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NATIONAL SOCIAL SCIENCE JOURNAL

Volume 55 #1

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Increasing Aging Competency: Using Self-Awareness of Aging Approach with Students

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Abstract

Expanded job opportunities in the fields of health care and social services due to aging societies have been predicted in the U.S. and globally. An innovative approach to increase aging competency in a gerontology class is documented in this paper. Results provided insights on how this approach inspired college students to become more aware of their own future aging process over time, and their ability to apply this self-awareness to other-awareness, vis-a-vis developing more positive and empathetic attitudes toward older adults. The implications of this study on aging curriculum improvement will be discussed.

Introduction

Expanded opportunities in the fields of health care and social services due to aging societies have been predicted, and are evident in the U.S. and globally. A need to promote geriatric workforce competency in the fields of nursing, medicine, and social work has been reported (Lun, 2012; Mezey, et al, 2010; Rogers et al, 2013). Aging competency is specified as an individual's ability to apply knowledge, understanding, skills, attitudes, and values in working with older adults to provide safe, effective, equitable, and person-centered care (Goldberg, et al, 2012).

Self-awareness is a part of professionalism training in social work and human services education and its purpose is to enable students to moderate their inner thoughts to better serve clients and advocate on their behalf. Developing greater self-awareness of aging, including values and perception on aging and aging related issues, can avoid ageism or other biases and prejudices toward older adults. From this, students will be able to apply knowledge and skills in helping older adults, especially students who might have significant pre-dispositional attitudes affected by past key life experiences. Infusing self-awareness of aging in the course will better prepare future professionals to "put themselves into another's shoes" and further develop empathic understanding on older adults.

Description of Self-Awareness of Aging Approach in Class

Introduction to Gerontology provides students with a basic understanding of the interrelationship between the physical, intellectual, social and psychological aspects of the aging process in contemporary society. Problems particular to aging are explored as well as specialized aging policies and programs to address needs related to aging. This course is an elective for students majoring in human services, nursing, non-declared health majors, psychology or related disciplines offered in a community college.

The instructor laid the foundation for connecting the aging process with students' beliefs by asking them to reflect on their thoughts in write-ups and discussion during classes throughout the semester. Students' were queried about their own healthy vs. unhealthy aging lifestyle behaviors, their adjustment in an unfamiliar country, activities students want to do during their retirement, their definition of successful and productive aging, evaluation of their own social supports, their perception of death and dying, their economic concerns at retirement, the appropriateness of their current living environment as they age, and their preparation for disability and increased dependence. The instructor then asked students to share their reflections in class or in small group settings.

Method

This study has obtained IRB approval from its affiliated educational institute. This study was part of the larger study on students' experience in gerontology education with purposive and convenience sampling approach on how the self-awareness teaching approach had an impact on students' perceived

aging competency. At the end of the semester on the last day of class, students were asked to answer six open-ended questions to reflect on their experience with the class including their perception of the self-awareness approach and their perceived knowledge and skills competency.

Sample

Sixteen students participated in providing feedback, one of whom did not provide any demographic information: ten students between 19-24 years of age, two students in their 50s, two students in their 40s and one 30 years of age. Thirteen students were female and two were male. Six students indicated they were African American/Black, three Hispanic, two Mexican, one Asian, and one Irish/Polish American.

Data analysis

Data were analyzed based on the coding procedure suggested by Auerbach and Silverstein (2003). Data were examined for patterns and connections in relation to the overall research question “How does the self-awareness approach of aging impact students’ perceived aging competency?” After all data were initially screened, the relevant data were identified and selected for further analysis. Second, repeating ideas were carefully examined by grouping together related passages of relevant data. Third, themes were organized by grouping repeating ideas into coherent categories. Fourth, abstract concepts were organized into themes and then developed into theoretical constructs. Last, theoretical constructs were organized into a theoretical narrative. The analysis was consistent with a qualitative research paradigm, which took into account subjectivity, interpretation, and context.

Results

Impact of Self-Awareness Approach

Table 1 shows students’ reflections as they answer the question on how helpful the self-awareness approach was on their learning about aging.

SEE TABLE 1

All students who responded to the question stated that they were positively influenced by this approach and 4 themes were identified from their responses. Students found the approach helped them experience attitude change. Students claimed that the approach motivated them to rethink one’s life, that they had changed their pre-disposed perception on older adults and had developed more positive attitudes toward older adults. The approach also helped students engage their thinking and planning for the future, as they realized that not only do they need to consider their own futures but that all people are aging and their needs will increase, impacting individuals, families and societies. They started thinking of medical care, healthy life style, and nutrition as well as support systems. Students also developed a more empathic understanding on the older population. Students acknowledged that life is a process and people will grow old as part of a natural process. They also found that they better were able to “put themselves into some’s else shoes” as they addressed needs and feelings. Through this approach, students found that their knowledge of aging had been increased.

Increased Aging Competency

Table 2 indicates students’ perception on aging competency. Students affirmed that the class was able to expand their understanding and correct misconceptions on growing older. Students stated their knowledge, skills, and attitudes had increased.

SEE TABLE 2

Limitations of the study

The sample size is small and therefore the generalization cannot be concluded. This is a qualitative study that asked students to self-reflect on their learning experiences based on how much they could recall. We are unable to compare the competency level in an evidence-based research design. To examine the effectiveness of the approach, it is recommended to have a pre-test and post-test design.

Discussion

Despite the limitations, this study adds to the knowledge of the role of self-awareness for learning about aging among college students, especially those of younger age who might not be able to connect themselves to older adults due to the age gap. However, in addressing the development of empathic understanding on aging, the approach of self-awareness did connect students to aging—they needed to think of their own aging process and issues that will affect them in order to develop more sensitivity to

the needs of the older adult population in general. This point was reflected from their direct responses to the open-ended question on the self-awareness approach, that students found themselves more motivated to obtain knowledge of aging and aging issues. This instructional strategy for connecting students with their aging process is essential to training future professionals working with older adults, as students tend to find topics more interesting and inspiring when it is related directly to their own family members or their own concerns. This suggestion is consistent with previous studies on cultivating competency at a personal level (Rogers et al, 2013). This approach motivated students' to gain a better understanding of the aging process and the needs of older adults, and it can be applied in any other major, but especially nursing, health care, or business fields in which they will find themselves working with an older adult population.

One important insight from this study was that students attributed the self-awareness approach with their developing a more positive attitude toward older adults. Attitude toward older adults is reported to have a strong impact on student interest in different fields working with older adults (Fitzgerald, et al, 2003; Martin, 2012). This study echoed a previous study in which ageism and aging anxiety declined, whereas knowledge of aging and interest in working with older adults increased (Boswell, 2012). The self-awareness of aging approach helped students develop positive attitudes toward aging and older adults and structure their empathic understanding thereby encouraging students to further their exploration of the aging process and the needs of older adults. Educators should consider infusing this approach into a variety of courses in order to cultivate positive attitudes toward aging among students in higher education.

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Table 1. Students' Response to self-awareness approach

Students' quotation	Categories	Theme
<p>“I never thought about it [aging]. Having self-awareness just makes you think about your life and the life of others. Although people do not want to imagine being old, I felt it was good to look at it all from a different perspective. Being in this class...has changed how I felt about older adults and now I have a ton of respect.”</p> <p>“My attitude has changed for a positive approach and a lot of my misconceptions have been reversed”</p> <p>“my attitude toward older adults is very positive...like helping them cross the road or giving them a seat on the train or bus...and giving them a helping hand whenever possible”</p>	<p>Attitude change</p>	<p>Developed a positive attitude toward older adults</p>
<p>“I think any opportunity to engage a topic on a personal level will yield insights uniquely appropriate to you”</p> <p>“...this approach was helpful, it enlightened me that I will get older and need the help from social services, benefits, a place to live with meals and also medical attention. Yes, this process of self-awareness interests me because I am one of the baby boomers that will want the benefits so therefore I do understand the older population”</p> <p>“I find this helpful because it really makes you think about your future and how many things you will have to go through as an older adult”</p> <p>“I think it was helpful because I can start thinking and preparing for my own retirement while I still have the chance. It also gets me thinking about my support systems and any hobbies I'll have as I age. I think this class had me thinking about my ideal retirement plan. I have a long way to go but it's something to think about”</p>	<p>Future planning</p>	<p>Engaging thinking and planning for future needs and retirement life</p>
<p>“...put myself into someone's' else shoes and treat them differently (more kind and understanding) based off that”</p> <p>“Self-awareness allowed you to think about your own self and people in your surroundings. Self-awareness was like a light bulb went off and I began to understand the older population”</p> <p>“Life is a process and with every day we grow older. I am 47 years old and I have 2 chronic illnesses. It is hard trying to cope with being sick all the time and taking medication. I'm not an older adult but I do understand somewhat the turmoil that they feel at times. Sometimes we just need someone there that can understand”</p>	<p>Empathic understanding</p>	<p>Developing a more empathic understanding on older population and their needs</p>

<p>“...yes, I do find it helpful because I have a better understanding of the aging process” “gives one an image of old age”</p>	<p>knowledge of aging</p>	<p>Increased understanding on aging</p>
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Table 2. Students’ perceived aging competency

Student’s quotation	Aging competency
<p>“there is so much information that I never knew about the elderly. Before I just thought they got older and more health problems came.” “this class has really enhanced my knowledge on how much adversity older adults go through” “Now I have learned that as you age, you have a lot of changes which are physical, mental, and maybe emotional.” “I feel like I’ve learned a lot about this class that I can actually get a better understanding of gerontology and the different social issues that older adults face.” “My competency has increased from where it was...was little to no knowledge...now I am willing to learn more knowledge.”</p>	<p>Knowledge of aging</p>
<p>“My awareness has greatly improved. My grandmother is in a nursing home and every class I take reminds me that there’s more to it. For example, I could be a part of her successful aging by taking her to the mall or asking her if there’s anything she’d like to do.” “It has deepened my resolve to be participatory when discussing and advocating on topics concerning aging”</p>	<p>Skills with older adults</p>
<p>“I’ve also learned how you need to be much more patient with an older person.” “I knew that they need assistance but I didn’t think about the mental issue and how they felt.” “I perceive my competency level on gerontology including self-awareness, knowledge and skills to a whole new perspective...just being more careful and aware.” “I think I’m more considerate that they go through changes and it is different for them. I think I’m more aware that they’re more sensitive and need a strong support system”</p>	<p>Attitudes towards older adults</p>

Using Writing Groups to Facilitate Research Mentorship of Students

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Abstract

Numerous research studies have identified that undergraduate research (UR) opportunities produce positive student results and experiences. Because of these findings, there has been an increase in interest by college educators to offer UR student opportunities, often in the scientific disciplines. Students experiencing UR opportunities have been shown to have a greater likelihood to pursue careers in STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) and advanced graduate degrees. The current project is the development and description of a writing group model. A writing group model can be identified as a small, interdisciplinary group who collaborates together to produce scholarly, publication-quality literature reviews and empirical reports. The writing group typically consists of having a minimum of one faculty mentor and two student participants. The writing group establishes success due to the strict observance of deadline dates and definitive principles for research. This article will detail how a writing group can be utilized by professional academics and researchers to yield valuable research publications for scholarly outcomes.

Introduction

There is growing interest in undergraduate research (UR) opportunities among educators, particularly in scientific disciplines (Thiry & Laursen, 2011). Undergraduate research experiences (UREs) have been well documented to produce positive student outcomes (Adedokun, Bessenbacher, Parker, Kirkham, & Burgess, 2013). Undergraduate students who participate in hands-on research are regularly encouraged by the experience leading them to pursue advanced degrees and careers in STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) fields (Russell, Hancock, & McCullough, 2007; Fitzsimmons, Carlson, Kerpelman, & Stoner, 1990; Zydney, Bennett, Shahid, & Bauer, 2002). Undergraduate research experiences have been shown to increase student persistence when pursuing their undergraduate degree (Nagda, Gregerman, Jonides, von Hippel, & Lerner, 1998). UR experiences have also been identified as influential in encouraging students to pursue graduate degrees (Hathaway, Nagda, & Gregerman, 2002; Kremer & Bringle, 1990). Moreover, undergraduate research participant alumni reported higher gains when assessed in comparison groups for skills, including conducting research, obtaining data, and communicating effectively (Bauer & Bennett, 2003). Nagda et al. (1998) determined that undergraduate research projects have assisted in increasing retention rates of minority undergraduates and members of underrepresented groups by promoting career path options. Additionally, undergraduate research opportunities have aided in increasing graduate education for underrepresented minority students (Hathaway et al., 2002).

The current interest in undergraduate research is being influenced by the concerns regarding the replacement of the current scientific workforce, as well as the traditional role of the research apprenticeship for scientific preparation (Thiry & Laursen, 2011). Every year, there are thousands of STEM students who participate in UR experiences (Russell et al., 2005). Recently, research has

commenced to identify the range of personal, professional, and intellectual benefits for STEM students who participate in UR opportunities (Thiry & Laursen, 2011; Hunter, Laursen, & Seymour, 2007; Russell et al., 2005). Unfortunately, there is little understanding about how the process of student-advisor interactions contribute to the UR benefits (Thiry & Laursen, 2011).

Unfortunately, while many studies have documented positive student outcomes, many of the studies on UREs have ignored other factors that contribute to those positive results, including concepts including the processes by which outcomes are achieved and various contextual and participant factors that influence UREs (Adedokun et al., 2013). When examining mediating factors in their study, Adedokun et al. (2013) examined how participant research self-efficacy was impactful on the relationship between research skills and a desire to continue in the scientific field. Their results identified that participant research skill and research self-efficacy were predictive of student goals and ambitions in research careers. Further, the research indicated that the effects of research skills are partially mediated by self-efficacy beliefs (Adedokun et al., 2013).

Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Self-efficacy has become a significant construct in psychological research and literature since its inception by Albert Bandura in 1977 (Maddux & Stanley, 1986). The theory of self-efficacy was originated by Albert Bandura in 1977. Bandura defines self-efficacy to be “the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce outcomes” (1977, p. 193). Self-efficacy was further defined as the individual beliefs that a person has regarding their capabilities for performing in events that influence their lives (Bandura, 1994). Self-efficacy theory is further explained as “people’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). Bandura stresses that personal self-efficacy beliefs will establish individual personal feelings, thoughts, motivations, and behaviors (Bandura, 1994). Beliefs about personal self-efficacy supply the basis for individual motives, achievement, and personal happiness, safety, interests, and comfort (Bandura, 1986).

Bandura (1994) theorizes that having healthy and positive self-efficacy beliefs can enhance individual achievement and welfare in a variety of instances. The theory of self-efficacy posits that behavior and emotional change will occur as a result of the altering of a person’s own beliefs regarding their proficiency or efficacy (Bandura, 1977a, 1982, 1986). Pajares (2002) states that behaviors that are exhibited by an individual are often the result of their beliefs about their personal capabilities as opposed to their actual aptitudes and competences. This is because the individual personal perceptions of self-efficacy often influence how a person utilizes the information, facts, and abilities that they possess. Understanding the significance of self-efficacy beliefs aids in understanding how some people’s actual performance or behaviors are vastly different from their actual capabilities or skills. Prediction of individual achievement for success is improved by examining the personal self-efficacy beliefs of the person as opposed to their past accomplishments, success, education or knowledge, aptitudes, or skillfulness (Pajares, 2002).

Research Self-Efficacy

The concept of research self-efficacy is the extent that students feel confident about carrying out different research tasks (Holden, Barker, Meenaghan, & Rosenberg, 1999). These research tasks can range from learning how to conduct library research to designing and conducting student research projects (Holden et al., 1999). Research self-efficacy beliefs are the judgments that a student makes “about one’s own ability to perform specific research tasks (Bieschke, 2006, p. 80). According to Bieschke, Bishop, and Garcia (1996), research self-efficacy beliefs are influential on the magnitude of how much individuals, including students, will select a career in a research-oriented field. Further, the extent to which individuals will participate in research activities is directly impacted by individual beliefs about personal research self-efficacy capabilities (Bieschke et al., 1996).

Bieschke (2006) reports that several variables have been identified as influential for graduate students’ individual research self-efficacy. One vigorous predictor of research self-efficacy beliefs for graduate students is their perception of the academic research training environment (Bieschke, Bishop, & Herbert, 1995; Bishop & Bieschke, 1998; Hollingsworth & Fassinger, 2002; Kahn, 2001). Several

researchers have identified that research self-efficacy beliefs can be predicted by the student's year in graduate school (Bieschke et al., 1996; Bishop & Bieschke, 1998; Kahn & Scott, 1997), but according to Kahn (2001), this is not an absolute.

Studies have not typically found gender to be influential on student levels of research self-efficacy; overall, results concerning gender have been identified as inconsistent (Bieschke et al., 1996; Bishop & Bieschke, 1998; Gelso, Mallinckrodt, & Judge, 1996). However, researchers Kahn and Scott (1997) did identify in one specific study that females have lower research self-efficacy beliefs than do their male counterparts. Finally, Bieschke et al. (1996) determined that the amount of research experience for graduate students is significantly related to levels of research self-efficacy beliefs. In similar findings, researchers Schlosser and Gelso (2001) identified that the length of time for advisee-advisor relationships correlates significantly with the research self-efficacy beliefs of the advisee.

Writing Group Model

The concept of a writing group can be identified as a small, interdisciplinary group who collaborates together to produce scholarly, publication-quality literature reviews and empirical reports. The writing group follows structured guidelines for producing the scientific publications. The core of the writing group begins with having, at a minimum, one faculty mentor and two student participants. The group can vary in the number of student participants working on collaborative projects as the level of training of the writers' demands.

The writing group is successful due to the adherence of strict guidelines and deadlines. The procedure for productivity occurs through a combination of having strategic in-person meetings along with regular electronic meetings and communication. Workshops, including planning sessions and brainstorming, assist with creating of the timeline for goals and target dates. This article will detail how the writing group can be utilized by professional academics and scholars to produce quality research publications for scholarly results.

Participants

The first step of the creation of the writing group is to identify and define who will be **participants** within the interdisciplinary group. Participant members can be from diverse academic disciplines and have various educational training backgrounds. The *faculty mentors* recruited must have experience with publication of scholarly research documents. The *faculty moderator* in a writing group is a recruited member who has a history of scholarly publications and who will oversee organization and planning of the writing projects. The *faculty moderator* also acts as a mentor for the student group members. *Student group participants* consist of recruited members of undergraduate or graduate status. The *student group participants* must have basic writing skills and have need of further training and experience for their future career development.

Procedures

Student Recruitment. The next step in developing a writing group is the establishment of **procedures** for the participants. This begins with **student recruitment** as a means to recruit members for the group unit. Students are recruited by either the mentor or the moderator. Enlistment occurs through the following sources, in order of preference for participation:

- Students who have expressed interest in furthering their research careers or volunteering as research assistants are preferably recruited. This is due to the express interest identified for research projects and scholarly interests.
- Students who have been identified by either the mentor or moderator as being promising writers are recruited to join the writing group. This recruitment occurs as a result of seeing burgeoning skill and talent in writing academic literature reviews.
- Students who have been recommended by other instructors or unit heads are recruited for enrollment into the writing group.
- Finally, volunteers who respond to announcements or signage asking for participants are also recruited to join the writing group.

