievers due to lack of opportunities. It is well known that bright children without proper childhood guidance are at a greater risk of dropping out of school or turning to a life of crime or drugs (Bruce & Bridgeland, 2014). PMC’s mission is to identify such children who show creative potential during their formative years and to match them with a volunteer mentor and role model.

Mentoring has been shown to help young people, especially at-risk youth, succeed in school, work, and life. A strong research base supports the efficacy of quality mentoring, including a recent meta-analysis of more than 73 independent mentoring programs that found positive outcomes across social, emotional, behavioral, and academic areas of youth development. The question we must then ask is if mentoring at a young age is a global solution to help decrease violence, as well as drug and alcohol abuse (Bruce & Bridgeland, 2014).

In particular, the Bruce and Bridgeland (2014) meta-analysis on the impact of various mentoring programs showed that children at risk who have been mentored are more likely to aspire for a postsecondary education compared to those at-risk children who have not participated in a mentoring program (76% vs. 55%). Furthermore, the meta-analysis showed
that, of those who are mentored, nearly half (45%) actually attend a postsecondary program as compared to 29% of those who were not mentored. The PMC’s experience over 27 years is powerful proof of the impact and efficacy of the mentoring program for those at-risk children.

**A Special Focus: Collaborative Projects**

Teachers are sensitive to children’s needs, but, because it is not always possible to give these bright children special attention in a busy classroom, the mentors are welcomed as an alternative source of development within the educational system. In PMC’s special, one-on-one mentoring relationships, protégés and mentors are matched based on common interests and strengths. The child and mentor design and develop a self-chosen project that, upon completion, is presented to the protégé’s school. The presentation thus extends the benefits of the program to other students in the child’s class. The PMC process is intended to develop communication, problem solving, and a curiosity in the research process as it relates to the topic of interest. The experience of developing a project alongside his or her mentor is intended to replace the support and motivation that may be missing in the child’s home. Such support may then spark an interest in the children to continue their educations and achieve their creative potential rather than selecting a path that does not include postsecondary education. To that end, PMC also sets aside scholarships for higher education, available to those students who have been part of the mentorship process.

Thus, PMC’s vision is that the mentoring program may ignite an interest in children at risk to become interested in the exploration of new knowledge and problem solving. PMC has also found that knowing there is a scholarship set aside for them is a strong motivator for the students to reach their potential through further education.

Over the years, PMC has provided one-to-one mentoring to more than 2500 at-risk students and has found that the greatest predictor of outcome is directly related to the scholarship awards. PMC has awarded 111 scholarships in the last decade or more, and the organization’s data show that 100% of the students who received a scholarship at a young age and completed their high school education went on to pursue postsecondary education.

Adult participants in this unique PMC mentoring program indeed have a long track record of mentoring students who then pursue postsecondary education and successful careers. Student participants tend also to excel in community service, as attested by numerous meritorious awards and recognition received. Many of the young people have won scholarships and grants from major U.S. universities (Yale, Princeton, Harvard, Columbia, University of California at Los Angeles, Juilliard School of Music, etc.) and from major Canadian universities and corporations (TD Bank, De Loran, Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council, University of Toronto, University of British Columbia, McGill, etc.). One of them recently won the prestigious international Rhodes Scholarship for graduate studies in medicine at Oxford University.

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A Call to Action

As international educators, DKG members can recognize and seize the opportunity to identify communities around the globe whose children are at greater risk of being recruited into gangs that focus on violence. Indeed, the Society has a global opportunity to identify these children at risk and to inspire DKG members to offer mentoring programs to reduce the chances of at-risk young people selecting such a lifestyle.

Educators who are interested in PMC’s program and want to find out how to set up a similar program in their own country can contact leaders directly via the organization’s Web site at www.primementorscanada.org. Mentors are often successful retired educators, researchers, lawyers, doctors, business executives, government officials, and so forth. Program leaders would like educators to expand this initiative on an international level. All educators can help Prime Mentors achieve its mission of reducing the statistics of crime, addiction, and violence among our most gifted children.

References

Protégé Collin Guo proudly displays certificate honoring his project on genetics. Mentor Guy Hamel (right) and his friend, David Ochterlony, assisted Collin in his work.
More than a Field Trip: Fifth Graders Visit College to Communicate Common Ground

By Karen A. Sindelar

Twelve college students from several majors in a general-education public speaking course, under the direction of the author, created a day of hands-on workshops for more than 50 Grade 5 students who came to their private, 4-year, liberal arts college to learn about life as a college student and about international cultures. This experiential learning project was done as a segment of the college students’ public speaking curriculum to better understand research, creating presentations for a new audience, and community impact of one’s voice. The partnership described was originally initiated through Communicating Common Ground, a national service-learning initiative in multicultural education of the National Communication Association. The author explains this action research study, what college students learned about public speaking, and what the Grade 5 children learned in the process.

In 1999, the National Communication Association (NCA) embarked on a comprehensive effort to create a more engaged communication discipline focused on fostering research and addressing the most pressing public problems at the dawn of the twenty-first century. Critical parts of this effort involve advancing the role of the communication discipline in reducing prejudice and hateful acts based on racial, ethnic, religious, and other human differences and increasing society’s ability to embrace the opportunities of diversity. Toward that end, in 1999, NCA engaged the Southern Poverty Law Center, Campus Compact, and the American Association for Higher Education as partners in Communicating Common Ground (CCG), a national service-learning initiative in multicultural education.

CCG supports creation of local partnerships between those in college communication programs and community members to accomplish this goal. Thirty partnerships were created in August 2000. College faculty and students, in partnership with community groups, develop research and teaching programs designed to advance civic education, appreciation of diversity, and the creation of communities in which hate, hate speech, and hate crimes are rejected as antithetical to the values of a strong democracy.

CCG has a four-pronged mission that reflects the interests of its sponsoring organizations:

1. To educate people to the contributions of diversity to a strong democracy;
2. To foster engagement between higher education and P-12 education and between schools and communities;
3. To promote service-learning as an effective method for enhancing student learning and civic responsibility; and
4. To promote research that identifies ways to reduce prejudice and the problems it presents to a democracy. (NCA, 2015)

CCG projects team faculty and college-level communications students with elementary and secondary students to implement programs that foster respect for diversity and combat prejudice in communities across America. The project described in this article is part of a long-term study involving undergraduates at Coe College and Grade 5 students at Truman Elementary School. Coe’s was the first public speaking class in the nation to join the CCG initiative.

This partnership has shifted and changed through yearly analysis of the learning documented from the college students and the Grade 5 children. In the fall of 2015, the group of Grade 5 children described in the current study participated in a service-learning project by Coe students, who came to the elementary school and (a) taught a unit on writing a speech, (b) taught a unit on delivering a speech, (c) gave role model speeches, (d) worked one-on-one with Grade 5 children to craft their presentations, and (d) provided critiques to Grade 5 children on their social studies presentations. In return, the Grade 5 students provided critiques to the workshop presenters on their content and delivery, as well as asked questions about the content of the presentations.

In 2016, marking the sixteenth year that students of public speaking at Coe College partnered with Truman Elementary School and the sixth year that the children came to Coe for a field trip to learn about college life and culture, the same children came to the campus to learn about the life of a college student and about international culture from international students. The children received a broad introduction to college student life when they met ROTC cadets and the college mascot Charlie Kohawk, had a campus tour, and ate in the cafeteria. The 2016 program was the focus of the research described here.

Twelve Coe students, under the direction of the author, created hands-on workshops for more than 50 Grade 5 students as an experiential learning project done as a segment of their public speaking curriculum to better understand research, creating presentations for a new audience, and community impact of their voices. These workshops covered topics relating to college life and explaining study-abroad opportunities, Japanese celebrations of Valentine’s Day and White Day, and Chinese New Year. Nine college students in the ESL pronunciation class created workshops covering Japanese art and culture. These workshops covered topics relating to counting with an abacus, chopsticks etiquette, and making origami. Funding for this project came from Beta Nu Chapter of Upsilon State Organization (Iowa) and the Truman Elementary Parent/Teacher Organization. Figure 1 displays the schedule for the day.

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The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin: International Journal for Professional Educators

The timing of the project for the college students was right before midterms. This event was the culmination of the informative speaking unit, in which the public speaking students were introduced to writing preparation outlines and scripts, group work, delivery skills, audience analysis, use of technology (such as Google docs, Google slides, pictocharts, Powtoons app, Swivl Capture app, and Swivl robot for recording presentations), and researching a topic related to multiculturalism, diversity, or tolerance.

Research Questions
Three questions guided assessment of the 2016 event described here:
1. What do college students learn about public speaking in a general education course designed around experiential learning?
2. What do elementary students learn from a field trip to participate in workshops at college campus?
3. How can action research inform the project and make it better next time?

Method
Action research is the organized, systematic, and reflective analysis of classroom practice with implications for future practice in teaching and learning. It includes a group of research methodologies that pursue change and understanding simultaneously (Heller, 1993; Chisholm & Eldon, 1993; Gustavsen, 1993; Stringer, 2014). This process usually

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coe Students</th>
<th>Truman Elementary Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8:00 – 9:00</td>
<td>Early setters: Meet in Lower Gage to set up Have 4 groups of about 13-14 students and 3 groups of 17-18 students for afternoon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9:20</td>
<td>ROTC: Greet Truman students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9:30</td>
<td>Welcome by Charlie Kohawk (mascot) All children: Coe College AM class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9:40 – 10:45</td>
<td>(Rotate every 15 minutes) Coe Student Culture Workshop Japanese Valentine’s Day and White Day Workshop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Study Abroad Workshop Chinese New Year and Lantern Festival Workshop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10:50 – 11:00</td>
<td>Goodbyes to part of Coe AM class – the rest follow through the lunch hour Students – bathroom breaks — tour campus led by Admissions guides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11:00 – 11:45</td>
<td>½ lunch in cafeteria Campus Tours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11:45 – 12:25</td>
<td>Campus Tours ½ lunch in cafeteria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:15</td>
<td>ESL students prep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:30 – 1:45</td>
<td>(rotate every 20 minutes) Abacus Workshop Origami Workshop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chopsticks Workshop (No 4th group)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:50</td>
<td>Anime movie; Goodbyes to Coe PM class Final Closing Comments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:00</td>
<td>Help students get coats and onto the bus Depart on bus – back by 2:30pm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Schedule for Art and Cultural Day at Coe, Spring 2016.
is accomplished by using a cyclical or spiral process that alternates between research and critical reflection. In the later cycles of action research, the project is refined continuously in light of understanding gained in the previous cycles to make refinement an emergent process that evolves as understanding increases. For example, the project at Coe College in the public speaking course involves students and instructor in reflecting, assessing, and evaluating the learning process collaboratively each term. Current students and elementary teachers help to modify the project for the next semester. In this way, the project evolves, with participants resolving some problems even as other problems may be created and, in turn, require reflection, assessment, and modification. Most of the time, action research is participative and qualitative (Greenwood, Whyte, & Harkavy, 1993; Stanton & Tomlin, 2001; Stringer, 2014), focusing on both the practical concerns of people working on a community problem and on the academic goals of academics through joint collaboration within a mutually acceptable ethical framework (Rapoport, 1970; Stringer, 2014).

Participants
Participants included 12 college students enrolled in a general-education, entry-level public speaking course. All of these students were first-year and second-year status; five were Japanese 1-year exchange students, and two were international students from China. They had a variety of majors. Other participants include nine Japanese 1-year exchange college students in an English-as-a-Second Language pronunciation course and approximately 50 Grade 5 students, age 10–11 years, from Truman Elementary School, situated in a working and middle-class neighborhood.

Assessments and Measures
Pre- and posttests given to fifth graders. The college students created multiple choice questions to test the children’s understanding of a main point of their presentations. The children were given a seven-question, multiple-choice pre- and posttest (Appendix) about each of the seven workshops presented on their field trip. The pretest was administered the day before the field trip by their elementary teacher, and the posttest was administered 4 days after the field trip.

Thank-you notes from Grade 5 students. Unexpectedly, one of the two classrooms of fifth graders wrote thank-you notes to the workshop presenters. The students in the public speaking class analyzed these notes to see what intuitive groupings of themes the notes revealed. The contents were qualitatively coded using Glaser and Strauss’s (1967) grounded theory approach to analyze the themes that emerged inductively from the data rather than to impose researcher-developed categories on these data.

Likert scale and short answers from students in the public speaking course. Five days after the field trip, the college students in the public speaking course completed a survey using a Likert scale and short-answer responses. The Likert scale was based on this prompt: I learned about . . . speech organization and delivery, audience analysis, ethics, character, diversity, tolerance, multicultural awareness, and group dynamics and teamwork from researching my topic and/or listening to classmates’ speeches in this project. Responses were strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree. Responses were analyzed by calculating percentages of responses for each prompt in order to assess students’ learning. The survey then requested short-answer responses explaining what each student did learn about speech organization, delivery, technology, audience analysis, ethics, character, tolerance, diversity, multicultural awareness, and group dynamics and teamwork.
Results

The assessment of the field trip indicated that both college students and elementary children learned from this experience. It provided a large cultural learning experience for the children, and topics covered in the public speaking unit—such as speechwriting and delivery, audience analysis, technology use, and working in groups—were high on the list of learning for the college students.

Outcome 1: Pre- and posttests given to Grade 5 students. Analysis of the scores of the tests given before and after the field trip suggested learning took place in each of the workshops. Improvement for individual questions from pre- to posttest scores ranged from 10 percentage points to 74 percentage points. For example, prior to attending this event, only 21% of Grade 5 students knew the correct number of countries in the world. Following their participation in a workshop delivered by the college students, 95% of the fifth graders were able to answer this question correctly. These data (Table 1) suggest that the experiential learning project provided an important learning experience for the elementary school students who were in attendance.

Table 1
Pre- and Posttest Results for Elementary Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
<th>Change in % points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How many countries exist in the world?</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>+74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which of the following is an intramural sport at Coe College?</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>+67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What's the difference between Valentine's Day and White Day in Japan?</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>+38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What animal is represented in the dance during the lantern festival?</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>+41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What number does the top row of an abacus represent?</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>+10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please select good manners while eating with chopsticks.</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>+11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Ori” in Japanese means:</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>+50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Outcome 2: Thank-you notes from Grade 5 students. The experience of eating lunch in the cafeteria appeared to be a highlight, mentioned by 15 students (65%). Twelve (52%) of this small sample liked the campus tour. After these activities, the workshops received mention. Finally, specific people, foods, and buildings were highlighted by a few writers.

Notably, 20 (39%) elementary students mentioned enjoying a workshop about origami, while 7 (13%) reported that they found interacting with Japanese exchange students to be an enjoyable experience. These results suggest the potential for this type of event as a culturally informative influence. In addition, interactive workshops, demonstrations, animations and videos, and colorful visual aids appeared to be more desirable to the children as indicated in the thank-you notes and scoring of the posttest. Some workshops tried to cover too much material and were not listed as favorably.
Table 2
Content Coding of Thank-you Notes regarding Cultural Day at Coe College (N = 23)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive Comments</th>
<th>% of Responses (N = 23)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lunch in the cafeteria</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus Tour</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Origami Workshop</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All workshops</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chopsticks Workshop</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exposure to different cultures</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting Coe College students</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coe College Life Workshop</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valentine’s Day and White Day Workshop</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working with Japanese students `</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese New Year Workshop</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free gifts from workshops</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abacus Workshop</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study Abroad Workshop</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anime Film</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting Charlie Kohawk, Mascot</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greetings from ROTC</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactive nature of the workshops</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cappuccinos</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soda</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Awesome”</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Got to see Jessy (student from last semester’s service</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning visit who was a tour guide)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Outcome 3: Likert scale and short answers from students in the public speaking course. The college students agreed that the course was enhanced by the experiential learning component for the informative speaking unit. They stressed learning of course material and group dynamics as more significant than multiculturalism or diversity topics. Learning appeared to take place at a deeper level than if just presented in the classroom without an experiential learning experience (Tables 3 and 4).
Discussion

Individuals tend to learn better when they teach someone else. In this project, college students worked in groups, which thereby encouraged teamwork and team teaching by all group members to understand their course content. The college students got to practice and present their group workshops four times to four young audiences, so they could modify their presentations in real time. Public speaking classroom content was reinforced through assessment and reflection on the experience.

Limitations in the research include but are not limited to small sample size, nonrandom sample, author bias, errors that could have been made in calculations, poorly worded multiple-choice questions, misunderstandings of scale questions by second-language learners, and qualitative content assessment of thank-you notes from one of the Grade 5 classrooms. Because the thank-you notes were unexpected, it is unclear whether the children were prompted to mention specific portions of the field trip.

To better assess whether the children are gaining a greater appreciation for the cultures studied in the workshops on campus, the nature of the pre- and posttest questions should be revised to address higher-level thinking. Further study could include compiling a longitudinal research study of the years of campus visits to determine which topics were most beneficial to the Grade 5 audiences throughout the years. Continued meetings involving the Grade 5 teachers, the author, and the college’s Director of Community Engagement will help with intentionality of the event to tie to both the college and Grade 5 curriculum, clarify the community need, and develop a clearer understanding of the reciprocal relationship.

The action research model demands that results help the project continue to change and grow. Each year, this particular partnership becomes stronger. Teachers and students alike find benefit and growth communicating common ground.

Table 3
Likert Scale Responses from Public Speaking Course Students Regarding Experiential Learning Project

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I learned about:</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speech organization</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech delivery</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience analysis</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerance</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multicultural awareness</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group dynamics and teamwork</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4  
Open-ended Responses from Public Speaking Course Students Regarding Experiential Learning through Service Project

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic Area</th>
<th>What I learned:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Speech organization |  - Time limit is 15 minutes, so it is a little bit short, so I have to condense points.  
  - How to get attention from children.  
  - I learned Intro-Body-Conclusion. I used this organization much more now after this class.  
  - How to make an outline and a full script.  
  - How to organize my speech.  
  - To have an outline of what you are going to say with full sentences.  
  - How to transition smoothly.  
  - How to organize a speech properly.  
  - How to organize speech well with good conclusion.  
  - By using google drive, I found that team members have good ideas that I don't have.  
  - How much detail goes into outlining a speech. |
| Speech delivery   |  - I tried to do eye contact.  
  - Speak naturally, acting while they are watching a short video.  
  - Use easy, oral speaking way to greet audience.  
  - How to stand, act, and speak with poise.  
  - Deliver.  
  - To speak louder and clearer and I noticed all my clutter words to try to eliminate now.  
  - How to present energetically, with “sparkle.”  
  - How to correctly deliver my speech.  
  - We all connected our topic to the next person’s.  
  - Body language is important but if I have a small notecard, it’s hard to do.  
  - How to deliver a speech in a larger, more open room. |
| Technology        |  - I didn’t know Powtoon before, so I learned new way to give info.  
  - How to use Powtoons.  
  - How to use Powtoons and PowerPoint better.  
  - Powtoon.  
  - Learning how to use the clicker with the presentation.  
  - How to use a clicker and Pictochar!  
  - We used Pictocharts.  
  - I learned a few sites to create visual aids such as animations and charts.  
  - New websites and tech devices that can be used.  
  - We can create an animation easier than I expected. |
Audience analysis
- Audiences are children; I learned how to teach easily.
- We could think about 5th grade children.
- More eye contact and see their reaction.
- How to engage the audience and tell if they are interested or not.
- To find ways to get the audience to interact so they pay attention more.
- Read the audience and try to get them involved.
- How to gauge an audience.

Ethics
- No rude speaking like racist speaking.
- What goes into making sure a speech maintains proper ethics.

Character
- I learned how other people like to give their speeches and their presentation.
- How to present myself in front of an audience.

Diversity
- I learned Chinese culture, other people’s culture shock.
- Working with foreign exchange students was very educational.
- Each person has a different background.
- A different type of person work with a different person make great ideas in any situation.

Tolerance
- I could learn about other country’s culture.
- Know more cultural things like White Day of Japanese, study abroad. I think it is good to share all different cultural experience to each other.
- Learning more of the different cultures.
- Each person has a different background.
- We accepted each other and made a good presentation.
- More about the people in our class and their backgrounds.