Participant Screening. Following the identification of potential new group member participants, the moderator will contact the students to verify interest in joining the writing group. At this point, the moderator will describe the process of the writing group for creating scholarly work to the potential student recruits. The description of the process will include the goals of the group. Following the description, the moderator will collect a brief electronic writing sample from each interested student participant. The writing sample provided by each interested student can be a previously written essay, article, or excerpt of the student's own personal work. The student is free to choose the topic of their writing sample submission.

After collecting samples from potential student recruits, the moderator will initially screen the samples. Those submitted samples that are deemed acceptable for writing standards will then be distributed to other group members for peer review. Each potential group members will review at least one writing sample for grammar, sentence structure, and readability. After peer reviews are completed, the student recruit will receive a copy of the critiqued peer review. At that time, the student recruit will respond to the critique by improving the sample based on comments made by the peer reviewers. Mentors will make selections based on the quality of the original submitted writing sample, the student's aptitude for peer review, and the ability to respond to a constructive critique of their work.

Preparation. To prepare for the empirical research and reviews, the mentors will first select broad topics that correspond to their areas of expertise. Due to complexity of certain research subjects, some research may require more mentors for the research investigations. At that point, a basic outline will be created of the manuscript. The mentor will then assign group participants to parts of the outline of the manuscript. The mentor will also locate the initial readings for the topic being investigated for research. The mentor will distribute certain readings about plagiarism, proper citation of resources, and information about the various types of research articles available. At this point, the participants will also receive guidelines for contribution and inclusion for future authorship of publication.

Initial Meeting. After the group participants have had an opportunity to review the distributed articles on plagiarism and other topics related to successful and ethical writing, an initial meeting will be established. The initial meeting will be conducted to introduce the concept and format of the writing group to all of the group participants. This initial meeting also provides an opportunity for the members of the writing group to be introduced to one another. At this point, the mentor will assign topics of research to each member. The mentor will typically also assign additional readings to the participants about the subject topic. Further, the roles of each member of the writing group will be assigned at this juncture by the mentor.

During the initial meeting, the mentors will instruct the student participant recruits on how to best search for literature related to the research topic. Further assignments will include reading the provided articles and searching the literature for other relevant articles related to the subject being researched. At the cessation of the initial meeting, the first writing workshop will be scheduled.

Writing Workshop. The writing workshop meetings will follow an intense and rigorous format and schedule. To begin, all members of the writing group have a laptop computer present for working while at the workshop. The group members will work in close proximity to one another during the writing workshop. It is recommended that the workshop take place in a quiet location with few distractions, such as a room in the university library. The workshop will need to be several hours long to a full day if possible in order to produce results.

The process begins with establishing an outline of the paper and by each member selecting outline points to address. These outline points become written paragraphs, preferable with citations. These paragraphs are of the subject matter being investigated. These written paragraphs are then passed along to other group participants for review. After review and correction, these paragraphs are copied into one master document. At that time, the group members will continue to critique one another's work for grammar, punctuation, and sentence structure. Next, the group members will resume peer review to assess for proper citation of other author's publications and work. Review for proper usage of citations will also be completed via peer review. The group works to continue to build the document of scholarly research on the research topic. This process will take time and intense discussion, particularly to provide support

for those with less research experience. At the end of the workshop, enough of the manuscript is now written to allow for future review and additions to the paper to be planned. Members should leave the workshop with a new set of assignments and guidelines.

Electronic or Brief Meetings. Following the writing workshop, subsequent brief meetings or electronic meetings will be held to continue to work on the research document. These meetings are an attempt to continue pressing forward on creation of the research manuscript. These brief or electronic meetings allow for the identification of weaknesses in the research. These meetings also allow for new reading assignments and literature review assignments to be distributed to group members.

If needed, consequent writing meetings can be scheduled. These successive writing meetings may be particularly relevant in preparing an IRB (Institutional Review Board) application. Often, delving into a research project will identify an area in the research that requires additional research. The IRB application manuscript can be created at a writing meeting. This allows for a timely submission of the IRB application for review.

Conduct Research Projects. Following IRB approval for research, the writing group members can begin conducting data collection for the research project. Typically, in a university setting, the group members can utilize a sample of convenience and enlist university undergraduate students as volunteer participants in the research investigation.

Continue Writing. After research data has been collected, the writing group members will statistically analyze the data for results. If significant results are identified, the group members will continue their project and will begin the writing of the Results and Discussion sections of the master document. It is important for the mentors to assign and ensure adherence to the established time line. Often, certain professional publications and presentations have strict timelines to follow for submission to their publication or for a specific conference. The mentors are responsible for encouraging the student participants to meet deadlines and follow rigorous standards for the creation of the master document. The mentor may also need to do most of the writing for the results and discussion sections, both of which may intimidate students.

Why are Writing Workshops Successful?

When establishing or creating a writing workshop, the mentors create an environment that offers support and motivation. A writing workshop assists in alleviating avoidance because it encourages taking the first step in creating the research document. Often, the first step, beginning to write on a topic, is the most difficult for writers. The writing workshop assists in encouraging motivation for work on the topic. The mentors and other group members offer support, encouragement, and will identify strengths of their fellow group participants. The process provides an opportunity for those group members who have low self-confidence or poor self-efficacy feelings about their writing or research skills to experience evaluation about their work in a non-judgmental environment. The workshop also allows minimal opportunities for disorganization to sabotage the writing project.

Group members can provide motivation to work on the project when there is peer pressure to meet established deadlines. Seeing a visible project, specifically seeing the progress toward a manuscript created in one day, is encouraging and motivating. Establishment of deadlines and time tables regularly provides structure for improving time management. The collaboration with other group members allows for an environment of perception and open-mindedness. Seeing other viewpoints allows for insights to emerge during the writing process. The workshop allows for an ongoing opportunity to bolstering students' writing and research skills. Students are developing strengths that will assist them in their future careers and education. However, regarding the document, the end product manuscript should still be high quality. If it is not deemed to be distinguished quality, the manuscript should not be submitted for publication.

Potential Complications in the Writing Group

Exploitation and/or Unbalanced Contribution to the Research. The mentor is tasked with creating strict guidelines for what counts as contribution to the development of the manuscript. The mentor is responsible for removing those group participants who are not contributing to the creation of the research manuscript. These parameters explaining contribution are explained in the initial meeting. Group

members must accept the guidelines surrounding the expected level of contribution prior to their participating in the research investigation. It is critical that the guidelines for authorship be understood by each member of the group. Following established publication and authorship credit guidelines such as those of the American Psychological Association (2020) is a sound practice to ensure ethical publishing, as well as to help students understand whether their contributions warrant authorship credit.

Varying Skill of the Mentors. Due to the diversity of the disciplines being represented, there may be instances where the mentors have varying levels of skills for research and writing. The process should always remain voluntary for all participants, including mentors and moderators. Formalizing the model for the writing group will assist in leveling the issues surrounding varying skills and aptitudes of the mentors. It may be valuable to have a faculty member as well as a graduate student mentor-in-training when undergraduate students are included in the group. However, it should be stressed to all group participants that if a group member is lacking a specific skill, they may be reassigned to a different goal task. Further, if the group member is lacking time to participate, they should refrain from taking on new tasks. This is to ensure that the writing is being completed in a timely fashion; being short-on-time will impede the group due to one person not meeting their established deadlines.

Selection of Participants. Writing groups have to remain small. By having a smaller group, there is more accountability for completing assigned tasks. There is no room for slackers in a writing group. As a group increases in size, the ability to “pass the buck” for an assigned task becomes easier. Group members having fewer skills can participate in the writing process by editing or organizing the manuscript. This is also a skill building opportunity for that group member.

Requirements for Participation.

The mentor must establish some rules for participation within the writing group. The members of the writing group must understand that they are required to attend all writing workshop meetings. Additionally, the group participants should be required to attend all possible individual or group meetings. Participation for group members is required for all online assignments and tasks. Additionally, the group members are tasked to prepare in advance for the writing workshops. Advanced preparation will create a smoother transition to writing during the workshop.

There is always the potential for dropouts of the research project. If dropouts occur, the mentor must determine how much the dropout group member contributed to the research project. If the mentor determines that the recruit contributed less than half of the time that was established for participation, then no credit is given for their contribution and participation. The dropout participant can still claim their participation on the curriculum vitae as research training. If the group member asks to leave the project and has participated more than half of the established time identified in the initial meeting of the project, the mentor should encourage the person to try and participate in some capacity. The participation may be demonstrated by electronic meetings or editing of the manuscript. The member may then still receive authorship for their contribution and can list their involvement in the writing group project on their curriculum vitae. It is also important for all group members to realize that loss of group members will increase the responsibilities of remaining members.

Writing Group Incentives

Student group participants. Students who participate in writing groups gain valuable experience for their future careers and for graduate school. The student group participants receive special training which can be listed on their curriculum vitae. Listing the participation on a curriculum vitae will require that the mentor and moderator formalize the writing group with an official name. Involvement in the writing group projects often can create opportunities for future research projects for the students. By contributing to the writing group research manuscript, the student may be privy to gaining access to a scientific publication or a presentation at a research conference. Being mentored has been identified as a very desirable endeavor on graduate school applications as well as employment interviews.

Mentors. There are many benefits for mentoring a writing group. Interdepartmental relationships are established, and collaborative research can be initiated. Mentoring is a productive way to push those students who are struggling, which builds skills for that student. One specific benefit of mentoring is that it allows for ownership of the model being utilized by the writing group. Also, mentors are induced to

remain current on the literature within their research discipline. They have an increased publication rate because of the collaboration with other group members. Often, because of the division of the work, there is less stress and fewer research duties for a mentor in a writing group. Finally, mentors gain valuable and increased experience in mentorship. Most colleges and universities value the mentoring of students by their faculty. Through the creation and implementation of a writing group, faculty can mentor students and increase the research skills of their group members. This mentoring relationship is highly desirable when a faculty member is attempting to gain tenure and/or promotion at their institution.

Development of a quality manuscript requires time and determination. A writing group can greatly reduce the individual exertion required for creation of an exceptional research document. This can be invaluable for overburdened faculty members with the high workloads that the current academic climate produces. Working with students may also help faculty member to adhere to a strict timeline, such as completing the majority of the project before the end of the semester or academic year. Collaborative interactions within a writing group allow for discussion and expansion, which typically enhance the quality of the research topic. The production of scholarly reports and quality literature reviews through a team effort are viewed as valuable and pertinent to the research community.

Conclusion

The authors of this manuscript have had successful and fulfilling interactions with undergraduate students, graduate students, and colleagues by using a Writing Group Model. While the project developed in this model may not always lead to publications, students always benefit from the educational experience, even if the main lesson they learn is that they do not want to pursue a research career. It is very satisfying to watch students learn that there is a variety of skill sets needed to conduct research and that each student researcher may excel in a different area. By using a structured approach to the writing process, students may understand the goal of the project in a more concrete manner, and may be motivated to succeed. These “minor” success in the research process hopefully contribute to greater feelings of research self-efficacy and greater likelihood of pursuing research.

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What's In A Name?

What Attributions Do You Make About People With Names Like Jennifer, D'Shaun, Martinez And Chen?

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Abstract

This study looked at attributions made about an individual based solely on his/her name. Participants read an abstract written by a target person and were then asked to answer questions about the target. Although the abstracts were identical, the target's name varied based on gender (male/female) and race/ethnicity (White, Black, Hispanic, Asian). Significant differences were found in judgments of IQ, income, writing ability, and likeability, depending on the target's implied race/ethnicity and gender. Targets with Black and Hispanic names received consistently lower ratings than those with White and Asian names. This research has important implications across a wide variety of sectors, including education in which the growing trend is online.

Background

Implicit stereotyping is a natural part of human cognition and some theorists argue its roots can be traced back to environmental pressures in early human evolution. From a survival perspective, it was necessary for early humans to form coalitions and quickly identify the ingroup and outgroup (e.g., Kurzban & Leary, 2001; Martin Hutchison, Slessor, Urquhart, Cunningham, & Smith, 2014), just as they would have needed to form other basic categories like predator and prey, dangerous and safe, edible and nonedible, and so on. Further, from a purely cognitive perspective, many theorists argue stereotyping is just another form of categorization (Billig, 1985). Wilson (2002) estimates that among the 11 million bits of information that our five senses take in each second, we are only consciously aware of about 40. If we were unable to form mental categories, and to consciously focus on the most important information coming into our senses, we would spend all of our mental effort interpreting every person, place, or thing as something new. It is therefore necessary for us to quickly place people into mental categories so we can focus on the most relevant aspects of every situation. When it comes to stereotypes, this often occurs in spite of our own attempts to consciously block them (Shiffrin & Dumais, 1981). Further, by age two, children have the cognitive capacity to categorize people as members of the ingroup or outgroup (Platten, Hernik, Fonagy, & Fearon, 2010), and ingroup bias appears very young in life (Dunham, Baron, & Banaji, 2016) and has been found in our primate relatives as well (Campbell & de Waal, 2011).

As a society, we place tremendous effort on being unbiased and nondiscriminatory but unfortunately, we are often unaware that we have even stereotyped. When we encounter a new person, the stereotypes of the groups they belong to are automatically activated in our minds. This phenomenon has been extensively studied both behaviorally (Judd, Blair, & Chappelleau, 2004; Shufang, 2004) and neurologically (Wang, Yang, Tan, Zhao, Liu, & Lin, 2016). However, because so much of cognition is unconscious, people may be unaware that implicit stereotypes have been activated and they may inadvertently discriminate without realizing it (e.g., Chen & Bargh, 1997). In addition, research has shown the pervasive effects of stereotype threat and self-fulfilling prophecies. For example, simply telling students that boys do worse in school hinders boys' actual performance (Hartley & Sutton, 2013). Should this be the case, broadly speaking, the implications for employment and education are broad. Do teachers and potential employers stereotype individuals based on the group to which they belong? And if so, what might the potential effects be?

School

Half a century ago, Rosenthal and Jacobson (1966) showed that teachers' expectations about their students strongly relate to their students' future potential, suggesting a self-fulfilling prophecy. Importantly, the information teachers were given about their students was false, and yet it shaped their opinions of those students in profound ways and even predicted the students' actual academic performance. Hundreds of studies since have replicated the original finding, with effect sizes as high as $r=.30$ (Jussim & Harber, 2005; Rosenthal, 1994). Whether stereotyping leads to discrimination in schools is unclear, but students feel its effects nonetheless. Interviews of minority students reveal that they perceive both stereotyping and discrimination from teachers and staff (Hope, Skoog, & Jagers, 2005).

Many empirical studies have looked at the effect of stereotypes on teachers' assessments, and treatment of, both real and hypothetical students. The research is too comprehensive to provide a thorough literature review, but several studies will highlight the pattern of results. Chang and Sue (2003) found that teachers were much more likely to view Asian male children as overcontrolled, suggesting they consider behavior like shyness, clinging to adults, fear of making mistakes, perfection, and worrying as typical traits of Asian male children. In a meta-analysis, Tenenbaum and Ruck (2007) found that raters consistently viewed European American children in a more positive light than African American and Latino/a children. They provided more positive feedback, made more positive referrals, and fewer negative referrals for European American children. Additionally, compared to all other groups, raters also consistently held higher expectations for Asian American children.

The findings extend to stereotypes about gender as well. Robinson-Cimpian, Lubienski, and Ganley (2013) found that after controlling for actual achievement, teachers rate boys' math abilities higher than girls, suggesting they attribute girls' high performance not to skill but effort. Espinoza, da Luz Fontes and Arms-Chavez (2014) found that teachers were more likely to attribute girls' success, but boys' failure, to effort. Further, Keller (2001) found that teachers' stereotypes about gender differences in mathematics significantly explained variance in their students' own stereotypes. In a longitudinal study, Retelsdorf, Schwartz and Asbrock (2015) assessed teachers' gender stereotypes about reading ability and then measured their actual students' reading self-concept (RSC) over 18 months. In general, teachers believed that girls were superior in reading than boys. The stronger this viewpoint, the lower boys' RSC was at Time 2. More broadly speaking, males are perceived to have higher IQ than females (Petrides, Furnham & Martin, 2004).

None of these findings, however, speaks to intent on the part of the teachers to discriminate or negatively shape their students' self-views or achievement. This is precisely the problem. Most teachers would probably be appalled to learn that the activation of stereotypes caused them to behave in ways that worked to the detriment of some of their students. Research has suggested that parents, as well, fall victim to implicit stereotypes and may unknowingly engage in the same types of attributional behavior of their own children (Tiedemann, 2000). How parents view achievement in boys and girls is directly related to their own children's attributions about school performance (Rouland, Rowley, & Kurtz-Costes, 2013), and in fact, parents' implicit stereotypes about gender may subtly affect their perceptions of their own children's abilities (Jacobs & Eccles, 1992).

Work

This pattern of findings translates to the workplace as well. Not only do males actually earn more money than females (e.g., Jagsi, Griffith, Stewart, Sambuco, DeCastro, & Ubel, 2014), but people expect this to be the case (Heckert, Droste, Adams, Griffin, Roberts, Mueller, & Wallis, 2002). In a mock interview study, women were judged less favorably by male interviewers who held strong implicit gender stereotypes (Latu, Mast & Stewart, 2015). In the same study, women who held strong implicit gender stereotypes also performed more poorly in the interview. Proudfoot, Kay, and Koval (2015) found that raters considered a male architect's work to be more creative than a female's, even though the work they evaluated was identical.

In a mock resume study, King, Madera, Hebl, Knight, and Mendoza (2006) report that Asian candidates were viewed most favorably, and Black candidates the least favorably (even though the resumes were identical). Additionally, Hispanic candidates were viewed as most appropriate for low

status jobs, and Asian candidates for high status jobs. In a similar study, Widner and Chicoine (2011) found that males with Arab names were less likely to receive callbacks than males with White names. Bertrand and Mullainathan (2004) found that when applying to actual job postings with mock resumes, White candidates had a nearly 50% higher chance of being called for an interview than Black candidates with the exact same resume.

In combination, the findings in both academics and the workplace speak to pervasive implicit stereotypes that shape the perception of evaluators, and quite possibly, the targets' own self-perceptions. So much of our interaction with others today takes place electronically. When we apply to jobs, we send a resume and cover letter via email. Many people telecommute to work. More and more, education takes place in an online format as well, extending all the way down to the elementary school level. In cases like these, we may find ourselves in a professional relationship with a person whose face we never see, and perhaps whose voice we never hear. Is a person's name, alone, enough to activate stereotypes, if we are able to infer racial/ethnic and gender categories from the name?

Method

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to extend the results of previous research by looking at the types of attributions people make about a target based simply on the target's name. This study varied from previous research in that the evaluation was based on an academic writing sample. Based on previous research, it was predicted that 1) Participants would give higher ratings for IQ, income, and highest level of education for the males compared to the females; 2) Participants would give higher ratings to the writing quality of females; 3) Participants would give higher ratings on all dimensions to White and Asian targets compared to Black and Hispanic targets.