Multicultural awareness
- More awareness for what is public speaking.
- Learning a little more about foreign exchange students.
- Seeing how everybody views things.
- We shared some cultures of our own through presentation.
- More information on a variety of cultures.

Group dynamics and teamwork
- It was first time to do presentation with American student.
- How to arrange time schedules.
- Like how to decide who speaks which part or how to work together with PowerPoint.
- Working together with two other people.
- The importance of teamwork.
- Working together.
- Our project went really well together.
- How to work well in a group setting.
- We did well with group speeches.
- Meeting time is necessary for teamwork.
- What goes into creating a functioning team.
Appendix

2016 Spring Pre- and Posttest: Cultural Day at Coe College

1. ______ How many countries exist in the world?
   a) 6
   b) 193
   c) 3,528
   d) 2 billion

2. _____ Which of the following is an intramural sport at Coe College?
   a) rugby
   b) golf
   c) water polo
   d) horseback riding

3. ______ What’s the difference between Valentine’s Day and White Day in Japan?
   a) White Day is more popular in America.
   b) You can only give white chocolate on White Day.
   c) Men give chocolate on Valentine’s Day and women give chocolate back on White Day.
   d) Women give chocolate on Valentine’s Day and men give chocolate back on White Day.

4. _____ What animal is represented in the dance during the lantern festival?
   a) The donkey
   b) The elephant
   c) The lion
   d) The animal from the calendar year of the new year
5. ______ What number does the top row of an abacus represent?
   a) 1
   b) 2
   c) 5
   d) 10

6. ______ Please select good manners while eating with chopsticks.
   a) Share your chopsticks with another person.
   b) Point to other people and your food with your chopsticks.
   c) Poke food onto the chopstick and put it in your mouth directly from
      serving dish.
   d) When you are not using your chopsticks, place them side by side.

7. ______ “Ori” in Japanese means:
   a) to fold
   b) paper
   c) red
   d) to write
Implementing and Maintaining a Dual Language Program: The Nuts and Bolts of a Pathway to Academic Excellence
By Audrey Figueroa Murphy

The author provides an overview of the research and rationale supporting the dual language or two-way immersion approach to bilingual education, as well as a guide to some of the decisions and practical steps necessary to implement and maintain such a program. Although supporting the view, espoused by many proponents, that two-way bilingual classes are enrichment programs and thus suitable for gifted students, the author points out that they can be implemented in almost all schools and carry potential benefits for almost all students.

Dual Language: A Valuable and Achievable Goal

In recent years, the Dual Language (DL) or two-way bilingual program model has been implemented in an increasing number of U.S. schools (Padilla, Fan, Xu, & Silva, 2013; Shannon & Milian, 2002; Soltero, 2004; Torres-Guzman, Kleyn, Morales-Rodriguez, & Han, 2005). Although many of these schools serve populations that include high concentrations of English language learners (ELLs), others simply subscribe to the notion that this model provides an outstanding opportunity for some or all students to develop skills authentically in two languages and to improve their overall academic achievement by working cooperatively with others and by using both languages to learn academic content. In fact, DL programs have flourished for decades outside the United States, particularly in countries where two languages are widely or officially used, such as Canada and several of the European Union countries (Freeman, Freeman, & Mercuri, 2005; Lessow-Hurley, 2000). Dual language schools also prosper in Latin America, with prominent examples including the Torres campus of El Instituto Ovalle Monday in Mexico; El Colegio Bolivar in Cali, Colombia; and the Argentinian programs known as doble escolaridad (double schooling), in which instructors use both English and Spanish to teach all classes (Freeman et al., 2005). In Asia, countries with many languages represented within their borders, such as India (Lessow-Hurley, 2000) and China (Kong, Hoare, & Chi, 2011), have also implemented DL programs.

In the U.S. context, DL programs make it possible for native English speakers and speakers of other languages to develop bilingual literacy, learn from each other, and learn academic content in a cooperative, academically rigorous setting. Moreover, research suggests that this experience has a positive impact on growth and achievement for members of both groups (Esposito & Baker-Ward, 2013; Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Takahashi-Breines, 2002). Given this evidence of success and their growing popularity worldwide, many educators...
and administrators are expressing interest in implementing DL classes. Nevertheless, the task may seem daunting to those who lack knowledge of the nuts and bolts of operating such a program. Here, I seek to demystify the process, as well as to explain why launching and maintaining a DL program is a valuable and achievable goal for almost all districts and schools.

**Bilingual Education: The Models and the Research**

For many years, the most prevalent form of bilingual education for ELLs in U.S. schools was the early exit or transitional model. Under this approach, once a student had become proficient in the second language (L2), he or she was placed in a monolingual class and received no further instruction in his or her first language (L1). However, evidence has been mounting that there are academic advantages not only to developing skills in two languages, but also to continuing bilingual/biliterate development (Corson, 1993; Cummins & Danesi, 1990; Magruder, Hayslip, Espinosa, & Matera, 2013; Rodriguez, 2015; Veliyeva, 2015). In addition, researchers have shown that L1 and L2 literacy are strongly related in childhood L2 learners, as the development of literacy skills in both languages represents the mastery of common underlying principles (Atwill, Blanchard, Gorin, & Burstein, 2007; Cummins, 1984; Leikin, 2013; Verhoeven, 2007; Zhang, Anderson, Li, Dong, Wu, & Zhang, 2010). Thus, continuing to provide such learners with instruction in the L1 not only supports proficiency in that language but also serves to promote conceptual development and academic understanding that can be transferred to facility in learning and using the L2 (Cummins & Schecter, 2003; Marian, Shook, & Schroeder, 2013; Martin-Beltran, 2009). In short, strategies taught in two or more languages serve to contribute positively not only to the acquisition of the L2, but to a student's overall academic development as well.

In contrast to the transitional approach, DL programs aim to foster bilingual proficiency by providing ongoing literacy and content instruction in two languages to groups that are structured to include, as far as possible, balanced numbers of native speakers of each. The popularity of such programs represents a major shift in the perception of the role of a child’s primary language in acquiring an L2 and, where the L1 is the language spoken by a so-called “minority” within the larger culture, in its use in acquiring academic content. In DL programs, in other words, rather than attempting to eliminate or downplay the (minority) L1, educators use L1 knowledge as a critical bridge to gaining L2 proficiency for students of both language groups, and both languages are used for content learning even after speakers of the minority L1 have achieved L2 proficiency (typically, DL programs are offered for 6 to 8 years in the elementary setting, but some continue into secondary school). Thus, DL is often referred to as an *additive* bilingual education model, in that the L2 does not replace the L1 but is developed alongside it (Baker, 2001; Cenoz, 2013; Lara-Alecio, Galloway, Ibby, Rodriguez, & Gómez, 2004). The ultimate goal of such programs is not to seek out the shortest route to L2 proficiency but to create a learning environment

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that promotes bilingual and biliterate development and that fosters positive attitudes to both languages, as well as to their associated cultures (Mora, Wink, & Wink, 2001).

Thomas and Collier (2002) conducted a 5-year research study (1996-2001) that looked at program model participation and academic achievement in selected districts across the United States. DL participants were found to be the most likely to reach the 50th percentile on test scores (in both languages) and the least likely to drop out of school. Interestingly, the study also found that when ELLs left a bilingual elementary program and entered an English-only class, they initially performed less well than the typical classmate who had received instruction only in English. However, by middle school, ELLs previously schooled in DL programs demonstrated the same level of achievement as those receiving instruction only in English, and by high school they typically exceeded these peers in academic achievement. Meanwhile, English L1 students who had previously participated in DL programs outperformed their peers who had been educated in a standard, English-only instructional setting, thus supporting the view that DL confers academic benefits on majority as well as minority L1 participants.

Choosing a Target Language and Program Type

Once decision makers at a district or school become convinced of the benefits of the DL approach, a number of program-level choices remain to be made. In the U.S. context, one of the home languages is almost always English, and hence U.S. educators refer to DL participants (based on their beginning state) as ELLs and English proficient students (EPs). However, an important variable is which “minority” language, widely referred to as the target language (TL), will be the L1 of the ELLs (technically, English constitutes the target language for acquisition by these students). Typically, the minority L1 in a DL program in the United States will depend on the demographics and needs of the community, and participation for both ELLs and EPs will depend on parental choice. For example, in a neighborhood in which Korean is widely spoken, a school would have a strong incentive to establish a Korean/English DL program, while parents in a largely Hispanic community might prefer that their children strengthen their Spanish home language while learning English together with native English speakers within a DL program. Multiple programs featuring different language pairings, in fact, can operate within the same school. In all cases, however, it is important to reach out to parents in order to determine whether sufficient interest exists—or can be generated—to support implementing a DL program for a given TL.

After the TLs have been chosen, there are several DL program types from which to choose with respect to the allocation and distribution of instructional time. The first choice in this regard pertains to the percentage of time that each language will be used for instruction. The models for allocation that currently predominate in U.S. schools are the 90/10 model, in which English is spoken 10% of the time and the TL 90% of the time, and the 50/50 model, which strives for balance in the use of English and the TL. Substantial literature exists to assist program coordinators in choosing between these program types (e.g., Esposito & Baker-Ward, 2013; Gómez, Freeman, & Freeman, 2005; Soltero, 2004; Torres-Guzmán, Kleyn, Morales-Rodríguez, & Han, 2005). In either case, decisions will also have to be made regarding how to distribute the allocated instructional time throughout the day and across the week. With respect to the 50/50 model, the two predominant approaches are the alternate day model, in which instruction and class discussion are carried out more or less exclusively in English on one day and in the TL on the next, and the roller coaster model, in which instruction starts out in one language in
the morning and then switches to the other language about half-way through the school day—with the pattern repeated (but with the order reversed) the following day, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Roller Coaster Model for Distribution of Instructional Time by Language in a 50/50 Dual Language Classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time of Day</th>
<th>Monday</th>
<th>Tuesday</th>
<th>Wednesday</th>
<th>Thursday</th>
<th>Friday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Morning</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Target Language</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Target Language</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afternoon</td>
<td>Target Language</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Target Language</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Target Language</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Equipping the Classroom**

Before DL classes begin, classroom libraries should be stocked with level-appropriate fiction and nonfiction materials in both languages. Whenever possible, the same texts should be made available in both languages so there is continuity across the two components. In fact, many DL proponents advocate the use of two separate classrooms, one for English and one for the TL, and this approach, where possible, allows for the rooms to be decorated distinctively in order to sharpen the focus on the language of instruction. Such decoration can include maps and posters, as well as instructional-support materials such as labels, charts, diagrams, and bulletin boards, along with postings of students’ writing and other work. Some programs even use contrasting colors to help young students differentiate between the two classrooms, such as having all printing and labeling done in blue for the English room and in red for the TL room. Finally, it is important to remember that DL classrooms must be at least as well equipped as others within the school building with all form of materials, including technology and the software and connections to support its use. In fact, double quantities of materials should be procured for these classrooms (or, where applicable, mirror image sets in each language), so that instructional support available in one language room is complemented in the other.

**Class Organization**

With the rooms set up and materials ordered, the organization of the class population needs to be considered. Basically, there are two models from which to choose:

1. In one model, two classes are grouped homogeneously by language, i.e., ELLs in one class and EPs in the other, in order to receive literacy instruction in their native language; for their other curricular components, however, the students are divided into two groups, each of which includes as close as possible to equal numbers of ELLs and EPs. This model is based on the premise that literacy instruction is more effective when using the language in which oral proficiency already exists.

2. In the second model, two classes are each comprised of both ELLs and EPs, with instruction delivered to all students in English when they are in the English room and in the TL when they are in the TL room. Some schools implement this model beginning
at the kindergarten level, and most schools that start their DL programs using the first model—in which groups are separated by L1 for literacy instruction—switch to this latter model in the first or second grade.

**Orientation for Parents and Staff**

In addition to studying the relevant literature, district and school personnel considering implementing a DL program may choose to send teacher representatives to visit existing programs—ideally programs that encompass a variety of approaches—so they can educate faculty and administrators regarding the available models and preferred instructional strategies. In any case, once the decision has been made to implement such a program, educators from the district or school will want to conduct one or more orientation sessions for members of the community, particularly for parents, in which the purpose of DL instruction and the rationale for the chosen approach are explained and discussed. Videos and DVDs are available to provide a multimedia dimension to such presentations (National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning, 1995). Regardless of the methods used, however, it is important to explain the benefits of the program to both language groups so that parents understand that ELLs will be learning English while strengthening their home-language skills and that EPs will be acquiring a new language in addition to receiving vigorous instruction in English language arts.

Some schools prepare a handout or packet to support the delivery of this message, and these typically contain some or all of the following elements (Calderon & Minaya-Rowe, 2003):

- Two to three pages devoted to frequently asked questions regarding DL programs, along with a short paragraph responding to each question;
- A one- to two-page summary of the benefits of DL programs and of the research to support these claims;
- A one-page sample letter to parents that includes commitment criteria;
- A list of area DL classrooms that interested parents can visit;
- Anecdotes from teachers, parents, and members of the business community acknowledging the need for and value of such programs;
- Cost estimate/proposed budget and list of possible funding sources; and
- A press release or guest editorial.

A commitment letter can also be drafted for parents to sign, which should make clear the grade levels that the program will span, typically beginning with kindergarten. As the program grows, inquiries can be made with local intermediate and secondary schools to see if they are interested in supporting the continuation of the DL program through their grade levels as well.

**Teacher Selection and Programming**

Educators chosen to take responsibility for the DL program should be dedicated and possess strong language and pedagogical skills. At least two teachers usually need to be involved for each grade level: one must be certified in bilingual education, the other in English as a Second Language (ESL). One teacher will instruct in English, and one will teach in the TL. The English teacher does not necessarily have to speak the other language, although doing so may be considered a plus. However, it is crucial for the two teachers to be able to work collegially with each other, as they will need to plan lessons together in order to maintain continuity of instruction across changes in instructional language. After all, each will need to pick up where the other left off with a given lesson or topic that
was begun or last visited in the other language, and only through careful planning and cooperation can they ensure that instruction moves forward continuously.

In many cases, DL programs comprise two classes for each participating grade, with each teacher alternating days (or half days) with each class (see Table 1). For this arrangement to function smoothly, and in order to fulfill all curricular requirements and expectations for both groups, the classes must mirror each other. This level of coordination is greatly facilitated if the two teachers are provided a common preparation period each day. If possible, as the program grows, the DL teachers for all grade levels should be provided with a common weekly (or at least monthly) preparation period, during which they can meet as a department.

**Promoting Academic Achievement: Dual Language as an Enrichment Program**

DL can be viewed as an enrichment program and may be affiliated with or administered under a district or school's gifted and talented program or similar rubric. As such, the program and expectations for both ELLs and EPs should be based on a rigorous curriculum and should focus on challenging objectives. However, program planners and classroom teachers must bear in mind that in each language room within the DL program there is, at any given time, a group for whom the language of instruction is their L1, who need to be challenged, and a group for whom the language of instruction is their L2, who need to be provided with scaffolding and other forms of pedagogical support in order to grasp and internalize the concepts being taught. This program and classroom dynamic is mapped out in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Language Room</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Class A</td>
<td>English</td>
<td><strong>ELL A-group</strong> (language learners in this setting—need scaffolding)</td>
<td><strong>EP A-group</strong> (language proficient in this setting—need to be challenged)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class B</td>
<td>Target Language</td>
<td><strong>ELL B-group</strong> (language proficient in this setting—need to be challenged)</td>
<td><strong>EP B-group</strong> (language learners in this setting—need scaffolding)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To promote academic achievement for all individuals within this dynamic, DL teachers employ a variety of strategies, such as using flexible grouping practices and providing individual students with opportunities for advanced projects (Baecher, Artigliere, Patterson, & Spatzer, 2012; Beecher & Sweeny, 2008; Tomlinson, 2004). What is important to bear in mind, however, is that all of the students, both ELLs and EPs, will be language learners in one of the classes and language-proficient students in the other. Hence, the DL path to academic excellence is a challenging one for teachers and students alike, and schools
and districts may choose to employ some form of selection process before encouraging students to embark on this journey. Where ELLs are concerned, however, particularly in the early grades, the approaches by which U.S. educators are accustomed to identifying giftedness or aptitude may be impeded by the language barrier or cultural differences. Hence, when screening ELLs for participation in DL programs, schools and districts need to identify and offer alternatives to English language standardized tests (Cox-Peterson & Olson, 2007; Malabonga, Kenyon, Carlo, August, & Louguit, 2008; Malloy, Gilbertson, & Maxfield, 2007). Examples of alternative assessments include behavioral checklists or inventories, interviews, autobiographies, nominations, and testing conducted in the student's L1 (Cohen, 1990).

Nevertheless, many of the guidelines commonly cited in connection with programs targeted to academically gifted students are equally pertinent when designing a DL program. Particularly instructive in this regard are the following points emphasized by Smutny (2003): (a) gifted programs should not plan for enrichment only but should offer a cohesive, rigorous, creative, and in-depth course of study; (b) gifted programs should use the best possible teachers in the content areas being offered; and (c) gifted programs need to accommodate students with different learning styles, cultures, and socioeconomic backgrounds. In recognition of the diversity referred to in this latter point, it is important that DL program participants be exposed to a variety of teaching styles and philosophies, as well as to a range of activities and experiences, in order to provide them with multiple pathways to academic and personal growth. In other words, they should not be instructed monolithically, either in terms of the approach taken with each student or the strategies used across different lessons or throughout the school year, and they should be provided with enrichment opportunities to the fullest extent possible for a given district or school. Such opportunities can include access to experiences and activities that are designed to expose students to events, persons, and places not covered in the traditional curriculum, including field trips and guest speakers, as well as learning activities based on investigation and problem solving (Beecher, 1996). Some schools may also choose to offer DL program participants the opportunity to begin studying a third language once they have become proficient in their L2.

**Potential Drawbacks of DL Programs**

Potential drawbacks to the DL instructional model should also be noted. For one thing, the quality of instruction in the minority language, or TL, may be substandard, particularly where a lack of teachers qualified to teach in this language exists (Valdes, 1997). Second, as Snow (1990) pointed out, the introduction of native-language instruction will not solve all of the educational challenges for a given group, notably for ELLs in the U.S. context, and any program with poor instruction will be a disservice to participants, irrespective of the quality of the model or the intentions of the organizers. Finally, many schools may not have the requisite numbers of ELLs and EPs of otherwise similar developmental level to form balanced DL classes, particularly because subgroups within a given society often cluster in neighborhoods where their native tongue predominates.

**Conclusion**

In sum, DL programs can be understood and managed as enrichment programs and targeted, at least in the first instance, to gifted students. Nevertheless, the purpose or function of DL programs should not be seen as narrow or exclusive. Indeed, educators and parents have become increasingly aware that bilingualism is a valuable skill for all
individuals in a rapidly globalizing world, and district and school personnel should make it a goal to have as many students as possible educated in multiple languages. By using both languages for content instruction, DL programs not only meet this goal for participants, but do so in a more authentic and thorough-going manner than traditional foreign language classes. From this standpoint, DL classes are enrichment programs by their very nature, even within districts and schools that cannot afford expensive learning materials or a wealth of activities and experiences outside the classroom. In fact, the magic of DL is that any district or school that has appropriately skilled and certified teachers, students with LI1s other than English, and parents who are willing to support participation can create enrichment simply by implementing the strategy of two-way bilingual learning. This is possible because much of the value of DL is achieved by leveraging a resource available in all schools: students. DL students learn how to work collaboratively at cognitively demanding tasks in two different languages, and, in doing so, they not only help each other to improve their command of both, but also learn valuable teamwork skills and augment their learning efficacy. Thus, potentially at least, DL programs offer an inexpensive, almost universally available pathway to academic excellence, bilingualism, and multicultural awareness, all of which are priceless commodities in the twenty-first century.