Participants

Two hundred sixty people participated in this study. Mean age of participants was 31 years (range 18-80). Self-reported ethnicity of participants was: 151 White, 88 Black, 3 Asian, and 18 Hispanic. Participants were recruited from among the friends and family members of students taking a Senior Seminar in Psychology.

Procedure

In this study, participants were tasked with reading an abstract of a published research paper on language acquisition (McDonough, Song, Hirsh Pasek, Golinkoff, & Lannon, 2011). After reading the abstract, participants were asked (via a questionnaire) to answer eight questions regarding the author of the abstract: their best guess of 1) the author's IQ, 2) the author's highest level of education, 3) the author's annual salary, 4) the writing quality of the abstract, 5) the author's likeability, 6) whether they perceived the author to be of Hispanic origin, 7) the author's ethnicity, and 8) whether they believed the author spoke multiple languages. Questions 6 and 8 were foils.

This study was a 2 (gender) X4 (ethnicity) factorial design, for a total of 8 different treatment conditions. Although the abstract and survey questions were identical across all conditions, the name provided as the author of the abstract varied. The names were selected as stereotypical male and female names of White, Black, Hispanic and Asian origin (selected from websites containing the most popular baby names and surnames). The specific names were: Jennifer Smith (White female), John Smith (White male), Jazleen Brown (Black female), D'Shaun Brown (Black male), Maria Martinez (Hispanic female), Jose Martinez (Hispanic male), Sally Chen (Asian female), and Sean Chen (Asian male),

Students in Senior Seminar collectively participated in data collection for this research project. Each student (13 total) was assigned one of the four ethnicities and was tasked with administering the study to 20 participants (10 each for the Male and Female versions of the survey). Participants received no inducements for participation. Consent was obtained via a disclaimer on the top of the survey. The survey was anonymous and took approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Results

Data collection resulted in the following number of participants completing each version of the survey: White female (30), White male (30), Black female (40), Black male (40), Hispanic female (32), Hispanic male (28), Asian female (30), Asian male (30).

A 2 (gender) X 4 (ethnicity) factorial ANOVA was conducted with author IQ as the DV. The main effect for ethnicity was highly significant ($F(3,252) = 8.29, p < .001, \eta^2 = .09$, Mean IQ: White 114.58, Black 113.51, Hispanic 101.37, Asian 114.85). Planned post-hoc Tukey tests revealed that when compared to each of the other ethnicities, Hispanics were assigned the lowest IQ (all p s $< .001$). The main effect for gender was not significant. While the interaction was significant, the effect is not clinically meaningful. See Figure A.

[Insert Figure A about here]

A second 2 (gender) X 4 (ethnicity) factorial ANOVA was conducted with author income as the DV. The main effect for ethnicity was significant ($F(3,252) = 4.45, p = .005, \eta^2 = .05$, Mean Income: White \$63,000, Black \$63,721, Hispanic \$37,433, Asian \$61,833). Planned post-hoc Tukey tests revealed that when compared to each of the other ethnicities, Hispanics were assigned the lowest income (Hispanic vs. White $p = .017$, Hispanic vs. Asian $p = .025$, Hispanic vs. Black $p = .007$). The main effect for gender was not significant, nor was the interaction. See Figure B.

[Insert Figure B about here]

A third 2 (gender) X 4 (ethnicity) factorial ANOVA was conducted with writing quality as the DV. The main effect for ethnicity was highly significant ($F(3,252) = 6.16, p < .001, \eta^2 = .07$, Mean Writing Quality: White 7.98, Black 6.67, Hispanic 7.20, Asian 7.53). Planned post-hoc Tukey tests revealed several significant differences: Black vs. White, $p < .001$, Black vs. Asian, $p = .035$). The main effect for gender was also significant ($F(1,252) = 3.87, p = .050, \eta^2 = .015$, Mean Writing Quality: Male 7.11, Female 7.58). Finally, the interaction was also significant ($F(3,252) = 3.62, p = .014, \eta^2 = .04$). As can be shown in Figure C, the source of the interaction was with those of Black ethnicity. Compared to other ethnicities where there were no differences between males and females, Black males were rated as having a significantly lower writing quality than Black Females, and in fact, lower writing quality than all of the other groups combined.

[Insert Figure C about here]

Finally, a fourth 2 (gender) X 4 (ethnicity) factorial ANOVA was conducted with author likeability as the DV. The main effect for ethnicity was highly significant ($F(3,251) = 9.8, p < .001, \eta^2 = .11$, Mean Likeability: White 7.05, Black 5.97, Hispanic 7.67, Asian 6.52). Planned post-hoc Tukey tests revealed several significant differences: Black vs. White, $p = .007$, Black vs. Hispanic, $p < .001$, and Asian vs. Hispanic, $p = .007$. The main effect for gender was not significant, nor was the interaction.

A 2 (gender) X 4 (ethnicity) chi-square test of independence was used to determine whether there were differences in predicted level of education. No significant differences emerged ($p > .05$).

To determine whether same ethnicity and same sex bias may have contributed to participant ratings, oneway ANOVAs were conducted with Ethnicity (Match/Non Match between Author/Participant) as the IV and the 4 DVs (Author IQ, income, writing quality, and likeability). For author IQ and author income, the ANOVA was not significant. For author writing quality, the ANOVA was nearly significant ($F(1,258) = 3.74, p = .054, \eta^2 = .014$, Match Mean 8.18, Nonmatch Mean 7.23). Finally, for author likeability, the ANOVA was significant ($F(1,258) = 9.7, p = .002, \eta^2 = .03$, Match Mean 8.18, Nonmatch Mean 6.60). Identical analyses were conducted with Gender (Match/Non Match between Author/Participant) as the IV and the 4 DVs. None of the analyses with gender were significant.

Discussion

In this study, we demonstrate the pervasive impact of implicit stereotypes on people's evaluation of target individuals. Participants made different attributions of a target's IQ, income, likeability, and writing quality based simply on whether the person's name represented stereotypical ethnic or gender categories. Our predictions were partially supported. As predicted, Hispanic and Black targets were rated lower than White and Asian targets, and Females received higher ratings on writing quality than Males, although this gender difference is likely an artifact of the strikingly low ratings participants gave to the writing quality of Black Males.

Hispanics were rated almost one whole standard deviation lower for predicted IQ than Whites, Blacks, and Asians, and with a predicted income of nearly half that of the other three groups. This finding appears

to support King et al.'s (2006) research demonstrating that Hispanics were viewed as being most appropriate for low status (thus low-paying) jobs. Interestingly, Hispanics were also viewed as being more likeable than both Black and Asian targets in our study, suggesting that the predicted salary has little to do with how people perceive the target on a social level. It seems quite plausible that Hispanics may need to be concerned about how their names influence a potential employer. This situation was demonstrated quite poignantly by a man named Jose who, after failing to receive responses from hundreds of job applications, decided to drop the letter "s" in his name and go by "Joe", resulting in a dramatic change in his callbacks (Matthews, 2014).

At the same time, Asians were significantly lower in likeability than Hispanics, yet were perceived to have a higher income and IQ, a finding that may stem from cultural stereotypes. In Asian cultures, people are seen as being more motivated to improve themselves in domains where they are weak, and these motivations are predicted by the individuals' beliefs about the utility of effort (Rattan, Savani, Naidu, & Dweck, 2012). Poor achievement is often followed by greater effort in Asian populations. The achievement motivation of Asians may potentially be one of the reasons why their likeability is viewed as low in our study, perhaps attributable to envy or competition. Furthermore, Stevenson and Stigler (1994) found that Japanese and Chinese students outperform U.S. students in math and science in part because American educators and parents emphasize inherent ability as the primary determinant of academic outcomes and accept ability as a limiting factor. Moreover, many Americans believe only some individuals have the potential to become highly intelligent (Rattan et al., 2012).

For writing quality, significant effects emerged for ethnicity, gender, and the interaction. A look at Figure 3 reveals an important finding. All three effects seem to be driven by one important variant: the ratings of the Black Male's writing quality were significantly lower than all of the other groups, in spite of the fact that the abstract was identical across all groups. How might this impact employer and teacher evaluations and grading? Could a teacher unconsciously give low grades on writing assignments to Black males simply due to activated stereotypes? Could employers unconsciously interpret a Black male's cover letter as being poorly written? The potential effects of such unconscious processing can play out in a variety of other domains as well. Carpusor and Loges (2006) found evidence of discrimination in the housing industry. When identical inquiries were sent to landlords advertising apartments for rent, with only the name being manipulated, the White-sounding name was 79% likely to receive a positive reply to an inquiry, in contrast to only 40% of non-White-sounding names.

Of note, we found virtually no evidence of ingroup bias. On the variables of IQ, income, and writing quality, participants gave similar ratings to targets regardless of whether the target was in the same gender or racial group as them. The only variable in which ingroup bias emerged was the target's likeability. Overall, people liked those of their own race better.

Limitations and Future Research

When looking at how target characteristics aligned with participant characteristics, 140 participants matched the gender of the target they were evaluating. However, only 17 participants matched the ethnicity of the target they were evaluating. Future studies will more carefully control the match/nonmatch between the participant and target to determine the extent of ingroup bias in our implicit stereotypes. Future research should also look at how implicit stereotypes are affected when we see a photograph or a video clip of the target. Today, it is not uncommon for potential employers to search for the social media profiles of candidates, so it is important to know how such images may impact employer perceptions. Further, what happens if the name and face do not align (i.e., a photograph of a Black man with a stereotypical White name, or a photograph of a White woman with a stereotypical Hispanic name)?

Conclusion

In this study we report that people make different attributions about a target's IQ, income, writing quality, and likeability, based solely on the implied race of the target's name. Consistent with previous research, targets with Black and Hispanic names were generally rated worse than targets with Caucasian and Asian names. This study supports previous research on implicit judgment by demonstrating that something as simple as a person's name, presented a single time, can influence how we perceive that person. This research has broad implications for employment/hiring decisions, housing, loan applications,

and for education, particularly the growing online learning environment in which we often only have access to a person's name.

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Figures

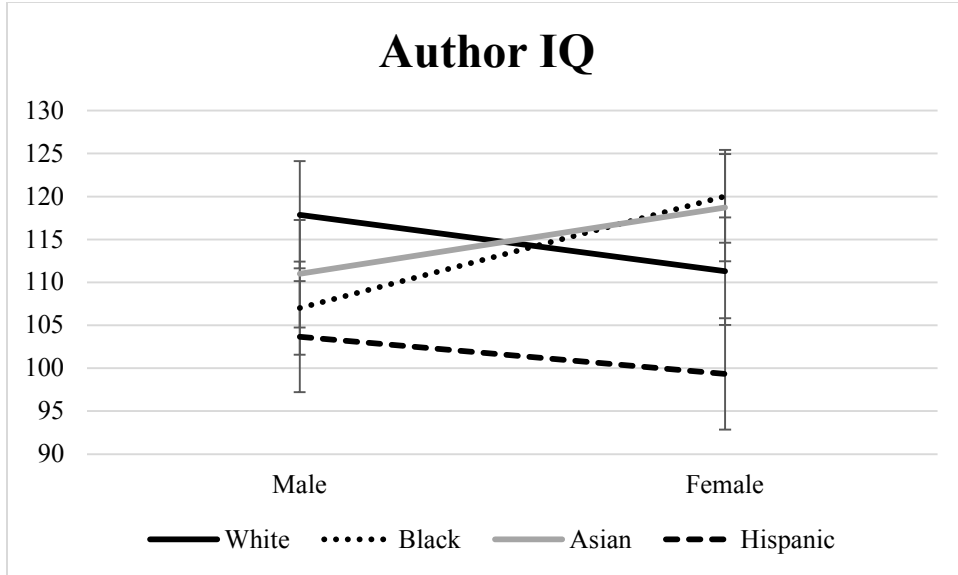


Figure 1. Differences in IQ based on Author Gender and Ethnicity.

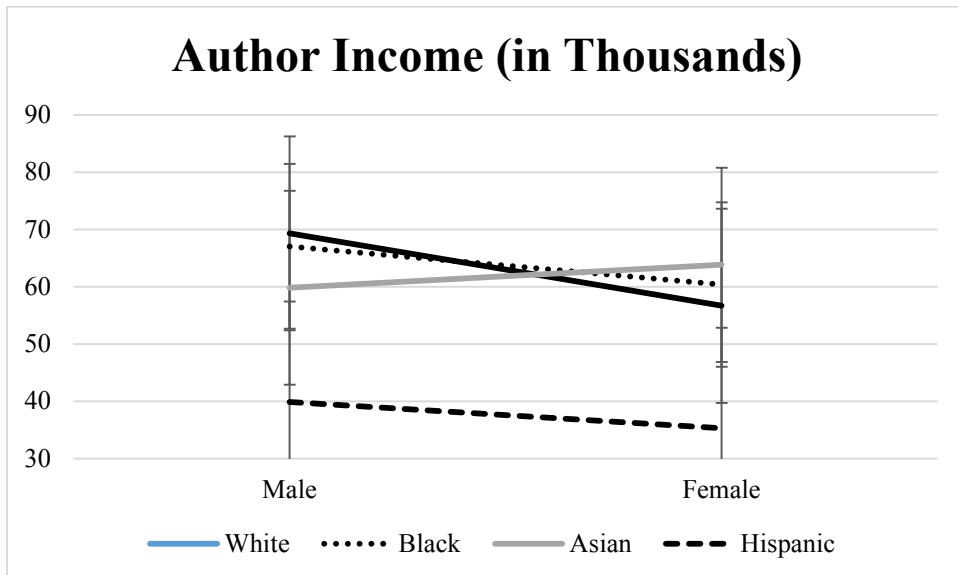


Figure 2. Differences in Income Based on Author Gender and Ethnicity.

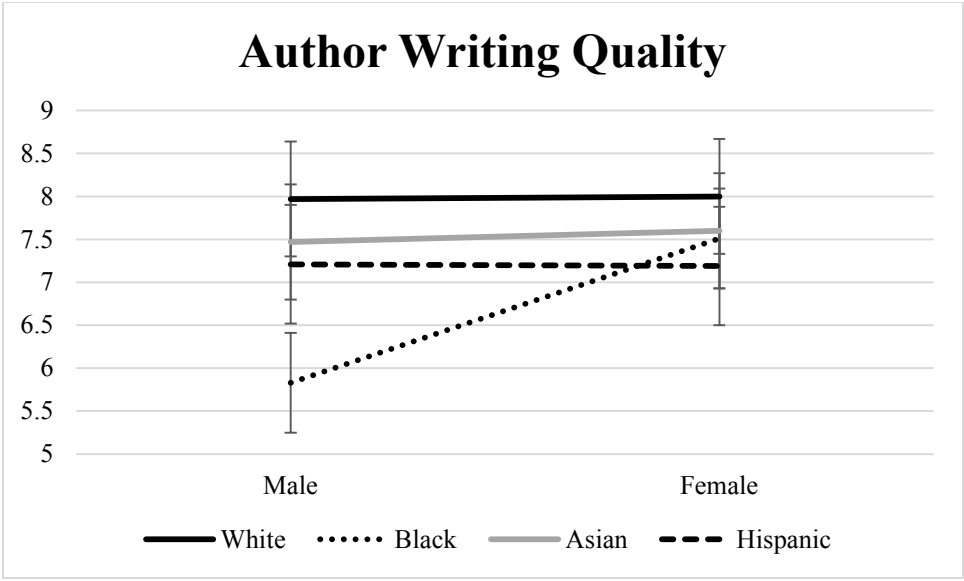


Figure 3. Differences in Writing Quality Based on Author Gender and Ethnicity

The Private Sector Getting Political: Get-Out-the-Vote Drives and Related Measures

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Abstract

This paper examines various political measures undertaken by companies and universities during the 2018 midterm campaign season. Steps included get-out-the-vote drives, paid time off to vote, meeting-free election days, socially conscious advertising, and more.

Introduction

Does the world feel like it has gotten “more political” over the past few years and that Democrats and Republicans are fighting more than usual? Jayson DeMers posed this question in an article in *Forbes* and noted that numerous studies suggest that the effect is not just in your head (DeMers 2017). Political polarization has been on the rise at least since the 2016 presidential election.

Private-sector companies, organizations, and institutions have been attempting to influence political outcomes and policies for years. Examples include contributions to parties, candidates, and campaigns and advertisements designed to influence public opinion on policy issues. But such efforts appear to be increasing in the “age of Trump.” Some such efforts are intended to stimulate voter turnout and others are designed to influence public policy. Consider voter turnout first.

Voter Turnout and Get-Out-the-Vote Drives

In an ideal democratic system, voters would be well informed and turnout levels would be very high. In the United States, low turnout is the norm rather than the exception. If more than 55% of eligible voters vote in a presidential election, turnout is regarded as having been relatively high. Typically, non-voters outnumber the number of votes cast for winning presidential candidates! Table 1 displays the approximate number of votes cast for presidential candidates (including some third-party candidates) and contrasts these numbers with the number of voting-age people who did not vote in relatively recent presidential elections.

SEE TABLE 1

To cite just a few examples, in 1980, Ronald Reagan defeated the incumbent President Jimmy Carter in a “landslide.” Reagan received 42.9 million popular votes to Carter’s 34.7 million. But non-voters numbered 75 million. It was the non-voters who “won” in a landslide. In 1996, President Bill Clinton was reelected with 47.4 million popular votes to Robert Dole’s 39.2 million and Ross Perot’s 8.1 million. But there were 98.6 million non-voters. The number 98.6 is a sign of health when taking a patient’s temperature, but it sends a different message when assessing the vitality of American electoral participation. Most recently, in 2016, Hillary Clinton received 65.9 million popular votes to Donald Trump’s 63 million. Trump won the presidency by winning more electoral votes than Clinton, but the Electoral College is a story for another day. The immediate point is that non-voters exceeded 100 million for the third time in the last five presidential elections.

The news gets worse. Voter turnout is substantially lower in congressional elections held during midterms than it is in congressional elections held during presidential years. By some estimates, turnout in midterm elections drops by as much as 15% from presidential-year turnout. Some voters only vote during presidential years. Congressional candidates of the winning presidential candidate’s party receive an artificial boost at the polls from voters who simply vote for congressional candidates who share the president’s party. In effect, some members of Congress ride the president’s “coattails” into office – a “coattail effect.” In the subsequent midterm election, these congressmen run on their own without the

benefit of the president's artificial boost. Many members of the president's party lose in midterm elections. Table 2 displays seat losses in the House of Representatives by members of the president's party.

SEE TABLE 2

In all but three midterm elections from 1906 through 2018, the president's party lost seats in the House. In 2018, Republicans lost 40 seats. The average House seat loss for the president's party since 1906 is 31.6.

Additional perspective is provided by comparing U.S. turnout rates to turnout in other countries. Table 3 displays voter turnout rates in selected world democracies. The International Institute for Democracy compiled a voter turnout database in presidential and parliamentary elections around the world since 1945. The database provides global statistics on elections for national political offices where there is a reasonable degree of competitiveness, excluding one-party states like North Korea, China, and the Soviet Union.

SEE TABLE 3

Some columns are based on the percentage of *registered* voters who actually voted and some are based on the percentage of the *voting age population* (VAP) who actually voted. Either way, the United States places below the middle of the pack. The U.S. Census Bureau calculates official turnout in presidential elections as the number of people voting divided by the voting age population. As Table 4 indicates, this simple formula reduces turnout in that some voting age citizens – felons, people confined to mental institutions or prisons, and non-citizens – cannot vote even if they wanted to. But their failure to vote counts against U.S. turnout rates. Furthermore, in the U.S., the responsibility for registering to vote falls on individual citizens. In some other countries, the registration burden is placed on the government. Registrars may register voters door-to-door, registration forms are sent to citizens, and some register voters automatically when they pay taxes. The 1993 “Motor Voter Law” permitted U.S. citizens to register to vote when they applied for or renewed their drivers’ licenses. Registration increased substantially after this law went into effect. Sixteen states (California, Colorado, Connecticut, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, Maine, Minnesota, Montana, New Hampshire, Utah, Vermont, Washington, Wisconsin, and Wyoming) and the District of Columbia currently allow Election Day registration (EDR). Maryland and North Carolina permit voters to register during the early voting period but not on Election Day itself (Brennan Center for Justice 2018). Such measures increase turnout. In short, in the U.S., there are convenience costs associated with registering and voting. In some countries, by contrast, non-voting is more costly.

Voting is compulsory in some countries. In Australia and Belgium, for example, non-voters are subjected to fines for not voting without a valid excuse. Table 4 shows that these countries have turnout in the 90% range. In Italy, “Did Not Vote” is stamped on identification papers of non-voters. Italian non-voters also see their names posted on communal bulletin boards. In addition, elections in the United States are held on Tuesdays, a work day. Tuesday was set as the day to hold federal elections in the mid-1800s when Congress decided that it was a convenient day for Sabbath-observing farmers to make a trip into town to vote. In many other countries, elections are held on weekends or election days are declared official holidays. In Italy, transportation is provided for people who want to return to their hometowns to vote. Another disincentive to voting is that some states use voter registration lists to select potential jurors. The fear of losing time from work if called for jury duty motivates some citizens to refrain from registering to vote. Of course, jurors can also be drawn using tax records and drivers’ licenses so this dodge is not foolproof.

The bottom line is that voter turnout in the United States is lower than many would like it to be. In some cases, the private sector has stepped up with efforts designed to help people vote.

The Private Sector and Voter Turnout: Getting Out the Vote

In 2012, the National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement said that civic learning and engagement should be more pervasive on college campuses. In 2016, the ALL IN Campus Democracy Challenge began. ALL IN seeks to increase the number of college students who are democratically engaged during and between elections and to make educating for democratic engagement

on college campuses an expected part of the culture and curriculum. Students should develop the knowledge, skills, and values needed to be informed and active citizens. ALL IN has participating campuses in 48 states and the District of Columbia including 473 institutions and 886 campuses serving 5,499,654 students (ALL IN 2019).

According to a study from the Pew Research Center, the most common reason for nonvoting is that people had work or school conflicts that kept them away from the polls (Pew Research Center 2014). A group of approximately 300 companies launched a campaign (“Time to Vote”) to give employees time off with pay to vote in the 2018 midterm elections. Participating companies included WalMart, coffee roaster LaColombe, Dick’s Sporting Goods, Patagonia, Levi Strauss, the Mediterranean restaurant Cava, Tyson Food, PayPal, Etsy, Nordstrom, the Gap, and more. Table 4 provides a list of involved companies.

SEE TABLE 4

The Society for Human Resources Management reported that a record 44% of American firms were giving workers paid time off to vote in the 2018 midterms, up from 37% in 2016. Federal law does not require employers to give workers time off to vote. Some states have related provisions but polices vary by state (Radelat 2018). Patagonia shut down its stores on Election Day. A company spokesperson explained that “voting is more important than shopping” (Whitten and Newburger 2018). Lyft offered free rides to the polls for people in “underserved communities” and 50% discounts for other voters. Uber offered \$10 off single rides to the polls (Radelat). Some companies provided “meeting free work days” to help workers get to the polls (McGowan 2018).

These measures appear to have helped. Voter turnout was high. According to the U.S. Elections Project, 49.2% of eligible voters voted in the midterms. This was the highest recorded rate for a midterm election since 1914. Typically, about 40% of eligible voters actually vote in non-presidential elections. In 2014, turnout was especially low when only 36.4% voted – the lowest turnout in 70 years (Bach 2018). In 2018, turnout increased by 12.8%

The Private Sector and Policy Advocacy

Patagonia is a small company that makes tools and clothes for climbing, skiing, snowboarding, surfing, fly fishing, paddling, and trail running. These are “quiet” sports, requiring neither a motor nor a cheering crowd, sports that connect the individual with nature. In addition to its already-mentioned get-out-the-vote efforts, Patagonia launched a nonpartisan environmental campaign called “Vote Our Planet” in 2018, urging Americans to vote to defend the planet’s air, water, and soil. The campaign urged voters to vote purposefully with the environment as their top issue in the 2018 midterms (Byars 2016). The campaign is consistent with Patagonia’s mission statement: “Build the best product, do no unnecessary harm, use business to inspire and implement solutions to the environmental crisis.” Among other things, the company donates 1% of its sales to grassroots environmental groups (“Patagonia’s Mission Statement” 2018). Patagonia founder and owner Yvon Chouinard said, “Many young voters feel disenfranchised and disillusioned by politics. But if they voted in full force, and voiced the urgency of the environmental crisis, politicians would have to take their issues seriously” (Patagonia). The company urges voters to stress solar power initiatives, pollution regulations, and stopping new pipelines. They have provided almost \$1 million in environmental grants to groups addressing such issues. They dedicate space in catalogs, electronic newsletters, blogs, store displays and social media to publicize their environmental message. They offer a hub with links to the League of Conservation Voters, Sierra Club, Ballot Ready, Next Gen Climate, Change Politics, Grist, Headcount, TurboVote, and Politico to inform voters about these issues (Patagonia).

The Private Sector in a Political Advisory Role

Corporate leaders are sometimes recruited to serve in government roles including advisory commissions. The purposes are twofold: such leaders bring genuine expertise that can enhance policy decisions and their presence can have public-relations value. Consider, for example, two groups of outside business advisers that President Trump established during his first year in office: the American Manufacturing Council and his Strategic & Policy Forum.

In August of 2017, white supremacists who were protesting the removal of a statue of General Robert E. Lee clashed with counter-protestors in Charlottesville, Virginia. White nationalists marched while

chanting “Jews will not replace us” and the Nazi slogan, “Blood and Soil.” One of them drove his car into a crowd of protestors, killing one woman and injuring 19 more. In his initial statement, President Trump denounced “hatred, bigotry, and violence . . . on many sides.” Critics charged that he was equating the neo-Nazis with those who opposed white supremacy. He issued a second, more conciliatory statement. But he followed with yet another statement in which he said, “Not all of those people were neo-Nazis, believe me. Not all of those people were white supremacists by any stretch. . . . There is blame on both sides . . . you also had people that [sic] were very fine people on both sides.” Former KKK leader David Duke tweeted his thanks to the President (Woodward 2018, 238-46).

Kenneth Frazier, the African-American CEO of the Fortune 500 pharmaceutical company Merck, announced his resignation from Trump’s American Manufacturing Council. Trump immediately attacked Frazier on Twitter (“he will have more time to LOWER RIPOFF DRUG PRICES!”). CEOs of Intel and UnderArmour also resigned. Trump stated that he had many more business leaders ready to replace those who left and called those who resigned “grandstanders.” Following Trump’s press conference, CEOs of 3M, Campbell Soup, and General Electric, and representatives from the AFL-CIO and the president of the Alliance of American Manufacturing left the Manufacturing Council. Jamie Dimon, CEO of JPChase, informed employees that the Strategic & Policy Forum had decided to disband. To prevent further resignations and potential embarrassment, Trump abolished both groups. He did so via Twitter. House Speaker Paul Ryan (R-WI) and Senate Majority Leader Mitch McConnell (R-KY) called some of the CEOs and commended them for taking a stand (Woodward, 247-48).

This episode illustrates that private sector involvement in the political world can produce positive or negative publicity depending on circumstances and public opinion among core customer groups.

Socially Conscious Companies, Corporate Responsibility, and the Bottom Line

Companies can be socially conscious even if their products do not have obvious socially conscious ties. For example, they can bring in dogs to help reduce employee stress, permit flexible work schedules to accommodate families, provide room for an employee-run garden, stop serving lunch in Styrofoam containers, to cite just a few examples (Peretz 2017). Zappos works with charitable organizations to donate shoes, books, and school supplies to people in need. LinkedIn works with organizations to connect underserved communities to economic opportunities. They partner with youth training groups, veterans organizations, refugee resource networks, and so on. Levi Strauss reduced water use in manufacturing by 96% saving more than one billion liters of water since 2011. Bosch invests 50% of its R&D in technologies supporting conservation and environmental protection. Ben and Jerry’s allocates 7.5% of pretax profits to philanthropy (Vilas 2017). Starbucks is replacing plastic straws with recyclable strawless lids and straws made from alternative materials for customers who prefer or need a straw. The move will eliminate more than one billion plastic straws per year from Starbucks stores and from the oceans (Starbucks 2018). Lyft donated \$1 million to the ACLU after Trump announced a ban on travel from seven Muslim-majority countries (Zimmerman 2017).

Corporate social responsibility is increasingly important for consumers (especially young people) who may be willing to pay a little more to support companies that exhibit social consciousness. The Nielsen Global Survey of Corporate Responsibility found that more than half of those surveyed are willing to pay more for products and services provided by companies that are committed to positive social and environmental impact (Gauss 2018). Consumers are looking to the political and ethical implications of their purchases. Consumers are thinking about consumption as a way of exercising social and political opinions and priorities. Generation Z cares very much about the stands companies take on social and political issues. Companies are noticing (McGowan 2018).

The recent Nike ad campaign celebrating the 30th anniversary of the slogan “Just Do It” features former San Francisco 49ers quarterback Colin Kaepernick with a message about being willing to sacrifice everything (Nike 2018). Kaepernick and other NFL players knelt during the playing of the National Anthem to protest police killings of unarmed black Americans. The Nike ad does not explicitly mention the protests or police shootings but it refers to his claim that he remained unemployed because the NFL banned him: “Believe in something. Even if it means sacrificing everything.” There were calls to boycott Nike products. Some critics complain that using Kaepernick in a Nike ad dilutes and commercializes his

message. The ad campaign is undeniably political but it appears to have made good business sense too, helping Nike appeal to its core customers, two-thirds of whom are under 35 (Bain 2018). Some consumers burned their Nike sneakers, but online sales increased by 28% following release of the Kaepernick ads (Gregory 2018).

Coca Cola ran an ad during the 2019 Superbowl (“Forever Forward”) celebrating black history and its progression over time in conjunction with the evolution of the Coca-Cola bottle (Coca Cola 2019). The ad includes references to Jackie Robinson, Rosa Parks, Martin Luther King, Jr. and more.

Levi’s ran an ad, “Use Your Vote” (Levi’s 2018) featuring the lyrics of Aretha Franklin’s, *Think* (“You better think what you’re doing to me...Freedom...”). The ad, part of Levi’s get-out-the-vote campaign, shows diverse voters on their way to the polls and ends with the line, “It’s your voice. It’s your vote.” Promoting voting can also appeal to young customers, whose business the company wants for many years, without alienating other customers. Levi’s also pledged its support in efforts to end gun violence. CEO Chip Bergh said, “[a]s a company, we have never been afraid to take a stand to support a greater good” (Pasquarelli 2018).

Corporate social responsibility is increasingly important to job candidates and potential employees too so there are recruiting and retention benefits for companies that exhibit social consciousness. The Nielsen Survey found that two-thirds of those surveyed would rather work for such a company (Gauss 2018).

But sometimes attempts to convey a socially conscious message backfire. Pepsi ran an ad featuring Kendall Jenner joining a group of young, smiling, laughing, hugging, high-fiving, generic protestors (Pepsi 2017). The ad concludes when a police officer smiles and accepts a can of Pepsi from Jenner while the protestors cheer and applaud. Commentators accused Pepsi of appropriating imagery from the Black Lives Matter Movement and other serious protests to sell its product and minimizing the danger protestors encounter and feel. Bernice King, daughter of Martin Luther King Jr. and Coretta Scott King, tweeted, “If only Daddy would have known about the power of #Pepsi.” Saying they “missed the mark,” Pepsi apologized: “We did not intend to make light of any serious issue. We are pulling the content and halting any further rollout” (Victor 2018; “Here’s Why Kendall Jenner’s Pepsi Ad Is So Controversial” 2017).

Conclusions: Proceed with Caution

On balance, is taking political stands and incorporating political messages into ads a good business strategy? Jayson DeMers contrasts the different responses of Uber and Lyft to President Trump’s immigration ban. When two Iraqis were detained at JFK International Airport, the New York City Taxi Workers Alliance protested by refusing pickups. Lyft donated \$1 million to the American Civil Liberties Union. Uber continued to operate as usual. The hashtag #Delete Uber began and Lyft surpassed Uber in business that day. Shortly thereafter, Uber CEO Travis Kalanick resigned from Trump’s economic advisory group. In a related vein, Starbucks CEO Howard Schultz expressed “deep concern” over the immigration ban and Trump’s plans to build a wall and he announced the company’s plans to hire refugees. Trump supporters boycotted Starbucks while others professed their continued loyalty. (DeMers 2018). Schultz considered running for president as a “centrist independent.”

What can go wrong? Sponsoring get-out-the-vote drives and providing employees with time to vote is relatively safe. Advocating specific issue positions can be more controversial. Some who are offended by the position taken by a company will take their business elsewhere. If a company is perceived to be inauthentic or seen as exploiting an issue instead of expressing genuine concern, the message can backfire. The Pepsi ad with Kendall Jenner is a case in point. On the other hand, there are potential business benefits too. Customers who remain loyal to the brand may become even *more* strongly committed than they were previously (DeMers).

Political messaging by private companies brings mixed responses. Consider what happened to Stephen Martin, owner of Prime Time Sports in Colorado. After Nike aired the Kaepernick ad, Martin reduced prices on Nike merchandise in an attempt to remove Nike from his store. Five months later, the store was slated to close after 20 years in business. Martin said his protest of Nike played a large part in the store’s closing. “Being a sports store without Nike is kind of like being a milk store without milk or a gas station without gas. How do you do it? They have a monopoly on jerseys,” said Martin.

Martin's store had previously canceled an autograph signing with Brandon Marshall after the Broncos player knelt during the National Anthem in 2016 to protest police brutality. Martin was expressing his own political viewpoints but he learned that Kaepernick and Marshall had a lot of supporters who could shop elsewhere. "As much as I hate to admit this, perhaps there are more Brandon Marshall and Colin Kaepernick supporters out there than I realized," said Martin (Joseph 2019).

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Year	Candidates	Popular Votes (millions)	Year	Candidates	Popular Votes (millions)
1976	Carter	40.8	2000	G.W. Bush	50.4
	Ford	39.15		Gore	51.0
	Non-voters	68		Nader	2.8
1980	Reagan	42.9	2004	Non-voters	101.4
	Carter	34.7		G.W. Bush	62
	Anderson	5.6		Kerry	59
1984	Non-voters	75	2008	Other	1.0
	Reagan	52.6		Non-voters	93.4
	Mondale	36.5		Obama	69.5
1988	Non-voters	78	2012	McCain	59.9
	Bush Sr.	48.9		Other	1.9
	Dukakis	41.8		Non-voters	94.2
1992	Non-voters	91	2016	Obama	65.9
	W. Clinton	45		Romney	60.9
	Bush Sr.	39		Other	2.4
1996	Perot	20		Non-voters	106
	Non-Voters	81.8		Trump	63
	W. Clinton	47.4		H. Clinton	65.9
	Dole	39.2		Non-voters	112
	Perot	8.1			
	Non-Voters	98.6			

Source: Stanley, Harold W. and Niemi, Richard G., eds. *Vital Statistics on American Politics 2015-2016*. CQ Press; *World Almanac and Book of Facts*; U.S. Census Bureau, *Statistical Abstract of the United States 2016* <https://www.census.gov/prod/2011pubs/12statab/election.pdf>; *The National Data Book*

Year	Party Holding Presidency	President's Party: Gain or Loss of Seats	Year	Party Holding Presidency	President's Party: Gain or Loss of Seats
1906	R	-28	1966	D	-48
1910	R	-57	1970	R	-12
1914	D	-61	1974	R	-48
1918	D	-22	1978	D	-15
1922	R	-77	1982	R	-26
1926	R	-9	1986	R	-5
1930	R	-52	1990	R	-8
1934	D	+9	1994	D	-54
1938	D	-72	1998	D	+5
1942	D	-44	2002	R	+8
1946	D	-55	2006	R	-30
1950	D	-28	2010	D	-63
1954	R	-18	2014	D	-13
1958	R	-48	2018	R	-40
1962	D	-4			

Source: Brookings. "Losses by President's Party in Midterm Elections." https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/vitalstats_ch2_tbl4.pdf (accessed March 25, 2019).