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From the Roots Up: Building Students’ Vocabulary Knowledge through Latin and Greek
By Amanda Wall

As students progress through school, they encounter more and more vocabulary. The number of words they need to know expands, as does the complexity of these words. A large portion of English words derive from Latin and Greek, so understanding of Latin and Greek morphemes can aid students’ knowledge and skills with English vocabulary. The researcher prepared mini-lessons to teach middle school students 12 morphemes from Latin and Greek that are the base of numerous English words. Students benefited from multiple forms of exposure to these morphemes and many activities to engage with vocabulary in a range of ways.

Introduction

The Common Core State Standards (CCSS; National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers [NGA], 2010) emphasize vocabulary development within English language arts and across content areas for middle grades. Common Core also highlights what is referred to as students’ academic language (Zwiers, 2007) and their growing understanding of words with increasingly specific meanings. One standard for vocabulary instruction, for example, states that students should be able to “determine or clarify the meaning of unknown or multiple-meaning words and phrases based on [grade-appropriate] reading and content, choosing flexibly from a range of strategies” (CCSS.ELA-Literacy.L.6.4). A subheading of this standard mentions students’ use of “Greek or Latin affixes or roots as clues to the meaning of a word” (CCSS.ELA-Literacy.L.6.4b). A focus on Greek and Latin roots has merit. As many as three-quarters of English words (or more) derive from Latin or Greek (Padak, Newton, Rasinski, & Newton, 2008; Robb, 2014), and several individual Latin or Greek roots are the base of 20 or more English words (Rasinski, Padak, Newton, & Newton, 2011). As students progress through school and encounter more discipline-specific and technical vocabulary, the proportion of words from Latin and Greek increases. Because so many English words, particularly discipline-specific words, derive from Latin and Greek, knowledge of such roots can augment students’ vocabulary.

This study focused on vocabulary instruction built around Latin and Greek roots, or morphemes, through short-term mini-lessons in Grade 8 language arts. The idea behind this study was that teaching specific morphemes, rather than specific words, would allow students to understand the meanings of multiple words derived from a common root, as well as the relationships among those words. For example, the Latin morpheme duc/duct means
“lead” and is the root of words such as conductor, introduction, and reduce. Understanding the meaning of the common root may allow students to develop more word consciousness (Kieffer & Lesaux, 2007) or interest in words and their meanings.

**Literature**

As students move through middle grades and into high school, vocabulary demands increase. Across the content areas, students encounter more words of greater complexity that may not be part of their everyday language. Students thus have an increasing need for vocabulary knowledge as part of their overall literacy development as they progress through the middle grades and beyond (Bintz, 2011). Many of these words can be categorized as general academic vocabulary and domain-specific academic vocabulary (Baumann & Graves, 2010). Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2013) described three tiers of vocabulary based on the meaning and use of words. Tier 1 words are basic, everyday words that are often used in conversation. Tier 2 words exist across a wide range of domains, span several content areas, and are useful for “mature language users” (p. 9). Tier 2 words, such as analyze or contradict, are more common in written text but less common in conversation. Tier 3 words are discipline- or context-specific words that occur at lower frequencies than Tier 1 or 2 words and include, for example, types of governments (e.g., oligarchy, autocracy) or terms related to particular habitats (e.g., arboreal, subterranean). Tier 2 and 3 words tend to include more words derived from Greek and Latin morphemes.

Students not only need to learn more words; they also need to have the skills to “determine and clarify” the meanings of unknown words, as stated in the CCSS standard above. In other words, they need to develop word flexibility or an ability to reconfigure words by affix and root; they also need increasing word consciousness (Kieffer & Lesaux, 2007). These word skills aid students as they need to know more academic vocabulary and language (Baumann & Graves, 2010; Snow & Uccelli, 2009). Nagy and Anderson (1984) estimated that students encounter 10,000 new words in Grade 5 and as many as 88,500 words organized into myriad word families in Grades 3-9 school texts. According to Padak et al. (2008), “Academic texts in general have a disproportionate number of words from Latin and Greek roots because words associated with scholarly, scientific, and technical advances are most often of Greek or Latin origin” (p. 8). For these reasons, students see more words derived from Latin and Greek as they go through middle and high school.

Previous research has provided suggestions for vocabulary instruction based on Latin and Greek morphemes. Students’ vocabulary can be strengthened through explicit instruction and strategies that foster students’ independence (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2004). Kieffer and Lesaux (2007, 2008) studied students’ knowledge of morphemes and found that students with greater knowledge of morphemes also had larger vocabularies. They proposed explicit vocabulary instruction based on morphemes on the assumption that, as students understand more morphemes, they are better able to combine and recombine morphemes and thus strengthen their English vocabulary. Students can gain the ability,
for example, to manipulate words with common morphemes (e.g., *evoke* into *evocative*); to recognize connections among forms of a word (e.g., *evident*, *evidence*); or to produce new derivations from known words (e.g., *transmission* from *transmit*). These strategies and others (e.g., Wall, 2014) scaffold students’ ability to develop morphemic awareness and analysis. Through the use of such strategies, students can combine knowledge of specific words with skills that transfer to other words. Padak et al. (2008) advocated teaching students morphemes as “generative elements” (p. 10) of words as a way to support their conceptual knowledge. They gave an example with the word *photosynthesis* and explained that, if a student knows that *photo* in *photosynthesis* means “light” and that *syn* means “together; with,” their knowledge of these separate morphemes can also aid their understanding of photosynthesis as a concept. Learning common morphemes can make it easier for students to learn and master new words that are semantically connected as well. Vocabulary instruction that includes morphemes and roots can benefit all learners. For example, Bowers, Kirby, and Deacon (2010) reviewed 22 studies with morphological interventions and found that morphological instruction can benefit less-able readers.

In addition to showing students specific morphemes, teachers can provide students with guidance on how to use specific vocabulary strategies. Word study, in a sense, is a matter of procedural knowledge (knowing how to analyze words) as well as declarative knowledge (knowing what a morpheme or word means), so students need strategies that will allow them to become metacognitively and metalinguistically aware of words and how to see and understand morphemes within words (Nagy & Scott, 2000; Padak et al., 2008). Instruction based on Latin and Greek morphemes can be efficacious.

The procedures for this study grew from the literature. Mini-lessons for explicit vocabulary instruction were based on recommendations from research (Kieffer & Lesaux, 2007, 2008; Rasinski et al., 2011) and on strategies for best practices in vocabulary instruction (e.g., Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2012; Blachowicz & Fisher, 2004; Fisher, Brozo, Frey, & Ivey, 2015). Zhang, Duke, and Jimenez (2011) described a brief series of mini-lessons designed to teach older elementary students a framework for Web site evaluation. The study described here adopted a similar structure of mini-lessons that complemented the regular language arts curriculum. These mini-lessons incorporated explicit vocabulary instruction anchored in Latin and Greek morphemes. The approach to this study thus incorporated the Four “E’s” of effective vocabulary instruction developed by Wilcox and Morrison (2013). According to this framework, students need (a) experience with words; (b) a word-rich environment; (c) multiple forms of exposure to words; and (d) engagement with words in a range of ways. These guidelines framed the design and selection of mini-lessons. Multiple research-based activities (Bear et al., 2012; Fisher, et al., 2015) allowed students to be exposed to and engage with words; some of these included illustrating word relationships, creating vocabulary cards, or using word walls. The 12 morphemes selected for the study were determined based on word frequency lists in Rasinski et al. (2011), Kieffer and Lesaux (2007), and Bear et al. (2012), in addition to the researcher’s knowledge of English words derived from Latin and Greek morphemes.

The guiding idea of the study was that explicit vocabulary instruction based on Latin and Greek roots would support students’ vocabulary knowledge and skills. The research questions were: How can explicit vocabulary instruction impact students’ abilities to recognize morphemes in English words and to be able to see words in their constituent parts (i.e., prefix, root, suffix)? and How can knowledge of morphemes aid students’ vocabularies?
Method

A brief overview of relevant terminology related to vocabulary will provide a context for the approach to vocabulary instruction based on morphemes. A **morpheme** is the smallest unit of meaning within a word; it cannot be broken down further into smaller units of meaning. A word may consist of a single morpheme (e.g., *vent*) or multiple morphemes (e.g., *intervention; adventure*). A morpheme may be a root word or an affix, such as a prefix or suffix. A word may have multiple prefixes (e.g., *inadvertent*) or suffixes (e.g., *selflessness*), or both prefixes and suffixes (e.g., *unnecessarily*). When a student is able to see a word like *inconceivable* as a combination of a prefix, a root, and a suffix, that student may be able to use knowledge of those individual morphemes to infer the meaning of unknown words. An understanding that morphemes can combine to form longer words helps students see words in terms of their constituent parts.

The researcher and a teacher collaborated on the idea of vocabulary instruction based on Latin and Greek morphemes, which aligned with an overall school goal to focus on students’ vocabulary. The study was conducted within two Grade 8 language arts classes in a rural school. Although all students in both classes participated in all mini-lessons and vocabulary activities, findings are based on the work of the 44% of students who, with their parents’ consent, agreed to participate in the study. Only students with permission to participate in the study took a pretest and a posttest, and two focus groups at the end of the study were selected from consenting students. The study spanned 8 days over a 2-week period. Due to scheduling constraints, focus groups took place about a month after the mini-lessons ended.

On the first day, participating students took the pretest; on the final day, they completed the same test as a posttest. On six other days, the researcher taught mini-lessons designed to introduce students to 12 Latin and Greek morphemes that are the basis of many English words. These words were selected by the researcher based on familiarity with grade-level literature in the district (such as *House of the Scorpion* by Nancy Farmer, 2002), general standards for English language arts, and her own background with Latin and Greek. All students in the class, whether or not they participated in the study, benefited from the mini-lessons and did the associated tasks; only tasks done by participants provided data for the study.

Topics for the mini-lessons related to the morphemes. The 12 morphemes, or roots, are in Table 1. First, each morpheme, its meaning, and its source language were introduced. Then, students brainstormed possible English words from each morpheme. One goal of this activity was for the researcher to gain a sense of the students’ general vocabulary knowledge.