Country	Parliamentary Voter Turnout (Percentage of Registered Voters Who Actually Voted)	Parliamentary VAP Turnout (Percentage of Voting Age Population Who Actually Voted)	Presidential Voter Turnout (Percentage of Registered Voters Who Actually Voted)	Presidential VAP Turnout (Percentage of Voting Age Population Who Actually Voted)
Australia	91.01	78.96	---	---
Belgium	89.37	87.21	---	---
Sweden	87.18	82.08	---	---
Denmark	85.89	80.34	---	---
Netherlands	81.93	77.31	---	---
New Zealand	79.75	76.35	---	---
Iceland	79.18	75.68	75.67	72.93
Norway	78.22	70.59	---	---
Germany	76.15	69.11	---	---
Italy	72.93	65.18	---	---
Israel	72.34	76.10	---	---
Spain	69.84	60.87	---	---
United Kingdom	68.93	62.88	---	---
Canada	68.28	62.12	---	---
Finland	66.85	73.14	66.76	67.47*
United States	65.44	55.98	65.44	55.98
Ireland	65.09	58.04	43.87	39.33
Greece	63.94	70.65	---	---
Portugal	55.84	61.75	48.7	53.98*
Japan	52.66	51.97	---	---
Switzerland	48.51	38.63	---	---
France	42.64	38.62	74.56	67.93

Source: International Institute for Democracy, "Voter Turnout Database" <https://www.idea.int/data-tools/data/voter-turnout> (accessed March 8, 2019)

*In some countries, registered voters exceed the VAP. The explanation for this anomaly lies either in the inaccuracy of the electoral roll or in estimated numbers of the voting age population

Table 4: Time to Vote -- All Participants

A-C

104 West Partners; 4Pia; Abercrombie & Fitch Co.; AcademyOne Inc.; Activate World; Active Endeavors; Adventure Apparel; ALC; Allagash Brewing; Allbirds; Allergan; Allison + Partners; Alpine Investors; Amyris; Aqua Pure Water & Sewage Service LLC; Arabella Advisors; Arcadian Shop; Art4Art, Inc.; Askov Finlayson; Aspen Electric and Solar; Aspen Skiing Company; August Jackson; Aunt Bertha Inc.; Austin Trail Running Company; Avening Management and Technical Services, LLC; Avitru; bamboo; Bandwidth; BBAccel; Beautycounter; Bedroc Inc.; Bedrock Manufacturing (Shinola, Filson); Beehive Strategic Communication; Benecomms; Beneficial State Bank and Foundation; Bibo Coffee Co.; Bighorn Outdoor Specialists; Bill4Time; Bivouac; BLDG Active; BlockWorks Group; Blue Bottle Brewing Company; Blue Point Brewing Company; Blue Jay Worldwide, LLC; Blue Mountain Outfitters; blueseventy; Bold Betties; Bolder Industries; Bombas; Boxed; Breakers Suft Shop; Bridge; Bristlecone Events; Brown-Forman; Buffalo Creek Consulting; Buffalo Peak Outfitters; Buildium; Bullhaus Ventures; Bullhorn Creative; Bureo Inc; Burton; Carmichael Lynch Relate; CarrotNewYork; Casebook PBC; CauseLabs; CAVA; Centre Lane Partners; Centro; Channel Islands Surfboards; Circle of Seasons Charter School; Clare V.; Clear Water Outdoor; Cliff Consulting; Clove & Twine; Coalition Snow; Comlinkdata; Communally; Commvault; Commit Partnership; CommonStock, Inc.; Cordova Gear; Crazy Mountain Outdoor Co.; Credit Karma; Credo Beauty; CURE Pharmaceutical;

D-I

Danna-Gracey; Datami; Datto; Deckers Brands; Denali; Devaney & Associates Inc.; DICK'S Sporting Goods; Direct Mortgage Loans, LLC; Distil Union; DLC Management Corporation; Doctors on Demand; DÔEN; Doing Good Works; Dragonfly Anglers; Edgewell Personal Care; EHE; Eight; EILEEN FISHER Inc.; Electric Pulp; Elevation Clothing; Emerger Strategies; Emmy's Organic; Emplify; Epic Sports; Escape Outdoors; Event Strategy Group; evo; Experian N.A.; Fair Trade USA; Farmers Insurance; Farmers Insurance Sapphire Dooley Agency; Fast Horse; Fatherly; Favor Your Day; FilterEasy; Filson; Finan McDonald Clothing Company; Finger Lakes Running Co.; Fire Engine RED; First Lite; Flat Vernacular; Fleishman Hillard; Flightlinez Bootleg Canyon; Florida for Good; Floyd, Inc; Foggy Mountain Shop; Fontana Sports; Forrester; Foundation Technologies; Fuse Media LLC; Gallery Media Group; GAP Inc.; Gear Patrol; Gearhead Outfitters; Glance Networks; Goddess Garden; Godfrey Dadich; Golin; Goodnight Loving Vodka; Great Outdoor Provision Co.; Great Outdoor Store; Greenpeace, Inc.; GreenWeaver Landscapes, LLC; GYRO Creative Group; Habitat for Humanity New York City; Half-Moon Outfitters; Harbor Freight Tools; Harlem Skin & Laser Clinic; Haul Over; Here; Heritage Goods & Supply; High Mountain Outfitters; Highland Hiker; hint; Home Means Nevada Co.; Hub Coffee Roasters; Hustle; Hutch; IANS; Idaho Mountain Touring; Idealist Consulting; Ideas United; IMBIB Custom Brews; Immucor; Ingage Partners; InkHouse; Inkwell/ROAM; Innotech Laser; Insurance Auto Auctions, Inc.; Integriti3D; International Festival of Arts & Ideas; Intouch Group; Invenra Inc.;

J-O

Jackson Hewitt; JANE.hr; Jans LTD; J.L. Waters and Co.; Jonathan Rose Companies; JOOR; Kaiser Permanente; Kaplan Test Prep; KAYAK; Kendall Square Association; Kenneth Cole Productions; KensieMae, LLC; KIND Healthy Snacks; Klean Kanteen; Knotel; Kobie Marketing; La Colombe Coffee Roasters; Last Call Media; Laughing Planet Café; Laxalt and McIver; Leavenworth Mountain Sports; Leota; Levi Strauss & Co.; Levick; LiveRamp; London Calling Salon; LoveTheWild; LUMIONskin; Lyft; Lyric Hospitality, Inc.; Magnet Companies; MainStream Strategy; Marlo's Bakeshop; Masseys; Mast General Store; Master Clinician Network; Maximum Games; MediaMath; Mediocre Creative; Mesa Rim Climbing Centers; Michele Varian; Michele's Granola; Microgrid Systems Laboratory; MightyHive; MiiR; M Mercer Consulting; ModCloth; Monarch Services - Servicios Monarca; Monti Kids; Morning Consult; Mountain Angler; Mountain High Outfitters; Mountain Sports; Mountain View Sports; Mozilla; Muck Rack; National Community Investment Fund; NATURA CULINA, CO, Inc.; Nature's Closet; Need Supply; New Belgium Brewing; New Directions Treatment Services; New Haven Partner Store; Next Door; Niantic, Inc.; Nixon Inc; Nordstrom; NudgeTV; NYC Leadership Academy; One Savvy Mother, LLC; ONTRAPORT; OpenTable; Ordergroove; OSEA Malibu; Ozone Partner US LLC; Out There Outfitters; Outsiders Hair Studio;

P- S

Pacers Running; Pack Rat Outdoor Center; Packer Expeditions; Paragon Sports; Patagonia; Patagonia Provisions; PayPal; Pearl Law Group; Penny's; Penske Media Corporation; Peppercomm; Perrodin Supply Co; PhosphoSolutions; Piña Colada; Pipeline; Pine Needle Mountaineering; Pivot Interiors; Podcraft; POINT380; Porter Novelli; Prescott Group; Priceline; Prince Organization; Prosperity Candle; Purple Strategies; Purple Leaf, LLC; Quantworks, Inc.; QuotaPath; QUINN; Rafferty Home Systems; Ramsey Outdoor; Ranker; Red Ledge; Red Queen Gaming; Redemption Plus; Reed's; Relish Studio; Rendezvous Adventure Outfitters; RevZilla.com; Ripple; Road Rivers and Trails; Rocky Mountain Anglers; Rocky Mountain Outfitter; ROKK Solutions; Room & Board; S1 Medical; Salacia Salts; Salem Summit Co.; San Francisco CASA; Scream Agency; Search Wizards, Inc; Servable; Sfara, Inc.; SH Architecture; Shorty Awards; Silberstein Architecture; Silipint Inc.; Silver Sage Center for Family Medicine; Simple Construct; SkinOwl; Skirack; SlapFive; Slice; Smalls; Smartwool; Smith Designs; SocialCode; Social Sunday; Solar Sister; Somos Inc.; Sonos; Sophos; Southwest Airlines; Spikeball Inc; Spiro; Squarespace; SS+K; Stellar Solutions, Inc.; Steptoe & Johnson LLP; Straightline Sports; Sunriver Sports; Surfrider Foundation; Sustain Natural; sweetgreen;

T-Z

T3; Tackle Box Outfitters; Tahoe Mountain Sports; Tampa Bay Outfitters; Tamara Mellon; Taos Fly Shop; Taos Mountain Outfitters; Tea Collection; teaRIOT; Team One Newport; Tech Networks of Boston; Teladoc Health; Telaria; Terra PR; Teton Mountaineering; The April Hall Quartet; The Associated Management Group; The Bachelor Farmer; The Beachwater Co.; The Butler Bros; The Daily Grind; The Frontier Project; The HOPE Program; The Lakes Running Co.; The Mountain Air; The Mountaineer; The Naughty Greek; The North Face; The Redwoods Group; The Reel Life; The Syndicate; The Trail House; The Trust for Public Land; Thelma Kirkwood, CPA, An APC; theSkimm; This Also, Inc.; THREADS - Footloose & Fancy; Tidal River Clothing Co.; Timber Trails; Timberland; Toad & Co.; Townsend Bertram & Co.; TPG; Tracker Corp; Trail Creek Outfitters; Trail Head; Travel & Nature; Travel Country Outfitters; Trek Light Gear; TRICENTS; Turtle Fur; TwelveTwentyOne, LLC; Tyson Foods; Ultimate Direction; Uncle Dan's Outfitters; UnderBar LLC; Union Kitchen; Union Square Hospitality Group; United Way of Northwest Vermont; Unreasonable Group, LLC; UNTUCKit; urbangreen furniture; Ute Mountaineer; Vaudeville Ventures; Verde Brand Communications; VF Corporation; Walmart; Wash with Water; Water Stone Outdoors; Watershed; Weinstein, JCC; Whole Earth Provision Co.; Wild Friends Foods; Wild Iris Mountain Sports; Wilderwest; Willow; Willow Canyon Outdoor; Winthrop Mountain Sports; Wordbank; World Surf League; World's Finest Chocolate; W S Badger Co.; Wylder Goods; Yurgosky; Zeno

Source: "Time to Vote: All Participants <https://www.maketimetovote.org/participants> (accessed March 10, 2019)

What Are The Factors That Make Beginning And Veteran Teachers Highly Motivated And Inspired In The Classroom?

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to research and analyze the factors that cause teachers to be and stay inspired, motivated, excited, and committed to provide quality instruction, quality learning, and develop enthusiastic students who see value in their educational experiences and learning. This study uses information from various sources to compile and synthesize relevant findings to support and highlight the motivations that teachers use and possess that allows them to stay in tune with curricula, new strategies, a good understanding of all students, and the ability to bring freshness of ideas and experiences into the lives of all students. In addition to research, this study used surveys to collect information from novice or intern and veteran teachers. The surveys allowed for the collection of relevant information from teachers in the field who stand out as self-identified and highly motivated, effective, engaged, and successful in staying energetic, well organized, use excellent learning/teaching strategies, and are able to deliver instruction that students find interesting, useful and relevant to their personal growth as exemplified by their excellent learner outcomes/learning.

Introduction

A dictionary definition of inspiration is the arousal of the mind to special and unusual activity or creativity. This definition defines many successful teachers who have found their calling in the teaching profession and have used their passion for quality instruction and delivering the content to their students who are, in return, excited and motivated to learn because their teachers moved them to a higher calling of meaningful skills and creative thinking. These inspired teachers possess the knowhow and the commitment to their profession in order to stay energetic, creative, and motivated on a daily basis. They have discovered a truth that says:

Inspiration is....

It's not what you do; it's how you do it.

It's not what you see; It's how you look at it.

It's not how your life is; It's how you live it.(Author unknown).

Another definition of a motivated teacher states that "A motivated teacher is one who not only feels satisfied with his or her job, but also is empowered to strive for excellence and growth in instructional practice" (Frase, 1992).

A final definition (Mart, 2013) states that motivated and inspired teachers need passion. "Passion matters in that it motivates and inspires teachers. Passion leads to creativity; therefore passionate teachers have the ability to think and produce new notions in an easy way" (p. 437).

Recognizing the characteristics of teachers who are motivated and inspiring is extremely important in cultivating their traits and behaviors so that others may also benefit by working and collaborating with them. Motivating and inspiring teachers stand out and are usually leaders in their schools and districts because they are committed to providing quality education and also being involved in issues that affect all students in our society.

Purpose of the Study and Methodology

The purpose of this study was to look at different teachers and how they stay inspired, motivated, excited, committed, and successful in their day to day teaching in addition to helping their diverse populations of students to stay focused, motivated, and interested in the learning experiences taking place in the classroom.

Two surveys were used to gather information from candidates in credential programs and from veteran teachers to find common ground in their responses regarding how they go about keeping their inspirations, attitudes, and work habits at a high level that allows them to inspire their students to learn to the best of their abilities. One survey was used for candidates and the other for veteran teachers. The surveys were sent to candidates in a credential program and to veteran teachers in schools. The responses were analyzed and used to provide the information included in this research paper.

Review of the Literature

There are many exceptional teachers who help students to become eager and willing to learn so that they become successful in their schooling and in their entire lives. The following quote best exemplifies the starting point about what kind of teachers are inspirational and motivational in helping to create a climate and learning environment that allows students to thrive socially, emotionally, personally, and academically.

“If you think back to when you were a pupil, which teacher caught your eye? Was it the one that stood at the front reading from a book or sheet of paper in a monosyllabic tone? Or perhaps it was the one who was animated and engaged – who showed they were truly passionate about their subject? Chances are it was the later...” (Rossati, 2017). This article points out that students are motivated by teachers who are passionate, inspirational, and motivating in teaching their subject areas with vigor that excites students to want to be there with that type of teacher because learning was more interesting and relevant.

The article by Rosatti further describes personality traits that these inspiring teachers demonstrate, such as they often smile, are cheerful, have a happy and positive outlook on life and make the learning environment an inviting, stimulating, and adhered to the SEL model (social-emotional learning) that advocates for passionate teaching and learning where students are looked upon as creative and resourceful with the ability to succeed in school and in life (7Minsets.com). In an article from Harvard’s BOK Center, the statement made is that “It is not an exaggeration to say that a great teacher can change a student’s life” (Harvard’s BOK Center). The article goes on to expound on the teachers’ role as role models who go beyond academic teaching. The inspired and motivated teachers make a difference in their students’ lives by trying to “reach them on multiple levels” in order to make sure that whatever learning takes place in the classroom, it impacts their students’ success and well-being outside of it. A good example of this is in an article written by Erin Vallejo, a teacher of Sophomore Advanced English in Dublin, California. She became interested in helping her students deal with “improving and supporting teen age mental health and social health” for students (Vallejo, 2017). Due to a student’s suicide, she created the Elephant in the Room as a way of getting students together to talk and ask questions about their personal struggles so that students would not feel isolated. This is a social emotional approach to help students feel connected, important, and have a positive view of themselves and life in general. She made use of social media to get the word out about Elephant in the Room as a way of helping students organize and finding support among their peers, teachers, and other adults.

A variety of studies (Garrison, 2004, p.1; Carbonneau, Vallerand, Fernet, & Guay, 2008, p. 978; Howard, 2013; Rosati, 2017) point out that inspired teachers are passionate, have a sense of values, are patient, and have a sense of humor. All of these factors allow these teachers to be: open minded, enthusiastic, honest, committed, motivated, accessible, global thinkers, inquisitive, highly energetic, collaborative, accepting of a variety of responsibilities, caring, knowledgeable, problem solvers, student centered, have high expectations of all students, and enjoy sharing their experiences, knowledge, and resources with others.

Additionally, inspired teachers in the classroom accept all students equitably, use higher level questioning, and encourage students to be active participants in all learning activities with their focus on successful learning outcomes for each and every student (Mart, January 2013).

Other studies show that inspired and motivated teachers make students feel empowered and allow for collaboration in small group activities in order for all students to be able to exchange their personal perspectives/feelings/opinions on what they are learning about and how that learning impacts them in their daily lives. In one article, it states that, “A motivated teacher is crucial to a successful classroom. They will look at teaching through a different lens, and, in doing so, motivate their students in their learning too. Motivation helps to energize, direct, and sustain positive behavior over a long period of time” (Rosati, 2017).

Through this time of “accelerating change” (Kegitani, 2014), due to so many technological, cultural, social and environmental change than any previous time in our history, schools are in the forefront of this change and this is cause for having teacher leadership to help students adjust, become knowledgeable, and use their skills to better fit into this new environment. According to Ryan and Cooper (2013), “An effective teacher must continually make decisions and act on those decisions” demonstrating a repertoire of teaching skills that are believed to facilitate student learning” (p. 162).

From the students’ point of view, they like interest based and relevant activities that are motivating, engaging, involve collaboration, allow for student input, provide for hands-on experiences and learning that students can connect to. In her article Schwartz (2014) reported that a panel of students said that they would be highly motivated and try hard to learn if they have teachers that care about them. According to that panel, “The number one thing that students on the panel said makes them want to try hard and succeed is knowing that teachers care about them and are part of the learning journey with them.”

Findings

The main question of both surveys was: Are you an inspired, motivated, and successful teacher? What makes you so? This was asked of both the veteran teacher and the intern candidates in order to get a collective sense of how they identified themselves. The responses included responses like the following:

- Part of being a motivated and inspired teacher comes through my general behavior and attitude. There’s a lot to be said for people that regularly smile, offer a happy and cheery outlook on life and generally come across as upbeat and pleasant to be around – regardless of how they’re actually feeling.
- Making your classroom a warm, colorful and stimulating environment is also key to creating a positive space.
- Recognizing hard work and offering praise will ensure your students stay encouraged and feeling as though their work is on the right track forwards and that I am noticing their efforts.

A second question asked: What caused you to want to become a teacher? The sample responses included the following:

- Love of subject matter
- Love of children/youth – enjoying to influence and watch them grow academically and personally
- Love of ongoing learning and teaching; touching the future
- Good pay; good benefits; good retirement
- Short teaching year that allows for family activities/long vacations for travel
- It’s a recognized profession with good status
- My parents are teachers
- I remember my sixth grade teacher and a couple of high school teachers who motivated and encouraged me to become a teacher.

A third question asked: What factors cause an inspired teacher to stay in the profession? The responses include:

- Inspired teachers stay in the classroom because they are effective in helping students learn at very high; They get satisfaction.
- Inspired teachers know how to excite and motivate students to become inspired learners through good classroom management: They are effective classroom managers.

- Inspired teachers know how to design and teach effective worthwhile lessons that provide all students with meaningful activities that help students to learn and master important content, knowledge, and skills for use in their lives.

- Inspired teachers have high but positive expectations for their students' success.

A fourth question on the survey asked: What should teachers strive for if they want to stay inspired? Some of the responses included:

- A good or inspired teacher is made through a variety of acquired and learned skills.

- Teaching is seen as a dynamic skill that needs to be refreshed through ongoing retraining, practice, and refinement on a regular basis.

- Teaching methods and strategies are varied in order to tap into students intelligences and learning styles

- Use of technology in the classroom is valued and applied to a variety of learning situations

- Motivated and inspired teachers work collaboratively with others for common purposes

A fifth question asked: What advice would you give to other teachers, beginning or experienced about how to stay motivated/inspired and connected to teaching, to family and profession?

- Teaching requires high energy and acting performance; be open to always learning and sharing information; Students can tell if you are fair and sincere.

- Remember the saying, "Children don't care how much you know, but how much you care." We can make or break a child's spirit. It is important to love what you are doing each day; Come prepared to teach, love what you are teaching, and expect that what you do and say each day will make the life of a child better.

A sixth question asked: What are the changes that you make in your life, attitude, ongoing practices, and relationship with others in your school community that help you adjust and continue to be motivated and inspired daily?

- Work in a collaborative environment; I just focus on my students who are the center of what I do... I ignore everything else; continuous learning

- I accept constant change from the administration; Planning with teachers helps me grow professionally; My students come as they are which I accept as individuals.

A seventh question asked: Rate yourself according to being motivated and inspired on a scale of 1-10 where 10 is the highest score.