Students also made vocabulary cards, patterned on Frayer models (Frayer, Fredrick, & Klausmeier, 1969), on which they wrote a self-selected English word based on one of the 12 focus roots. The English word was placed in the middle of the card, and the students added its root, the definition of the root, the definition of the word, a sentence using the word, and a related illustration. For example, a student who chose the word *photosynthesis* would have written the definition of *photosynthesis*, the root *photo* and its meaning, “light.”
Then the student would add a sentence using *photosynthesis* and a related drawing, such as the sun shining on a plant. Students also did short writing exercises. On one day, students were given a list of five to six English words from a common Greek or Latin root. In small groups, they had only a few minutes to write a story using as many of the words as possible. On another day, students had two related writing prompts and were instructed to use as many words from any of the roots as they could manage in their responses. Mini-lessons also focused specifically on various prefixes and suffixes commonly used with the roots. Through instruction and tasks, students were encouraged to see longer words as combinations of prefixes, roots, and suffixes so they could see constituent parts of words. Students also practiced using etymological information in dictionaries to check the Latin or Greek root of particular words.

| Table 1  

*Twelve Morphemes* |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LATIN (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scrib/scrip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vert/vers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mit/mitt/mis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>duc/duct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vid/vis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>voc/vok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GREEK (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>graph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>geo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phos/photo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the last 2 days of the project, students created vocabulary posters. Each student selected one root word. The student then used dictionaries and other materials to select six to eight English words derived from the root. Before starting the poster, each student verified the words, their etymologies, and their definitions with the researcher. On the poster, each student wrote the root, its meaning, the six to eight English words, and the meaning of each English word. The design of the poster was supposed to reflect the meaning of the root word. For example, a student who selected the root *bio* ("life") might have drawn animals or illustrated a habitat on the poster. Dictionaries, thesauri, a few reference items, and materials for the posters were provided through a grant from the Delta Kappa Gamma Educational Foundation.

After the conclusion of the mini-lessons, the researcher conducted two focus groups, with the teacher selecting three students from the pool of participants to be in each focus group. Each focus group was conducted in the library during a study hall period so that the students did not miss instructional time. The teacher invited students who were caught up on all assignments to participate in a focus group. During the focus groups, students responded to additional questions related to vocabulary and how they learn words (see Appendix A).
Data Collection and Analysis

Data collected included scores on pretests and posttests from participants. The pretest and posttest were identical, allowing for before-and-after comparisons by participant and across participants. Additional data included vocabulary tasks by participating students and notes from the two focus groups. All sources of data, except for focus-group interviews, were collected during regular class time; no sources of data counted as a grade in the class.

The first part of the analysis involved scoring the pretests and posttests and then comparing results. All participants in the study (N = 17) took the pretest. Due to absences, only 14 students took the posttest.

The pretest and posttest included two sections with short-answer items and one section with two open-ended items. On the pretest, many students answered most of the items correctly, reflecting a solid base of understanding for the vocabulary concepts under investigation. The first section included 12 pairs of items. For each pair, three words with a common root were given. Students were first required to define the root and then to supply one more English word from the same root. For example, describe, inscription, and scribe were given, and students were asked to define scribe and give one more related English word. Answers with any form of the correct meaning, “write” (for example, “write”, “writing”, “written”), were counted as correct. The additional related English word was counted as correct if it differed from the words given and was derived from the same root. In scoring, each part of the pair was treated separately, resulting in 24 items.

On the second section of the test were 10 multiple-choice items. For each, a sentence was given with a word underlined. The students were instructed to read the sentence and then determine the meaning of the underlined word. Students would be able to use prior knowledge of the word as well as context clues to select a choice. The two open-ended items at the end asked students to look back at the first two sections. Those items were:

1. Pick one of the sentences above that had a word in bold that you did not know. How did you determine the meaning of the word in bold?
2. When you are reading and you see a word that is not familiar, what do you do to figure out the meaning of that word?

The first two sections were designed to assess aspects of students’ knowledge of words and morphemes, and the open-ended items allowed them to reveal aspects of their word consciousness (Kieffer & Lesaux, 2007).

Findings

Based on the pretest results, students began the study with solid vocabulary knowledge. The first section of the pretest and posttest, as noted, had 12 pairs of items. Three English words with a common root were given. The students were asked (1) to determine the meaning of the root, and (2) to add one more word from the same root. Table 2 presents percentages for students’ correct responses to the first part of each item, determining the meaning of the root; pretest and posttest scores are included. On the second part of each item, adding an additional word from the same root, at least 9 students (53%) were able to add another word for each item. Table 3 shows percentages correct for items on the multiple-choice section; overall, the students’ average remained almost the same between the pretest and posttest on this section. Table 4 presents data from the pretest on how students reported that they determined the meanings of unknown words. Posttest data were similar to pretest data, and results improved from the students’ already solid pretest results.
### Table 2
*Statement of Meaning of Root: Percentage Correct*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Pretest (N = 17)</th>
<th>Posttest (N = 14)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1a (scrib.scrip)</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2a (vers/vert)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3a (bio)</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4a (duc/duct)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5a (mis/mit)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6a (geo)</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7a (ject)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8a (vid/vis)</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9a (graph)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10a (phos/photo)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11a (dict)</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12a (voc/vok)</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td><strong>37</strong></td>
<td><strong>80</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3
*Answers to Multiple-Choice Items: Percentage Correct*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Pretest (N = 17)</th>
<th>Posttest (N = 14)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td><strong>85</strong></td>
<td><strong>86</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4
How Students Determined Meanings of Words (Pretest): Percentage Identifying Each Strategy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Percentage (N= 17)</th>
<th>Sample Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Using context clues</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>Reading the sentence and using context clues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Context clues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using morphemes/roots</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>By using script I found out what it [unknown word] means</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>I looked at bio and know it means life and diversity means different so that’s how I know it means different forms of life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educated guess</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>I made an educated guess.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vocabulary tasks were analyzed for integration of English words derived from the 12 focus morphemes. Students used the words accurately in their vocabulary tasks, due in part to the availability of reference materials and to instructional materials, including charts, that supported and scaffolded their learning. Fourteen of 17 students (82%) completed a word card based on a Frayer model. Two students chose the word photograph because both photo and graph were on the list of roots. Two other students selected photo. Two more students chose other words using the morpheme graph, autograph and geography. Three students chose words from vers/vert meaning “to turn”, invert, converse, and universe. The other students chose other English words (e.g., eject, visible, and prescription) from a mix of roots. For the posters, students were able to select one of the 12 roots, locate multiple correct English words from that root, and display the roots, words, and definitions. Some students’ designs supported the meaning of the words, but other students’ designs were more decorative.

Focus-group data complemented students’ responses on the posttest and revealed that the range of vocabulary tasks had aided their vocabulary. In response to the question about what strategies they had learned from the mini-lessons, two students noted that knowing the meaning of roots helped them with the vocabulary. Students also appreciated tasks that incorporated drawing and other visual elements, with one commenting, “When we did the projects, [we saw] how words related.” Two students specifically mentioned the inclusion of drawings and visual tasks as a useful vocabulary strategy.
Discussion

Explicit vocabulary instruction based in Latin and Greek morphemes did aid students’ vocabulary knowledge, as evidenced by the posttest scores, which built on students’ already solid pretest scores. Student responses on the open-ended portion of the posttest and in focus groups centered on two main factors that aided their vocabulary knowledge. First, students benefited from multiple exposures to the morphemes over several days (Wilcox & Morrison, 2013). Working with only 12 morphemes allowed students to go into more depth with each one and with related English words. Second, students enjoyed the range of activities that allowed them to engage with morphemes and words in different ways (cf., Bear et al., 2012; Fisher et al., 2015; Wilcox & Morrison, 2013). The students listed English words from each morpheme, created word cards, did short pieces of writing, used reference materials, and created posters. Focus-group students noted that tasks with visual or graphic components helped them learn words.

This study built on other works that focused generally on vocabulary and narrowly on vocabulary instruction based on Latin and Greek morphemes. It took place in a language arts classroom and was based in part on Common Core’s emphasis on vocabulary and academic language (CCSS; NGA, 2010). Although modest in scope and success, the study offers support to other research on the benefits of vocabulary instruction based on Latin and Greek morphemes. Such an approach, with a focus on morphemes and constituent parts of words, can benefit native speakers of English, such as the students in this study, as well as English language learners. A focus on these morphemes supported students’ developing word consciousness and allowed them to strengthen their knowledge of words they knew already by understanding more about etymology. Further research is needed to continue to study the impact of targeted vocabulary instruction for middle-grades students. Teachers and students can benefit from the strategies implemented through this study and adapt them to other content areas.

References


Appendix

Questions for Focus Groups

1. Why is vocabulary important?

2. What do you do when you are reading and see a word you don’t know?

3. What strategies have you learned from the mini-lessons? How will you use these strategies in the future?

4. What root did you learn that is helpful to your vocabulary? How?

5. Roots can help us see how different words are related. Did you learn any word relationships that were interesting to you?

6. What types of activities help you learn new words? In school? Out of school?

7. Tell me about the posters you made. What do you like about your work? What did you learn by doing this project?

8. Do any of you have any questions for me about vocabulary or roots?
The “Real” Truth about Service Learning: College Sophomores’ Perspectives
By Deborah Williams, with Marina Moore and Sarah Robinson

With two of her students, the author explores the methodology of service learning and provides an overview of a 10-hour service-learning project conducted in a Grade 3 classroom at a low-performing school. The goal of the project was to connect classroom content to community needs.

Several experts concur that service learning is a progressive teaching method, and research findings have indicated that participation in service learning strengthens preservice teachers’ understanding of theory and practice (Darling-Hammond, Grossman, Hammerness, Rust, & Shulman, 2005). Furthermore, involvement in service-learning projects benefits the students and community. Kaye (2004) defined service learning as “a teaching method where guided or classroom learning is deepened through service to others in a process that provides structured time for reflection on the service experience and demonstration of the skills and knowledge acquired” (p. 7). Similarly, Brownell and Swaner (2009) described service learning as “…ensuring that students’ service experiences are linked directly to classroom learning. This linkage not only differentiates service learning from volunteerism, but also enables students to apply classroom learning in out-of-class settings and vice versa” (p. 29).

The first section of this article briefly summarizes research related to service learning in higher education. The second section describes a recent service-learning project, and the third section includes the “real” truth about service learning from the lens of two college sophomores. The conclusion amalgamates the research on service learning and the students’ feedback with considerations for enhancing future projects.