Response Range:

- 7—9 Veteran teachers

- 7-8 Intern teachers

Recommendations

It is important to note that no one teacher recognized as motivated and inspired, possess all of the characteristics, beliefs, and levels of motivation and inspiration. This research strives to show that varying levels of motivation and inspiration work successfully for those teachers who have an intrinsic feeling about who they want to be in the teaching profession.

An important point to be made from both veteran teachers and interns is that motivation and inspiration can be fostered through a change of attitudes, beliefs, practices, and outlook. Valuing the changing landscape of our educational system includes the diversity of populations of students, the specific needs of these various groups of students, the needed skills and working relationships demanded by an ever changing world, the impact of technology on the lives of both students and teachers, and the extent to which teacher empowerment is provided in the school setting and in the community.

For veteran teachers, research (Kajitani, 2009) stipulates that high-quality professional development where teachers have a role in organizing how to handle problems dealing with good teaching practices, dealing with students' individual needs, building good relationships between teachers, students, parents and the community. Teachers need empowerment and sharing of leadership with school administrators in order to feel satisfaction and accomplishment in who they are and in what they are doing. Teachers need ideas, practices, and resources in order to help students with their social-emotional issues through

activities that help them build good mental health attitudes and the will to feel connected to peers and others in the school and the community. Young students do feel overwhelmed and separated from others which causes them to turn to drug abuse, negative attitudes, violence, and suicide. If teachers are provided with the skills and support they need, they can help these students lead happy lives.

For new teachers, the research (Harvard Derek BOK Center for teaching and Learning) shows that they become overwhelmed with classroom management and discipline issues, not having enough experience with instructional demands, the general demands of the teaching profession and the everchanging societal changes, and the significant amount of personal and family time they have to dedicate to their teaching responsibilities. To help out these teachers, schools need to provide high-quality professional development dealing with the common core standards, the needs of all students (including special needs, ELL, and struggling students. Helping all students equitably should be highly supported to make sure that students develop strong social-emotional skills to help them overcome different obstacles in school and out of school.

A quote from a well-known author, John Steinbeck:

If you are very lucky, you may find a teacher. Three real teachers in a lifetime is the very best of luck. My three had these things in common:

(1)They all loved what they were doing. (2)They did not tell - they catalyzed a burning desire to know. (3)Under their influence, the horizons sprung wide and fear went away and the unknown became knowable.

I have come to believe that a great teacher is a great artist... that there are as few as there are any other great artists.

Teaching might even be the greatest of the arts since the medium is the human mind and spirit.

John Steinbeck (1902-1968)

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Unpacking Culturally Responsive Instruction through the Lens of a Delphi Study

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Introduction

Navigating the complexities of culturally diverse people and places in traditionally homogenous environments often require methodical processes that strive to appropriately unpack, debunk, and inform. The Delphi method is a systematic approach that is used to construct a deeper understanding of essential concepts as per the input of experts (Skulmoski, Hartman, & Krahn, 2007). This paper explains the development and application of a Delphi method applied to the field of multicultural educational research. This particular Delphi study was conducted at a Midwestern University by national and international multicultural education experts to develop a framework for addressing instructional standards and cultural competencies that are applicable in a variety of educational settings. The purpose of the research study was to provide a useable framework for informing & equipping educators to effectively navigate culturally diverse learning environments. The details of the process, outcomes, and conclusions are discussed.

Across designed, open and closed structures, identified experts were asked to participate in a research study to develop tangible, culturally competent actions or behaviors that teachers can demonstrate before/planning, during/implementation, and after instruction. The objectives were to: (1) collect anonymous expert opinions; (2) deliver interactions through the researcher; (3) optimize the number of rounds; (4) provide feedback of the results; and (5) give experts the opportunity to revise their opinions. The iterative nature of the Delphi method was established as the most appropriate process to research priorities within a multicultural-based community (Kurubacak, 2011; Sprott, 2014); furthermore, due to limitations of location, resources, and time, the Delphi method was particularly effective in this study for reaching experts and generating a convergence of feedback.

Background of the Study

Despite decades of empirical research in the field of education, culturally relevant instruction remains limited regarding the design, implementation, and assessment of lesson planning (Diaz-Rico, 2017; Gay 2013; Ladson-Billings, 2001). Studies show that culturally responsive instruction optimistically impacts the school culture as well as student academic achievement and motivation (Gay, 2010; Thompson, 2010). Scholars in the field of education have underscored effective instruction by signifying culturally competent instruction (Gay, 2010) that reverses the underachievement of diverse populations (Ladson-Billings, 2001) and alters the school setting. It is crucial that educators work efficiently with various types of diversity (Banks & Banks, 2010; Gay, 2000; Thompson, 2010; Sprott & Msengi, 2019) to ensure that all students obtain the rigorous and transformative education they need to graduate career- and college-ready (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2019). In today's global classroom, it is imperative that educators recognize and capitalize on cultural diversity through culturally responsive teaching. According to Gay (2013), culturally responsive teachers accept and value cultural diversity, accommodate different patterns of cultural interaction, and build on students' cultural backgrounds.

Professional educational organizations—for example, Interstate New Teacher Assessment Support Consortium (CCSSO, 2019) and the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (What Works, 2018)—incorporate standards that emphasize culturally responsive instruction. Furthermore, culturally

responsive teaching suggests a social justice viewpoint and confronts expectations of the status quo (Gay, 2010; Nieto, 2000). Previous studies which incorporate students' culture and instruction are centered on the idea that mainstream accommodations are necessary for success in the educational setting (Diaz-Rico, 2017). Students bring with them a diverse set of beliefs and values or "funds of knowledge" (Gonzalez, Moll & Amanti, 2005) from their cultures, homes, and neighborhoods that may complement or clash with the school culture. According to Sleeter (2017), culturally responsive practices promote a social justice perspective through a focus on valuing and celebrating that diversity. Failure to include this critical element in instructional practices potentially ignores perspectives that are essential for effective teaching and learning.

This study's foundation was based on the establishment of culturally responsive teaching as a critical priority. Researchers across the United States inaugurated this scholarship (Banks, 2010, Gay, 2013, Sprott, 2014). Herein, experts representing a variety of colleges, universities, and other educational institutions validated the need to examine aspects of cultural competence and cultural responsiveness in education while employing lesson plan development. Investigators included policymakers, researchers, teacher educators, consultants, and university professors with different levels of education, educational biographies, learning settings, and access to programs and strategies for the successful development of cultural competence. The results will be used to draw recommendations for educational policy and practice. The researcher will utilize the results to facilitate internal exchange of ideas and experience and training opportunities for pre-service educators, in-service teachers, and college professors to advise them in developing a sustainable strategy for data management for lesson plans and future development of the research field.

In light of this research, the long-term goal is to foster cultural competence in and for education, so implementing a Delphi study provides a window into the most pressing research priorities in the field. The researcher, having an established role in research on cultural competence education, has access and exposure to the breadth of current research activities and pool of experts. Furthermore, the specific task of assisting in the development of the research field has been validated by national and international researchers. The researcher was, therefore, well-positioned to undertake such a Delphi study, which posed the following questions to expert participants:

1. What cross-cultural competencies should be prioritized in the field of Multicultural Education nationally and internationally?
2. What cultural competencies influence lessons development in the classroom?

Methodology

The Delphi process is an investigation method for examining and developing consensus on a topic where specific evidence is deficient. It involves cultivating information from experts to try to accomplish a convergence of views through a succession of organized rounds of reflection (Skulmoski et al., 2007). According to Fischer (1978), this technique is most appropriately used for developing significance and panel analysis (Luo & Wildemuth, 2009), but is also appropriate when attempting to resolve issues. Delphi studies are considered suitable for examining questions that can profit from the subjective input of a group of highly skilled experts (Luo & Wildemuth, 2009).

In this study, the anonymity of Delphi contributors facilitated free expression of thoughts and beliefs without undue communal pressure (Rowe & Wright, 1999). Each phase allowed the participants to refine their positions in dealing with complex issues (Linstone & Turoff, 1975). The researcher provided precise responses to inform the participants of other panelist viewpoints and to offer panel experts opportunities to refine or modify their views. Quantitative examination and interpretation of data were presented in the final round. The Delphi method lent itself predominantly to analytical theory construction (Alake-Tuenter, Biemans, Tobi & Mulder, 2013) where conclusive information was lacking or pending forthcoming developments.

The Delphi research method (Linstone & Turoff, 1975; Rowe & Wright, 1999) is common in other fields of study but limited in the field of education. This scholarship was designed to develop, classify, predict, authenticate, and validate a wide variety of research areas. Typically, a three-round study confirms saturation on agreed information. Sample sizes vary from 4 to 171 "experts" (Skulmoski et al.,

2007). There is no “typical” Delphi; rather, the method is adapted to suit the conditions and investigation. Manizade and Mason (2010) employed the Delphi method to design assessments of teachers’ pedagogical content knowledge in mathematics education. They explained that professionally situated knowledge is lacking in the field of mathematics; therefore, using a three-round Delphi provided an in-depth view of the construction of a tool for assessing one area of middle school geometry and measurement with regards to teachers’ pedagogical content knowledge.

Experts

The panelists were selected using several criteria: professional experience, contributions to the field, publications, and willingness to serve. Panelists represented different expert groups: policymakers, researchers, teacher educators, implementation consultants, and university professors in the field of multicultural education. These experts shared an interest in Standards and a relationship to cultural competencies in education. Experts reflected heterogeneity in knowledge and opinions (Delbeq Van de Ven & Gustafson, 1975). Members were considered experts if they had a doctorate degree, a minimum of ten years of experience, and contributions to the field of education through publications. Employing purposive sampling (Creswell, 2013), experts were recruited by personal invitation from the researcher via phone calls and emails. Using email, the following information was presented to the panel of experts:

“The purpose of this study is to develop a total of five Culturally Competent Practices for teachers to consider before/planning, during/implementation, and after/assessments instruction through a Delphi process. The methodology includes several rounds of prioritizing and identifying five competencies/practices that are essential for teachers to infuse cultural knowledge. Each practice selected should include three tangible teacher actions or behaviors. Enclosed are three different documents “Essential Elements”, “Cultural Competence Standards for Social Workers” and an excerpt from the “Alaska Standards for Responsive Schools”. A total of five practices from the three documents should be chosen as your priority. As stated before, each practice selected should include three tangible actions or behaviors teacher can demonstrate.

1. The quality of instruction for culturally and linguistically diverse learners.
2. Offer exemplary lesson plan models to inform instructional planning and practice.
3. Ensure teachers are exposed to a variety of plans to accommodate individual learning styles and cultural knowledge.

In our extensive search for examples, we have not found any online lessons plans that include cultural competencies and your expertise would ensure the most significant practices are identified for this process. Thank you very much for your assistance in this endeavor.”

Twenty-five experts were invited; thirteen accepted the offer to participate and consented via email or phone. During the data collection of the first round, the researcher reviewed the list of experts and noticed the omission of certain demographic groups; examples of omitted classifiers were learners with exceptional and LGBTQ community. Following this consideration, four additional experts were approached. Two of these agreed to participate in the study, and their participation brought the total number of participants to 15 expert panelists. In the third round, one expert declined to respond and was replaced with a professional of similar demographic, stabilizing the number of experts.

The process, purpose, and design of the research study, as well as the expected number of rounds and the anticipated time commitment, were communicated in advance. Each expert solicited several questions about the study, and the researcher responded with appropriate information. The rigor of both qualitative (Creswell, 1998) and quantitative (Fowler, 1993) research was communicated to panelists.

Of the 25 experts approached, 15 (56%) responded throughout the duration of the study. Overall, in most Delphi studies, participation declines over time (Alake-Tuenter et al., 2013); however, in this study, participation remained consistent due to the replacement of one expert. The number required to constitute a representative pooling of judgments and the information summarizing the capability of the researcher can determine the number of respondents. Possible attrition must be considered as well. For the purpose of this study, the researcher chose 15 participants based on the expert criteria.

As the panelists in a project using Delphi methodology are generally chosen based on their expertise and difference in their perspectives (Manizade & Mason, 2010), the experts were selected from the following four categories: (1) Multicultural Education research experts, (2) Multicultural public-school experts, (3) Multicultural Education leader experts, and (4) diverse demographics of Multicultural Educators. The sample of experts included the following groups:

1. Fifteen research experts with multiple research publications in Multicultural Education were instituted in this Delphi method. All fifteen of the researchers were actively involved in research projects related to teaching and learning in the field of Multicultural Education and showed expertise in analyzing and interpreting qualitative or quantitative research. Nine experts had published five or more books used for in-service and preservice education. Also, ten of the fifteen researchers were university professors teaching undergraduate and graduate courses. All fifteen were actively involved in conducting research on issues related to educational equity.

2. The Multicultural Education experts were university faculty and /or public-school educators engaged in developing courses and/or teaching. Fourteen taught preservice and in-service for elementary and middle schools across the country, and ten experts had at least 15 years of teaching experience at different universities. Seven of the experts were nationally known and had a record of research publication on teaching and learning in the field of Multicultural Education.

3. Six of the fifteen experts were current or previous regional Equity Assistant Center (EAC) directors with more than 20 years of teaching experience at the university and school level. EACs are funded by the U.S. Department of Education under Title IV of the 1964 Civil Rights Act. These experts had experience and expertise in raising education and awareness around the areas of race, gender, and national origin equity to public schools promoting equal educational opportunities. The five experts represented 26 states and over 8,000 school districts. The international and nationally known experts represented the United States, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, and several other countries.

4. Fifteen of the experts were diverse Multicultural Educators with multiple perspectives. Six African Americans and five Whites were represented in the study as well as two Hispanics, one Asian, and one Native American. Diverse geographical locations were considered due to the needs of schooling for 21st-century college and career readiness. Disability and the Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Queer/Questioning (LGBTQ) demographic were also represented.

Data Collection

In order to structure the Delphi in this study, an extensive review of literature, books, articles and research reports were exhausted in relationship to cultural competencies. The authors of *Culturally Proficient Leadership: A Personal Journey* (Terrell & Lindsey, 2009), the *National Association for Social Workers: Indicators for the Achievement of the NASW Standards for Cultural Competence in Social Work Practices* (NASW, 2007) and *Alaska Standards for Culturally Responsive Schools: Cultural Standards for Students, Educators Schools Curriculum and Communities* (ANKN, 1998) provided permission to employ their work for the study. Professional organizations provided written consent, while the final literature was accessed from the What Works Clearinghouse established by the U.S. Department of Education.

Data were collected through interviews, phone calls, emails, and online surveys. Three rounds of data were gathered. Data from each round was aggregated and interpreted to analyze the relationship between standards, academic benchmarks, and cultural competencies in mathematics and language arts.

The first Delphi round of the study yielded a list of 20 cultural competencies from the literature as mentioned earlier. Descriptive, open-ended responses describing teacher actions were solicited to collect opinions. A frequency distribution was employed to tally responses, narrowed the focus and identified vital competencies. Results from experts of round one revealed that 9 out of 20 cultural competencies were supported by the existing literature. Within each competency, the panel of experts generated three or more actions.

The open design of this survey round served to produce an extensive range of ideas concerning research in culturally competent tangible actions. Results from round one were interpreted and entered into an online survey.

In round two, data were presented online in two sections of a survey. In part one of the survey, panelists ranked 182 teacher actions collected from the first round from highest to lowest. In part two of the survey, on a four-point Likert scale, experts rated teacher actions from extremely important to unimportant.

The final and third round of data was formulated through the lens of grounded theory without a preconceived theoretical framework. Open coding was employed to organize the data in general themes. After interpreting the data; skills, funds of knowledge and resources of teacher's actions are evidence of culturally competent practices. The general themes were reexamined for patterns and the relationship between these categories to ensure consistency.

Qualitative data. N-Vivo 10 analysis software was applied to validate the data by conducting queries. For instance, two subthemes that emerged from the reconsideration of data supporting the skills regarding self-awareness were (a) critical reflection and (b) self-examination. The experts noted or generated their viewpoints about the identified themes and finalized their views based on consideration of all panel members' views. Throughout the study, results were verified, reviewed, and confirmed by the researcher and the national and international Multicultural Education panelists.

Results

The Delphi investigation resulted in five Culturally Competent Practices (C4) for descriptive concrete practices that demonstrate cross-cultural consideration in lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation. In order to foster desired shifts in instruction, each practice was viewed through the lenses of skills, funds of knowledge, and resources. The five Culturally Competent Practices studied here were self-awareness, cross-cultural skills, recognition of potential, cross-cultural knowledge, and valuing diversity (Sprott, 2014).

Educators demonstrate self-awareness. Self-awareness begins with accepting one's own culture while connecting effectively with people of diverse educational backgrounds (Robins, Lindsey, Lindsey, & Terrell, 2006; Gay, 2010). Critical tenets of self-awareness are self-reflection and critical thinking. Davis validates the importance: "One must look inside oneself and learn about one's own cultural lens and be willing to acknowledge bias and do an assessment of current equity skills, accepting one's own limitations and being willing to change" (personal communication, August 2, 2014). A self-aware individual is aware of her own beliefs and values and is willing to think critically about her actions.

Educators exhibit cross-cultural skills. Cross-cultural skills embody practices and techniques engaged to recognize and illustrate the role of culture in the instructional setting. They are new ways of thinking that reflect the integration of cultural differences promotes student engagement. Gay suggests that "cross cultural skills identify the most appropriate and familiar new technology in the classroom to introduce students to culturally expanding ways of thinking, behaving working and interacting" (personal communication, July 13, 2016). Educators engage these skills that enable students to transition from one cultural way of behaving to another to fit the demands of different settings, purposes, and interactions, such as communicative code shifting, negotiating different forms of marginality, and modifying relationship styles depending on diversity of the participants.

Educators recognize the full potential of each student and provide challenges necessary for them to achieve that potential. A relevant and rigorous curriculum is identified to accommodate the gaps of educational growth. Understanding of the background and situational conditions (i. e. military, ethnic) about the student's history serves as a stage for moving beyond the surface levels (Gonzalez et al., 2005). Furthermore, G. Howard explains, "teachers should implement a curriculum that assumes and expect the highest level of engagement and thinking from students" (personal communication, July 21, 2014) in recognizing the full potential of each student. Educators respond with organic techniques to find generative ways to understand the values and practices of families and cultures that are different from their own while engaging student assets in the classroom. Likewise, educators seek ways to link students' ethnic and racial identity with academic achievement, such as integrating intellectual knowledge from

students' ethnic communities into the curriculum, and seeking mentors' students can relate to, from their own ethnic or racial background.

Educators demonstrate cross-cultural knowledge. Educators build and access the history, culture, relevance, backgrounds of students, families, and community while scaffolding to each student's strength. Although uncomfortable, analyzing one's own cross-cultural history to promote a productive learning environment is essential in this tenet. For example, teachers seek out and attend local community events that serve as opportunities to learn about the history, culture, arts, etc. of local cultural groups, especially those of student groups the teacher is serving. Following that further, C. Sleeter recommends "that the teacher spends time researching content knowledge related to the curriculum, produced by and about at least one historically marginalized group, to integrate into the curriculum" (personal communication, July 7, 2013). This complex process requires teachers to construct a broad base of knowledge that shifts as students, contexts, and subject matters change.

Educators illustrate valuing diversity. Valuing diversity is defined as commemorating differences as contributing to the value of the environment (Terrell & Lindsey, 2009). One panelist indicated, "Culturally responsive teaching is when relationships are at the core of everything a teacher does." Another implied, "valuing students and creating relationships is the currency of classroom." Educators demonstrate the capacity of inclusiveness to formal and informal decision making as cultural brokers. Valuing students creates a productive classroom climate that promotes student engagement and validates resources of the learning community.

Teachers' ability to value, esteem, welcome and honor students' backgrounds candidly relates to meeting the need for diverse learners (Sprott, 2009). In the same way, students' homes and neighborhoods in relation to student diversity promote heterogeneity in the educational setting and are used to distinguish relevant curriculum.

Conclusion

Through expert consultation, the Delphi approach can determine the present and future needs of a given profession (Fischer, 1978). The practical significance of this Delphi relates to the teacher who needs to work effectively with all students. Teachers who explore Culturally Competent Practices are more competent in general and better-equipped to meet the needs of diverse students from various backgrounds. This work thereby has further significance for teacher education programs. The information gathered can assist in preparing prospective teachers as culturally culture brokers. If teacher preparation programs are to succeed in producing quality teachers into today's global complex classroom, the inclusion of Culturally Competent Practices is critical.

While this Delphi study has been conducted in North American education research, the researcher and expert panelists contend this method is a globally relevant process. This education scholarship can be applied within any interdisciplinary field and any country. Divergent research traditions throughout multiple countries will indisputably create significant cross-cultural comparisons that would critically enhance the body of knowledge that presently exists on the Delphi method and its methodology.

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Further Polarization on the Internet: Results from the 2016 Election

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In the last decade and a half, Internet use has increased among almost all Americans. Not only has adoption increased in the aggregate, almost all the ways we typically group Americans show increased Internet use across the board. Interestingly, groups that were once behind in Internet access and use like age 65 and older, or households making less than \$30k, have shown the largest rates of growth since 2000; 14-58% and 34-74%, respectively (Perrin and Duncan 2015).

The concept of accidental information, much like with television news (see Keeter and Wilson, 1986; Zukin and Snyder, 1984), is still alive in early research concerning the Internet. Tewksbury, Weaver, and Maddex (2001) develop the theory that much like television viewers might accidentally see a snippet of a news program and retain the information, early Internet users had homepage “portals” which provided a front-page type experience that often-included news. Others test the effects of Internet access (and self-reported viewing of election information online) on political efficacy and participation. In the end, the results for all three traits might be able to “ease the concerns of cyber-pessimists who feared the Internet would have a negative effect” on these politically relevant variables (Kenski and Stroud, 2006).

Initially, these findings in political science and communication literature were largely categorized as the “digital divide.” Findings focused on the differences in knowledge (both political and otherwise) brought about by simple access to the Internet or lack thereof (Bucy, 2000; Jung, Qiu, and Kim, 2001). In these studies, the main independent variable was almost always a dichotomous Internet access variable. Early surveys that asked about the Internet were geared toward gauging which demographic groups were on the Internet (Katz and Rice, 2002; Wei and Hindman, 2011) rather than what exactly they were doing there.

Strong associations are also found between those with higher education and seeking political information online and conclude that those with higher education are the most likely to use the Internet for capital enhancing activities like gaining political knowledge (Hargittai and Hinnant, 2008).

Further, the underlying infrastructure of the Internet as an obstacle to equitable political participation and engagement, including political learning regarding candidates. Coining the term “Googlearchy,” Hindman (2008) discusses the way Internet users are, in essence, forced to move through a particular set of websites based on search results. In addition, those that consult a wide range of political news sources tend to have higher political knowledge than those that employ only a few sources of news (Oxley, 2012).

Still, an ever-changing medium suggests ever changing effects. As a case in point, Morris and Morris (2013) find evidence that in the 2012 Presidential election Internet access and use tend to close the knowledge and participation gaps among those of low and high socioeconomic status (SES). They show that those of high SES use the Internet for recreational and social uses, but those of lower SES are able to make greater gains in political knowledge and political participation with increased Internet access and use. After years of dismissal, these findings suggest a model of “incidental by-product” for political learning may again be taking hold, at least in some groups within the American electorate.

Few in the social sciences would debate that political elites in the United States are more polarized than ever (Jacobson, 2003; Fiorina, Abrams, and Pope, 2005). More debate, however, arises in discussing whether or not the American public mirrors the elite polarization. Some argue that the public has polarized along ideological (Jacobson, 2003; Abramowitz and Saunders, 2006) and partisan lines (Prior 2007; Iyengar, Sood, and Lelkes, 2012) with causes such as religion (Dionne, 2006) and income inequality (McCarty, Poole, and Rosenthal, 2003).

Others argue against polarization in the public (Fiorina et al., 2005) and more for a sorting of the public (Hetherington, 2001; Layman and Carsey, 2002; Levendusky, 2009) with the help of the media (Mutz 2006). Despite literature debates on polarization vs. sorting, most of the literature agrees the media has a hand in the changes (For further discussion on mass political polarization and traditional media see: Prior (2013)). Recent literature shows while most mainstream media choices are largely centrist, other less widely circulated sources are more likely to, “offer more ideologically extreme packages of news and opinions” (Prior, 2013). One reason for this may be an attempt by the media to tap into the “agenda” of the public in order to generate page views or clicks, often the way advertisers determine ad-buys online (Bright and Nicholls, 2014).

2016 Election Theory & Hypotheses

The 2016 American Presidential election was one of many surprises. While the campaign, particularly for the Republican nomination, began in earnest soon after the 2012 general election, few could have predicted how it might end in November of 2016. The election saw a crowded Republican nominee field whittled from an initial 20+ candidates (needing two stages in early televised Republican debates) to a final nominee, businessman Donald Trump, with no prior political experience. For the Democrats, the 2016 election cycle was a series of increasing setbacks for Former First Lady and Secretary of State Hillary Clinton, with the rise of democratic-socialist Bernie Sanders and leaks from the emails of Campaign Chairman John Podesta. In the end, despite consensus that the race was Clinton’s to lose, Trump won the Electoral College, securing the American Presidency.

While the Internet has played a part in past elections, it became an integral part of the 2016 election. Both major candidates used the Internet to reach out to voters through tweets, Facebook posts, and even viral videos. In an article for Politico.com, Andrew Keen (2016) wrote, “But the main reason why 2016 is the first real Internet election is that the presumptive nominee of one of the two major parties, Trump, is the first real Internet candidate. I’m not sure if he gets the Internet; but it definitely gets him.”

Usage of the Internet has grown since 2012 (Perrin and Duncan, 2015), and we know Internet usage for political information spikes during politically motivating events like presidential elections. More than any other medium, the Internet allows for consumers to select into and out of coverage they like, dislike, agree, or disagree with. These options, seen through anecdotal evidence and covered in the literature review above, lay the groundwork for the 2016 election to be greatly polarized by Internet use. If Internet use is increasing, and availability of polarized Internet content is increasing, it is probable that the polarizing effect is compounded.

While ideological polarization is found to be partially driven by media consumption, including Internet use, it is likely that affective polarization, the way voters feel about politicians and parties, is being driven by Internet use as well. Ideological polarization tends to happen only when the consumer can understand and digest the media message. Affective polarization, on the other hand, is a gut reaction or feeling about a group or individual. Consumers do not need to completely read or comprehend the media message for affective polarization to happen, the simply need to receive the message and file it away as a positive or negative message about the subject.

The Internet is known to be a place where all outlets do not adhere to journalistic standards of verifiable or sourced information. Indeed, completely unverifiable “fake news” is a topic of discussion and concern based on the role it played in the 2016 presidential contest. In an election where the Internet takes center stage, consumers are expected to avoid news stories or posts that go against their preconceived notions (i.e. cognitive dissonance) and seek out messages that reinforce, and perhaps strengthen, their prior assumptions, ideas, and even personal feelings about parties or candidates.

With the assumption that Internet use is increasing, and candidates are making active use of their Internet presence alongside the polarized nature of Internet news sources, we hypothesize that: **(H1) In the 2016 election, individuals using the Internet more will be more likely to be affectively polarized than individuals using the Internet less or not at all.**

2016 Data & Methods

The data used in this study comes from the 2016 American National Election Study Parallel Survey developed and paid for through the continuing Cooperative Congressional Election Study.

Produced online by YouGov, the dataset includes “1643 respondents who were then matched down to a sample of 1000 to produce the final dataset” (Schaffner & Ansolabehere, 2017). Respondents were asked a battery of questions representing the “core” of the ANES questionnaires in a two-wave survey, one before and one after the election. Regrettably, not all 1,000 respondents were asked or gave answers to the items included in the models below. About 350 respondents were excluded from the analysis. Still, sample weights are provided in the dataset and utilized in the analysis where appropriate.

Affective polarization, the way Americans feelings about candidates, politicians, or parties are moving towards opposite ends of the positive-negative spectrum is measured in this study through survey items employing Feeling Thermometers. YouGov provided the following instructions to respondents:

“We would like to get your feelings toward some of our political leaders and other people who are in the news these days. We will show the name of a person and we'd like you to rate that person using something we call the feeling thermometer. Ratings between 50 degrees and 100 degrees mean that you feel favorable and warm toward the person. Ratings between 0 degrees and 50 degrees mean that you don't feel favorable toward the person and that you don't care too much for that person. You would rate the person at the 50-degree mark if you don't feel particularly warm or cold toward the person.”

Using these feeling thermometer ratings, we construct a measure of affective polarization by using the difference between the two corresponding individuals or parties. The larger the difference between an individual's ratings the more polarized they are assumed to be on their feelings about the candidate or party. Respondents are asked to rate the Democratic Candidate for President, Hillary Clinton, and the Republican Candidate for President, Donald Trump. Respondents are also asked to rate the Democratic and Republican Parties. These two sets of feeling thermometer ratings make our two measures of affective political polarization, Candidate Polarization and Party Polarization, by taking the absolute value of the Democratic Candidate or Party rating subtracted by the Republican Candidate or Party. These measures of polarization serve as our dependent variables. Table 1 reports the means for each measure of affective polarization as well as the standard errors.

Respondents were also asked about their media consumption habits in relation to the 2016 Presidential Election. Our main independent variable, Internet use, comes from the item: “How many times did you read, watch, or listen to any information about the campaign for President on the Internet?” Respondents were given the options: None; Just one or two; Several; or A good many. We are particularly pleased with the inclusion of this and other media items due to the phrase “about the campaign” which, in theory, reduces the number of respondents answering about Internet use unrelated to the campaign. Figure 1 shows an unweighted histogram of the responses to the Internet use item.

Respondents answered further items about media use, specifically radio, newspaper, and television, in a similar manner to the Internet item with the same selection of responses. These are included in the model as control variables to isolate the effect of Internet use while acknowledging that voters still receive information, and perhaps affective polarization, from these other media types.

Further control variables are provided by the YouGov demographics battery completed by all survey participants. Respondent education is broken into six categories: no high school diploma (15% of sample, weighted), high school diploma (29%), some college (23%), 2-year college degree (8%), four-year college degree (16%), and post-graduate education (9%). Age is determined by subtracting the respondents reported year of birth from 2016. All respondents fall between 18-years-old and 93-years-old, with an average age of 46. The sample is 48.4% male.

Respondents were asked to categorize themselves into racial or ethnic groups: White (67%), Black or African American (12%), Hispanic or Latino (14%), or Other (includes Asian or Asian-American, Native American, Middle Eastern, or Mixed Race) (7%). In the analysis below, the White category is used as the comparison baseline.

Respondents also categorized themselves into one of 16 family income categories between 1 (Less than \$10,000) and 16 (\$500,000 or more) with a median income group of 5 (\$40,000 - \$49,999).

Finally, respondents were asked their party identification with the item, “Generally speaking, do

you think of yourself as a ...?” with Democrat (36%), Republican (25%), Independent (27%), Other, or Not Sure as answer choices. In this analysis, Other and Not Sure are coded together (12%) and Independents are used as the baseline for comparison.

Linear regression models are used to determine coefficients for the independent and control variables. STATA 15's *margins* command is then used to determine the marginal effects on each increase of Internet use on each measure polarization within the models.

2016 ANES Pilot Study Results & Discussion

In viewing the results of the linear regressions in Table 2, we see that for both measures of affective polarization, increasing Internet use seems to drive polarization. The positive and statistically significant coefficients tell us that as we increase Internet use, we are likely to see increased levels of polarization even when controlling for other media use and demographic variables.

The polarizing effect of the Internet seems to be greater for candidate-centered polarization than party-centered polarization. This echoes the means reported in Table 1 where more polarization is seen for the 2016 Candidates than the parties themselves. This could be an artifact of the highly contentious 2016 Presidential election and the coverage (both on and off the Internet) that surrounded the candidates as individuals and one, Donald Trump, as a party outsider. Respondents may not have exhibited as much affective polarization for the parties as they did for the candidates because they saw one as not representative of the party itself.

Further viewing of Table 2's results shows significant polarizing effects for television use. In fact, for both types of polarization we see slightly larger polarization coefficients. Coefficients for radio and newspaper use are not significant at the $p < 0.05$ levels, though it is interesting that the sign for increased newspaper use seems to be a negative predictor of polarization.

Education, gender, and income are not shown to affect candidate- or party-centered polarization, though age does have a positive and statistically significant coefficient for both types of polarization. For each year older, respondents are likely to increase their candidate polarization by almost a third of a point and party polarization by about a sixth of a point. This would lead us to believe that an 80-year-old would be over 20-points more polarized about the candidates than an 18-year-old, just because of their age with all other things being equal. This could be due to opinions and feelings about parties or candidates solidifying over time. A voter may have “always” loved or hated Republicans or Democrats, and they find themselves only doing more of this as time goes by.

In viewing the categorical control variables, we see both Democrats and Republicans as being significantly more polarized than Independents while the Other/Not Sure voters seem to be no different from Independents for candidate polarization but less polarized for the parties.

Finally, we look at the race group control variables and see Black or African Americans more likely to show polarization than our White baseline group for the party, but no statistically significant difference for the candidate polarization. Interestingly, we also see our Other racial group as less likely to be polarized on parties than our baseline group though this may be due to the small subpopulation in the sample.

As a graphical representation of Table 2's output, Figures 2 and 3 show plots of the marginal effects of Internet use on candidate and party polarization with 95% confidence intervals of the predicted values. Figure 2 shows the linear prediction of a respondent's polarization as Internet use is increased. While each value of the Internet variable and its subsequent steps up or down are overlapped by each other, the two outer values, “None” and “A good many” uses of the Internet for campaign information do not overlap. This suggests a statistically significant increase in predicted polarization when individuals change from no Internet use to “A good many” Internet uses.

Figure 3 is less demonstrative of the difference and with the area bars representing the 95% confidence intervals, we would assume it is possible there is no difference or very little difference in predicted party polarization as an individual increase their Internet use. Still, when we view the results from Table 2 and Figures 2 and 3, we are able to accept our hypothesis as true: we find evidence that in the 2016 election, individuals using the Internet more will be more likely to be affectively polarized than individuals using the Internet less or not at all.

Conclusion

This study endeavors to complement existing literature about how Internet usage may be increasing polarization in the American public. When analyzing a medium that has yet to reach peak saturation, each step can be as essential to overall understanding as the beginning and end.

Further, this paper focuses on the idea of affective polarization, rather than ideological polarization. As political and social science literature continues to untangle how voters' "feelings" about a party or candidate can affect their voting habits or behaviors, finding a new use for feeling thermometers may help to keep these items relevant in nationally representative surveys.

Increased Internet use seems to lead towards more polarization or at least a widening gap in how candidates or parties are viewed favorably and unfavorably. In the 2016 Presidential election, this effect seems to be more pronounced in assessments of the candidates than assessments of the parties, though this may be due to the uniqueness of the 2016 election's major party candidates.

As the analysis of the 2016 election continues, we wish to look further into the ways the Internet causes affective polarization. Comparisons across party identification, age groups, income groups, and political knowledge would certainly add to the literature. Increased Internet use is not the singular cause of polarization, as it is most certainly a multifaceted phenomenon. Another contributing factor to polarization is likely to be party identification. Those identifying as a partisan will show approval towards their party and its candidates while also exhibiting disapproval of the opposition party and its candidates. Party identifiers should already be somewhat polarized (more so than independents), and increased Internet use should exacerbate this effect.

Since its introduction to American life two decades ago, the Internet has been lauded as a great information equalizer, but also decried as a source of division and insulation. The analysis here leans towards the later, as evidence suggests that in the 2016 Presidential election, the availability of partisan selective exposure has led the public to a more and more polarized condition. Even so, Trump's victory, though his campaign's vast and effective use of the Internet, may be just a glimpse at how candidates can tap into the ways the Internet separates Americans, reinforces prior ideas, and prevents contradiction.