Summary of Service Learning in Higher Education

The idea of service learning is rooted in the theory of experiential education (Kendall, 1990) and has been explored at the higher education level for approximately three decades. In 1984, the first Campus Outreach Opportunity League (COOL) was established by college students. Their mission was to inform and invigorate other college students to strengthen the nation through service. Following the origin of COOL, college and university presidents formed an organization known as Campus Compact (1985) to increase opportunities for public and community service in higher education. Campus Compact also promoted the importance of civic responsibility in students’ learning. In 1989, an advisory group convened at Wingspread, an international educational conference facility in Wisconsin, and developed Principles of Good Practice for Combining Service and Learning (Honnet & Poulsen, 1989). Subsequently, The Invisible College (Rothblatt, 1994)
was designated as a meeting place for university faculty who desired to combine service and learning in higher education. Approximately 2 years later, Jacoby and associates (1996) developed a comprehensive guide to high quality service learning by combining theory and best practices.

Weigert (1998) explored academic service learning, its meaning, and relevance. She concluded that higher education must continue to situate its role in society at large in order to prepare students for the new millennium. “In this context, attention to service learning took on vital importance” (p. 3). Although a monumental challenge for students and faculty, academic service learning offers rewarding experiences. Rewards that Weigert outlined included the joy of rejuvenating a love for teaching, making a difference in the world, and connecting classroom learning to community needs.

Early in the twenty-first century, the idea of service learning in higher education began to flourish. In an exploratory study, Furco (2002) investigated central issues related to institutionalizing service learning in higher education. A limited number of universities across the nation established service-learning opportunities for students; however, service learning failed to represent the academic fabric and was not legitimized by the faculty and supported by administration (Furco, 2002). In Furco’s 3-year study, personnel at participating universities uncovered issues that hampered the institutionalization of service learning. How to gain support from the faculty and departments appeared crucial to giving service learning more prominence with academic disciplines. Factoring in strategies to garner student support and creating a set of national standards were additional challenging issues.

In 2007, the National Leadership Council for Liberal Education and America’s Promise (LEAP) identified several innovative, high-impact practices that gained attention at universities. Swaner and Brownell (2009) conducted a literature review of such practices and concluded that college and university personnel should design programs that aligned with the cultures and goals of their organizations. Although they determined that more research was needed, Swaner and Brownell found that implementation of high-impact activities such as first-year seminars, learning communities, service learning, and undergraduate research hold limitless possibilities for students.

According to Castellan (2012), preservice elementary education majors gain knowledge of course content while engaged in service-learning experiences. Castellan (2012) concluded that preservice teachers believed reflection provided them an avenue for making connections between their course content and their experiences as postulated by Dewey’s (1944) progressivist ideas on learning through experience.

Several university faculty members started to create service-learning opportunities for teacher candidates. Stringfellow and Edmonds-Behrend (2013) used the guidelines from the Serve America Act (2009) to validate their service-learning program. The special education teacher-certification program required 30 service-learning hours. The four components used from the Serve America Act (2009) were (a) active participation and...
communication between the school and community, (b) enhanced learning experiences through integration of the academic curriculum, (c) opportunities to use knowledge and skills of pedagogy in real-world situations, and (d) regular reflection on students’ service learning to enhance learning. “Service-learning experiences have the potential for developing a commitment to lifelong learning for teachers” (Stringfellow & Edmonds-Behrend, 2013, p. 45).

The current status of service learning in higher education is that it remains optional for use by academics. Cooper (2014) conducted a case study and utilized qualitative methods to explore the perspectives of 13 faculty members regarding institutionalizing service learning. Cooper launched the study after these faculty had been involved in service learning over a period of 10 years. Data from interviews supported four overarching themes: “The four a priori themes included participants’ reasons for engaging in service learning, perceived impact on promotion and tenure, challenges and rewards experienced, and what sustained them in their work” (Cooper, 2014, p. 418). Even though the consensus of participants was highly in favor of service learning as a powerful pedagogy that enhances university curriculum, Cooper recommended ongoing exploration of service learning in higher education to determine its impact on faculty who choose to implement it and how nonparticipating faculty could be persuaded to adopt this pedagogy.

After several decades of exploring and refining service learning in higher education, today it remains a focus and critical component of the academic goals of universities. In his article, Dreaming of Justice: Critical Service-Learning and the Need to Wake Up, Butin (2015) postulated that “Educators have sharpened their research methods, their goals, and their metrics. But the question of impact, especially critical impact, seems evermore unfulfilled” (2015, p. 7). He outlined nine tenets for practice that could fulfill the dream of social justice through service learning. These tenets encompass an interwoven relationship between instructors and community stakeholders such as exchanging cell phone numbers, knowing names of administrative assistants at the community site, and evaluation of the service-learning project by community partners.

**Theory to Application: A Recent Service Learning Project**

A university professor assigned two honor students a 10-hour service-learning project that they completed in a Grade 3 classroom at a low-performing school. They share the details in this article. The goal of the service-learning project was to connect classroom content to community needs. Participating students intended to major in elementary education and were required to assist the elementary teacher with instructional activities during the language arts block.

Prior to launching this project, the professor collaborated with the college students to ensure that Kaye’s (2004) four essential stages of service learning would be addressed: preparation, action, reflection, and demonstration. When preparing for the project, the students received guidance from the professor in identifying a community need at a local elementary school that had been classified as low-performing by the state for 3 years. Following communication with the Grade 3 teacher, the participants clarified the local need. The teacher wanted volunteers to read with students, and the college sophomores were eager to do so in small and whole groups. Their work had value, purpose, and meaning because they wanted to help inspire young students to read and because the Grade 3 students who struggled with reading wanted the extra attention.

Following each classroom visit, students reflected on the experience using the Four Square Reflection Tool (Kaye, 2004). By answering questions in four quadrants of the
tool—What happened? How do I feel? Ideas? and Questions? (see Figure 1)—students engaged in deep reflection about content learned in the college class and content actually observed weekly while interacting with students in the Grade 3 classroom. Quadrant 1 of the reflection tool generated specifics about actual activities during that particular visit. Quadrant 2 prompted exploration of the student’s feelings about what happened. Quadrant 3 prompted the student to identify strategies the teacher used to address the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills and also solicited the student’s ideas about the strategy, and Quadrant 4 invited the student to discuss any challenges encountered. Figure 1 displays an example of one student’s reflection via the Four Square Reflection Tool.

To complete the final stage of the service-learning process as outlined by Kaye (2013), students demonstrated their learning by sharing pieces of their experience with their team in the college reading course as it related to theory and research. They also had the options of reporting to peers or creating a publication.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name: <em>Student 2</em>______________________</th>
<th>Date: 26 March 2015</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>What Happened?</strong></td>
<td><strong>How Do I Feel?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Must include the TEKS)</td>
<td>(Top/Down, Bottom/Up, or Interactive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEKS 9A</td>
<td>Interactive because we broke down the questions to understand each part and used some words in context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students had individual reading time and sat anywhere they wanted to sit. They then had 15 minutes to complete their morning warm-up over the alphabet, suffixes, prefixes, contractions, synonyms, antonyms, and syllables. Afterwards, they turned in their papers and we reviewed the answers as a class. Then they had library time and the school’s lawyer came to read “The Day the Crayons Quit.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ideas?</strong></td>
<td><strong>Challenges?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(What strategies used)</td>
<td>Not all of the students understood the concept of the alphabet or how it worked, so they failed the warm-up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I helped talk about the answers with them and interjected my ideas when they became stumped on what the answer was.</td>
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*Figure 1. One student’s reflection via the Four Square Reflection tool.  
Note: TEKS = Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills*

**The Real Truth about Service Learning**

The college sophomores’ perceptions of service learning, using what they referred to as the “real” truth, are reflected in the following remarks. In their own voice here, they explain what they learned in their reading class and how they interpreted this theory and research in action:

We agree that engaging in service learning strengthens relationships. The real truth is we had to take initiative and build relationships on multiple levels in order to complete our service-learning project. We started our relationship-building with the university professor. Although going to a school without our professor was frightening in the beginning, we learned to communicate with the mentor teacher and Grade 3 students, as
well as with substitute teachers and other faculty and staff. Our survey-of-reading course at the university could not prepare us for this thinking-on-your-feet experience.

We agree that reflection following each visit was an essential component of our learning. The real truth is we were required to think critically about our experience in four different ways. We knew what the professor’s lecture entailed; nonetheless, we did not always understand how a particular theory looked in an authentic setting. This mismatch in theory and practice often surfaced in our written reflections and class discussions. For instance, in our college class, we learned that teachers can use one of the following basic models when delivering reading instruction: (1) Top/down (Goodman, 1967); (2) Bottom/up (Flesch, 1955); or (3) Interactive (Rumelhart, 1976). In our reflection, we indicated that we believed the warm-up activity was interactive. Our professor explained that the activity was not interactive but rather represented the bottom/up model because the worksheet required the students to identify parts of the English language, such as prefixes, suffixes, and synonyms. Had the activity involved a story, poem, or song to represent some kind of message, followed by students identifying prefixes and suffixes that the author used to help convey the message, then the lesson would have represented the interactive model. Rumelhart (1976) concluded in his interactive model that readers need more than just knowledge of letters and words (Bottom/up). Readers also rely on context (Top/down) and schema in order to make meaning from the text.

In spite of all the effective communication between our university professor and mentor teacher, the real truth is nothing could prepare us for our first encounter with the school. They were in lockdown status due to a potentially dangerous situation that police officers were processing in the neighborhood. We agree that service-learning projects should involve active participation and communication between the university and community. In our college reading course, we discussed best practices for curriculum and instruction; however, we did not discuss how to respond to crisis situations while supervising young children. Had it not been for this service-learning opportunity, we would still be in the dark about other situations that might occur in a school besides teaching and learning.

We agree that service-learning should stem from a need in the community and should allow students to practice their learning in authentic settings. The real truth is having a college student available to provide one-to-one, small-group, and whole-group instruction reduces the teacher-pupil ratio in the classroom. We learned about vocabulary development instruction in our college class. The service-learning project allowed us to interact with Grade 3 students and help build their vocabularies. For instance, we facilitated a game titled Blurt during one session. This is a game in which one player reads a word’s definition and the other players must guess the word in order to gain varying point ranges.
During collaboration in our college class, we shared our authentic experiences with our small-group team members and also with the whole class. We agree that this opportunity allowed us to demonstrate and deepen our understanding of how reading is taught and reinforced in a Grade 3 class. The “real” truth is this was a project reserved for honor students. However, we believe all of our peers could have benefited from participating in a service-learning project. When we shared our real-life experiences in class, our classmates portrayed a high level of engagement by posing questions that prompted additional elaboration. Furthermore, we definitely believe other teachers at the school wanted college students assisting them in their classrooms, too.

Conclusion

Service learning represents one of the high-impact practices outlined by Kuh (2008), and the “real” truth is these college sophomores strongly supported this experiential learning activity as valuable to strengthening foundational and pedagogical knowledge of preservice teachers. Based on their feedback, leaders at this southwestern United States University—and all universities—should continue to support faculty who implement this type of hands-on experience. However, more collaboration between the community and university will be required before moving forward with offering the opportunity to all students enrolled in the reading class. Things to consider will involve consensus on an appropriate number of preservice teachers to assign to each classroom and on which grade levels. Another challenge to consider during the expansion planning phase is whether to use or not use additional schools. Transportation availability of preservice teachers should receive consideration because some college students do not own vehicles. The third grade teacher who participated in the current service-learning project was very positive about the experience and believed she and the preservice teachers learned from one another. See evaluation remarks in Figure 2. Nonetheless, the university and community would need to consider the accessibility of teachers who are willing to participate.

The college sophomores who participated in this project agreed with the experiential views that underpin service learning. The “real” truth about service learning is that it’s a propitious teaching method that strengthens preservice teachers’ understanding of theory and practice (Darling-Hammond, Grossman, Hammerness, Rust, & Shulman, 2005).
1. **How did the project help you and students?**

The project allowed me to have the guide and support that was needed at that time. I also was able to see the growth in the students that were a part of the project. But most importantly, I was able to make sure that my students were getting the interventions they needed to be successful.

2. **Through this project, what did you learn about:**

   - **Yourself**- I learned that it’s important to have positive people helping you. I also learned that it’s not easy teaching, but that it’s important to let people know what you know and allow them to teach you what they know.

   - **Working with preservice teachers**- I saw future teachers who wanted to learn and had the skills needed to be great teachers.

3. **What contribution did the preservice teachers make?**

When in the classroom, they were able to build relationships that changed students’ behaviors and future college goals.

4. **What did you observe regarding preservice teachers’ decision-making and problem-solving skills when they interacted with you and your students?**

The first time, I saw uncertainty and nervousness. But once I told them to treat the classroom as if it was theirs, I began to see the preservice teachers step up and not only handle situations but I also saw them re-teach when students did not understand. This was great because the strategies were ones that I didn’t know and were beneficial to my students.

5. **Would you participate in future service-learning projects? Why or why not?**

Yes, I feel that it’s great for all involved. As the teacher, I’m able to have fresh and new ideas within the classroom. The students are getting more help and being exposed to others who can contribute new and possibly different experiences. And for the preservice teachers, it allows them the chance to try some of the things they have been taught as well as gives them first-hand experience in the teaching field.

6. **What ideas do you have for improving any part of the project?**

I think it would be good if the preservice teachers were allowed to teach at least one lesson or at least help the teachers prepare a lesson. And the reason for this is just to allow them to truly feel the teacher experience.

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Figure 2. Service-learning community evaluation/spring 2015.
References


A Call for Future-Minded Educators: A Review of *The Second Machine Age: Work, Progress, and Prosperity in a Time of Brilliant Technologies*

By Lori McLaughlin


The author reviews a book that explores the expansion of technology and its implications in the world of education.

Introduction

History reveals that the steam engine conquered the constraints of muscle power and started the Industrial Revolution. The authors of this informational book, *The Second Machine Age: Work, Progress, and Prosperity in a Time of Brilliant Technologies*, skillfully remind readers of the dramatic role of this first machine age to promote insight into what they call “the second machine age.” Technology, through computers and digitization, has harnessed mental power.

Brynjolfsson and McAfee, MIT professors, deliver an easy-to-read description of the history of technology, its impact on the world, and future implications. Modern technologies have accomplished what had been called impossible. Computers have now mastered complex skills such as driving cars. The exponential growth patterns and the possibilities of recombinant
innovation will continue to produce unimaginable advances, many of which will upstage professional and blue-collar workers. Most people have recognized that technology has changed everyday life, but these two experts bring to light the details of recent developments and explain the possible societal and economic impact. They give a heads up on what the future could hold and advice on how to reap the benefits but avoid the problems. Included is a call for educators to embrace this future vision and to prepare students for the challenges offered by a world of unprecedented change and advancement. Educators must implement practices that foster the marketable skills that will be needed to survive.

**The Future**

Brynjolfsson and McAfee present projections for the future that are somewhat frightening. Technology is swiftly advancing and has taken over many jobs previously held by humans. Presently, the economy has already weakened as both the workforce and wages are declining. Technological unemployment is a threat.

However, there is hope. The authors assure readers that humans still have an important, irreplaceable role in the workforce. Technologies work best with people alongside them. Computers cannot create new ideas; humans monopolize innovation and creativity. The authors provide several short-term and long-term ideas as to how to prepare for future needs in the workforce. One of those is to revamp education.

**Education Reform**

The authors not only assign vital importance to the role of education in establishing a solid future, but Brynjolfsson and McAfee also give specific advice on how to “teach children well” (p. 208). With the prediction of an altered economy and shifts in the projected job force, educators must fulfill their role in preparing students adequately for future jobs. The authors name key qualities that future citizens should possess to claim relevancy in the technology-rich world. They argue that instead of concentrating on the traditional reading, writing, and arithmetic, teachers should “work to improve the skills of ideation, large-frame pattern recognition, and complex communication” (p. 197). The skills needed in the future will hinge on creativity and innovation.

The authors advocate more of a Montessori approach to education that encourages self-guided learning and thinking. They report that, out of a group of 500 innovators, “a disproportionate number of them also went to Montessori schools” (p. 196). These statistics are a testimonial for the practice of encouraging creativity and independence as effective pedagogy. Montessori methodology would be more likely to produce innovative thinkers for the future.

It is not surprising that Brynjolfsson and McAfee advocate that technology inundate the educational system. Sadly, the authors report that those in education have been slow to implement technology as compared to those in other sectors. They suggest that digital information can provide new ways to teach and learn. An outcry over the inequality in

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**Lori McLaughlin** is a school librarian. She is a member of Lambda Chapter in Alpha State Organization (TX).
public schools already exists, as even within one city, there can be both high-performing and low-performing institutions. Bringing technology to all students would be an equalizer. For example, massive online open courses (MOOCs)—online courses with open access and unlimited participation—offer quality lessons, demonstrations, and experiments that can be replicated digitally. Not only is the ease of accessibility for such courses significant, but their low cost is economically appealing. MOOCs also allow a more flexible teaching frame that can “adopt a culture of continuous improvement” (p. 211). This reflective change is a giant step away from traditional teaching methods that have antiqued inside schools.

Conclusions

_The Second Machine Age_ will stimulate readers’ thinking, and the educational implications of “the second machine age” are substantial. The authors provide a detailed description of technology’s growth and forthcoming effects and make the point that preparing students for the future requires changing the current norms of education. Innovation and creativity are valuable assets that people must possess to survive the economic changes described in this book, and educators are key to understanding and developing those assets.
Submissions from members will be accepted for review provided that:

- The submission is not being considered concurrently in whole or substantial part by another publisher.
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- The author assumes responsibility for publication clearance in the event the submission was presented at a professional meeting or is the direct product of a project financed by a funding agency.
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- Co-authors are permitted. At least one author must be a Delta Kappa Gamma member.

**Manuscript Preparation**

- 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.
- Double space the entire manuscript, including quotations, references, and tables. Print should be clear, dark, and legible. Pages must be numbered.
- 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.

**Submission**

- One submission per author per issue.
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- Electronic/digital photo files must be saved in JPG or TIFF format and must be a minimum of 1.5” x 1.5” with a 300 dpi resolution. For photos submitted to enhance text, include caption/identification information.
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# Bulletin Submission Grid

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<td><strong>Journal</strong></td>
<td>Action/Classroom Research: Organized, systematic, and reflective analysis of classroom practice with implications for future practice in teaching and learning.</td>
<td>1,500-4,000</td>
<td>Abstract; documentation; bio; photo</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Qualitative/Quantitative/Mixed Methods Research: Essentially narrative with nonstatistical approaches and a focus on how individuals and groups view and understand the world and construct meanings from their experiences (Qual)/Gathers and analyzes measurable data to support or refute a hypothesis or theory through numbers and statistics (Quan)/Utilizes both qualitative and quantitative data to explore a research question (Mixed).</td>
<td>1,500-4,000</td>
<td>Abstract; documentation; bio; photo</td>
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<td>Position Paper/Viewpoint: Defines an issue; asserts clear and unequivocal position on that issue, provides data and references that inform that position, and argues directly in its favor.</td>
<td>1,000-1,500</td>
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<td>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.</td>
<td>1,500-3,000</td>
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<td>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.</td>
<td>1,500-2,000</td>
<td>Abstract; documentation; bio; photo</td>
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<td>Book/Technology Review: Combines summary and personal critique of a book, Web site, or app on an educational topic or with educational relevance.</td>
<td>400-700</td>
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<td>DKG Chapter/State Organization Practice/Program: Describes a practice or initiative used by a chapter or state organization to advance the purposes of DKG</td>
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<td>Viewpoint on Current Issue: Defines and addresses an issue related to education, women, children, or DKG</td>
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<td>Bio and/or Interview: Shares the story or thoughts of a key woman educator or leader in education, women’s issues, or children’s issues</td>
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<td>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</td>
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<td>Technology Review: Combines a summary and personal critique of an educational application, program, or piece of hardware that is useful in the classroom or that is useful in the life of an educator</td>
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