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Table 1: 2016 Polarization Measures

Variable	Mean	Std. Err.
Party Polarization	61.706	1.699
Candidate Polarization	42.605	1.532

Table 2: 2016 Polarization Results

	Candidate Polarization	Party Polarization
Internet Use	5.617***	3.506*
	(1.651)	(1.596)
Television Use	5.999***	3.948**
	(1.667)	(1.409)
Radio Use	0.812	-0.483
	(1.525)	(1.235)
Newspaper Use	-2.492	0.170
	(1.468)	(1.148)
Education	-0.720	1.490
	(1.079)	(0.909)
Age	0.312**	0.139*
	(0.101)	(0.067)
Gender (Female)	1.886	0.059
	(2.971)	(2.707)
Income	-0.894	-0.684
	(0.504)	(0.398)
Party (Independents)		
Democrats	13.831***	26.251***
	(4.113)	(3.248)
Republicans	12.989**	19.648***
	(4.264)	(3.219)
Other/Not Sure	-10.843	-7.442*
	(6.171)	(3.314)
Race (White)		
Black or African American	7.236	11.682*
	(5.133)	(4.866)
Hispanic or Latino	-8.083	-1.138
	(5.733)	(4.150)
Other	-4.181	-9.905*
	(7.219)	(5.024)
Constant	26.122***	5.393
	(7.004)	(5.709)
N	671	655
R-sq	0.226	0.284
* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001		

Figure 1:

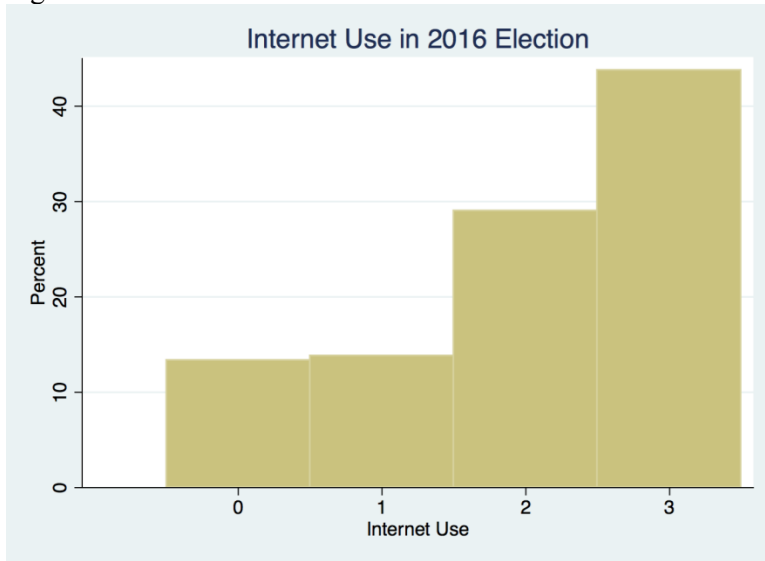


Figure 2:

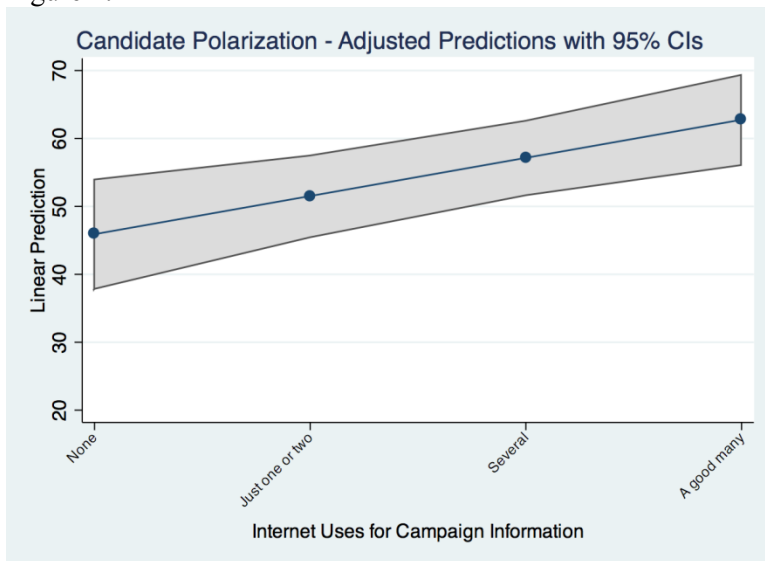
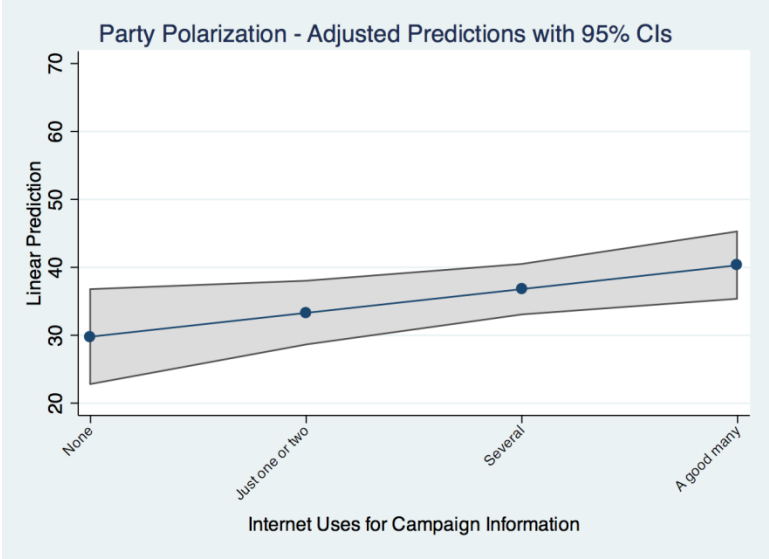


Figure 3:



T-Shirt Messages: A Reflection of Society?

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Abstract

This study purported to investigate t-shirt messages to determine if they reflect society, and if they do, what aspects of society they do reflect. The thesis of this study was that t-shirt messages are a reflection of all aspects of society. The research question that drove this study was, “Do t-shirt messages reflect society?” To answer this research question, data was collected in various parts of the United States of America. The data that was collected was analyzed using the analysis of text technique. The categories that emerged from the analysis of the t-shirt messages included places (cities, towns, states, countries), pop culture, family, sports, religion, education, politics, business advertising, self-statements/philosophical statements, economy, and miscellaneous. Based on the analysis of the data, it was found that t-shirt messages do reflect several aspects of society. Further study of this highly interesting topic was recommended.

Introduction

T-Shirt messages seem to reflect the goings on in society. According to garment historians, the origins of t-shirts date back to the late 19th century, when laborers would cut their jumpsuits in half to keep cool in warmer months, and the first t-shirt manufactured in the United States of America (US) was invented between the period of the Spanish-American War (1898) and 1913, when the US Navy began issuing them as standard undershirts (Real Thread, 2014). Messages were eventually printed on t-shirts by the 1940s (Bekhrad, 2018). Since then, t-shirts gradually evolved to one of the most popular items of clothing in the US and around the world to the extent that today, t-shirts and the messages they communicate seem to reflect society in general (Bekhrad, 2018).

Background to the Study

The author of this study has always been fascinated by t-shirt messages that she saw and read in her own country of origin, Ghana in West Africa, in the United States of America where she is currently residing, and in the many countries that she has travelled to. Having seen and read numerous t-shirt messages literally everywhere she travelled, the author was led to believe that the messages were tools that people used to communicate what was going on with them and thus what was going on in society. This thinking motivated the author of this study (henceforth referred to as the Investigator) to investigate t-shirt messages to find out if they did reflect what was going on with people and with society. Thus the topic, “T-Shirt messages: A reflection of society?” The following is the organization of the study: introduction, background to the study, literature review, data collection and data analysis procedures, findings and discussion of findings, summary of the study, conclusions, and recommendations for further study. In the next several sections, literature on the history of t-shirts will be reviewed, the data collection and analysis procedures will be described, the findings from the data analysis will be discussed, conclusions from the study will be drawn, and recommendations for further study of the topic will be made.

Disclaimers

The following are the disclaimers regarding this study: The researcher of this study collected only two hundred t-shirt messages in only three cities and regions of the United States of America. The findings are based only on the data collected and cannot be generalized. The t-shirt messages reflect several aspects of society, but not all aspects of society.

Literature Review

In this section, the history of t-shirts will be briefly described. It has been noted in the introduction that the origins of t-shirts date back to the 19th Century and the early 20th Century (Real Thread, 2014). The printing of messages on t-shirts began by the 1940s (Bekhrad, 2018). It was in 1920 that the term “t-shirt” was inducted into the English Dictionary as a noun to describe the undergarment that was worn first by soldiers in the US Navy in 1913, and by laborers who would cut their jumpsuits in half to keep cool in the summer months (Real Thread, 2014; Bekhrad, 2018). The term “t-shirt” was accepted into the English Dictionary after F. Scott Fitzgerald published the term in his novel titled, *This side of paradise*. T-shirts with messages on them began to be worn by the 1940s and was popularized by Republican Candidate Thomas E. Dewey with his campaign t-shirt slogan, “Dew it with Dewey” (Bekhrad, 2018).

The t-shirt, as an outerwear garment, and the messages written on it did not become popular until the 1950s when t-shirts were worn by the movie actors Marlon Brando in the movie “A streetcar named desire” and James Dean in the movie “Rebel without a cause”. From then on the t-shirt has been popularized and marketed by clothing companies and individuals such as Tropix Togs, Andy Warhol, Barbara Hulanicki, Vivienne Westwood, Malcolm Maclaren, Katherine Hamnett, and John Pasche (Asmara, 2009; Bekhrad, 2018; Real Thread, 2014; Cumming, Cunnington & Cunnington, 2010) to name a few. Today, t-shirts are so popular that they are sold and worn everywhere in the world. Through the years, t-shirts have been worn to communicate protest, rebellion, revolution, love, hate, racism, ethnocentrism, peace, joy, religious affiliations, faith, political affiliations, democracy, family affiliations, subversion, voice, beliefs, personal philosophies, AIDS awareness, breast cancer awareness, domestic violence awareness, women’s rights, feminism, climate change, etc. (Bekhrad, 2018). Some t-shirt connoisseurs such as Dennis Nothdruff, designer of the Dior t-shirt and Barbara Hulanicki, designer of the Biba t-shirt, believe that the t-shirt and the messages they carry will never go away, but will live on forever, especially since the messages are geared towards expressing societal and cultural norms and the t-shirts *per se* are ubiquitous (Asmara, 2009; Real Thread, 2019).

Data Collection and Data Analysis Procedures

The data collection and data analysis procedures employed in this study are the subject matter in this section. To answer the research question, “Are t-shirt messages a reflection of society?” the researcher employed purposeful sampling and decided to collect t-shirt messages in differing locations in three selected cities throughout the United States: one city in the Deep South, another city in the Southwest, and another city in the North. Purposeful sampling allows for a researcher to collect data that will purposefully answer the research question. T-shirt messages were collected from May 1, 2019 to September 30, 2019. The t-shirt messages were collected in Jackson, Mississippi where the investigator resides; in Houston, Texas where the investigator travels to often; and in Syracuse, New York where the investigator often travels to. These cities were also selected due to their varying geographical locations in the United States.

Within each of the cities the researcher intentionally selected varied locations where there were traffics of large numbers of people who were in those locations. The locations within the cities were Walmart, grocery stores, churches, airports, and college campuses. The researcher wrote down the messages on the t-shirts that people (henceforth referred to as T-Shirt Wearers) were wearing. The researcher did not speak to the T-Shirt Wearers except on two occasions when the messages on the t-shirts worn by one of the T-Shirt Wearers prompted the researcher to ask why he/she was wearing that t-shirt with that particular message. A total of two hundred t-shirt messages were collected.

The two hundred t-shirt messages were analyzed utilizing text analysis technique. The text analysis technique includes reading and interpreting textual information. It allows a researcher to read, interpret, and categorize textual information to develop themes that emerge from the data. Using this technique, the investigator of this study read, interpreted, and developed themes from the t-shirt messages that were collected. The themes that emerged from the data were places (cities, towns, states, and countries), pop culture, family, sports, religion, the economy, education, politics, business advertising, self-statements/personal philosophical statements, and miscellaneous messages. These themes that emerged

from the data, the findings from the data, and discussions of the findings will constitute the next section of this study.

Findings and Discussion of Findings

Analysis of the two hundred t-shirt messages yielded some very interesting findings. The findings are reported in this section and discussed. It has been noted in the previous section that several themes emerged from the analysis of data. The themes that emerged were pop culture, family, sports, religion, the economy, education, politics, business advertising, self-statements/personal philosophical statements, and miscellaneous messages. Each of the themes is described in detail while discussing the findings from the t-shirt messages.

Places (cities, towns, states, countries)

There is no society without cities, towns, states, and countries. Thus the t-shirt messages included the names of some of the cities, towns, and states in this country, and even included the names of cities, towns, and states in other countries. Examples of those messages were:

“Colorado”. “Fort Collins”. “Harvey Cedars Long Beach Island New Jersey”. “Niagara Falls Est [Established] 1885”. “Grand Canyon”. “Oshkosh since 1885”. “Big West”. “Roxy Surf California”. “Clear Water Beach Est [Established] 1897”. “Mississippi Est [Established] 1817”. “Miami South Beach USA”. “Cozumel Mexico”. “Natchez Mississippi”. “San Francisco”. “Hawaiian Islands”. “Tribeca. Soho. Union Station. New York City. London. Paris”. “Port of Spain”. “Trinidad and Tobago”. “Syracuse New York”. “Portland Oregon”. “Las Vegas”. “Grand Cayman. Cayman Islands Est [Established] 1503”. “Brooklyn 77”. “Buffalo”. “Honduras”. “Osaka, Japan”.

Pop Culture

It was learned from the t-shirt messages that pop culture is a strong aspect of society. The following t-shirt messages speak to the strength of pop culture in the United States of America.

“My lazy scary costume”. “Star Wars”. “Elvis Presley Live on Stage, February 16, 1956”. “The Show”. “Let’s get ready to stumble”. “Spring it on”. “Roots”. “Detective Pickachu”. “B Club”. “Hard Rock Café”. “Marvel”. “Fall Festival October”. “Panther Nation”. “Mississippi Alumni All Star Band”. “Broadway New York”. “Music Culture Fashion”.

Family

The family, as the primary social institution in any given society is the underpinning factor in all aspects of society. T-shirt messages such as the following are examples of the family being the basis of all social institutions and thus the basis of society. The t-shirt messages collected in this study seem to be also used by families to inform the public of who they are and what they are about.

“Smith family”. “It’s a family thing”. “Family vacation on”. “Savage Family Reunion”. “Cooper Family Reunion”. “Daddy’s girl”. “Williams Family Reunion”.

Sports

In the opinion of the researcher of this study, sports is one of the biggest, most important, and most valued aspect of American society. Many of the t-shirt messages collected were about high school, college, and professional sports teams and sports icons. Those t-shirt messages included the following:

“Callaway Chargers”. “Celtics”. “Dallas Cowboys”. “Jackson State Tigers”. “New Orleans Saints”. “Kansas City Chiefs”. “Bulls”. “JSU Track and Field”. “FHS Soccer Spring 2003”. “Boxing”. “All State Baseball League 22”. “NYC Varsity State Championship 1997 Varsity Squad”. “Go JSU Tigers”. “Baseball Hall of Fame”. “Syracuse Cardinals”. “Canyons Golf”. “JMU Football”. “Tougaloo Baseball”. “New Orleans Hornets”. “Alcorn State Braves”.

Religion

The t-shirt messages on religion spoke eloquently to the faith and belief in God that is obviously an integral part of American society. Some of the t-shirt messages were invitations to other believers to come and worship, while other t-shirt messages were pronouncements of faith and belief in God. Messages such as the following are examples.

“We are a Kingdom-minded Church of believers that is building the wall of faith. Come and worship with us.” “Let’s go up! Numbers 13: 30”. “Love God, love people, love life”.

“#LoveGodPeopleLife”. “Road to life 9”. “We know that an idol is nothing at all in the world and that there is no God but One”. “1 Corinthians 8: 14”. “One Way: There can only be One”. “International Christian Friendship Center Dedication Service August 1, 1998 Syracuse, New York”. BBYG 2010 Snowcamp. Taste and see. Psalm 34: 8”. “Hebrews BYG Snowcamp 2009”. “BBYG ’11 Snowcamp. More than another religion”. “Jehovah Nissi Day”. “No mountain high enough”. “Fun at camp”. “He left the 99 to rescue me”. “Jesus saved me”. “Servant Shepherd”. “True religion”. “Jesus is all amazing”. “Whoever believes shall have eternal life”. “Praise God from whom all blessings flow. Praise Him all creatures here below. Praise Him above ye Heavenly host. Praise Father, Son and Holy Ghost”. “We walk by faith, not by sight. Mount Galilee M. B. Church”. “ACF African Christian Fellowship South Region Conference 2018”.

Education

Education, which, to the researcher of this study, is the next most important social institution after the family, was very well represented in the t-shirt messages collected. Elementary schools, high schools, colleges and areas within these levels of education were represented in the t-shirt messages. Examples of such messages included:

“Teach”. “Student Conduct Leaders”. “Auburn University”. “Xavier Alumni Established 1856”. “The summa cum laude of bands Jackson State University Sonic Boom of the South. Get Ready”. “JSU First in the World Program”. “HBCU (Historically Black College and University)”. “JSU Sports Medicine”. “Call Me Mister. Jackson State University”. “JSU Dean of Students”. “School of Cosmetology at Delta Technical College”. “www.deltatechnicalcollege.com” “Smilow Prep Jackson”. “Special Field Day Jackson State”. “Roberts Wesleyan College”. “Ohio State”. “Belhaven University”. “A school walking in academic and spiritual excellence”. “Michigan State University”. “Ben Garner Freshman”. “09 Field Day Lake Elementary”. “Social Work Students Association”. “Willowood Development Center. Where there is a willow there is a way”. “Obama Magnet IB Elementary School, Jackson, Mississippi. #obamamagnet. #1 in the State”. “Thee I love my HBCU”. “Mississippi College”. “Canton High School”. “Syracuse University”.

Politics

T-shirts with messages about politics became a means of communicating to the general voting populace, and campaigning through t-shirts became more prominent during the primaries season in August. T-shirt messages that were collected in the season were:

“Vote Stamps”. “Vote Lee Vance for Sheriff 2019”. “Police”. “Beto for President”. “Vote for Shanda Yates House of Representatives District 4”. “Re-elect Senator Hillman Frazier. Vote with confidence August 6, 2019”. “Vote Crystal Wise Martin Chancery Clerk”.

Business Advertising and the Economy

Business advertising messages spoke to the importance of advertising to promote one’s business and the economy, a practice which is highly valued in American society. Some of the t-shirt messages in this category included websites and e-mail addresses where one could go to access more information about the business and/or purchase items from the business. The t-shirt messages included:

“Flowers by Will. Where making one’s day aren’t just words being spoken...It’s a commitment.” “Flowers by Will. 5111 S. Prentiss Street, Jackson, MS.” “flowersbywill2@gmail.com”. “Red Nose Day”. “Hilfiger”. “Yokohama Tires”. “Adidas”. “Tommy Hilfiger”. “Levis”. “Air Jordan”. “Sit means sit dog training”. “Reebok”. “CRC Engineering”. “Hard Rock Café”. “Tools Binford. When you need more power”. “Nike”. “Calvin Klein”. “Tommy Gear”. “Krystal”. “The Clarion Ledger”. “Cash only”. “Williams Equipment and Supplies”. “BLS Basic Living Service”. “American Eagle Outfitters 1977”. “Delicious and refreshing Coca Cola”. “Nike. Just do it”. “Young Money”. “Time to mine”. “Nissan”. “Fly Emirates”.

Self-Statements/Personal Philosophical Statements

The following t-shirt messages are evidence of self-statements/personal philosophical statements that point to the fact that individuals in society have their own statements to describe themselves, their observations about society, or their observations about life and about others. These self-statements/personal philosophical statements are also strong evidence of free speech and the freedom of expression cherished by all Americans. It is important to note here that many of the t-shirt messages collected, sixty of them, were self-statements/philosophical statements. A sample of the sixty t-shirt messages in this category were:

“An ounce of practice is worth more than a ton of preaching”. “Created and raised by a strong Black woman”. “Respect is earned not given”. “What boyfriend?” “Nobody freaking cares.” “Always dream big”. “Just being kind”. Jubilee. I’m free”. “The person wearing this t-shirt is...” “Everyone counts!” “Black is more than a color”. “Love”. “Dangerous but fun”. “Smart, awesome, and kind”. “Like mummy”. “Leave your feelings at home”. “This is how I roll”. “We can beat this together”. “Together we fight”. “RCKLSS”. “Leave this to the professionals”. “Finesse”. “Past, present, future: We’re building a future where our actions align with our values”. “Love and order”. “I’m the nicest asshole you’ll ever meet”. “I’m a super genius”. “Life is good. Keep it simple”. “Represent”. “Please cancel my subscription to your issues”. “Make it happen”. “Freedom’s call”. “Love pink”. “NAPA. Get back and give back”. “Reimagine”. “Make it happen your way”. “Royalty”. “Back in the day when I was young. I’m not a kid anymore. But these days I sit and wish I’m a kid again”. “Me to we. Get doing”. “Support. Empower”. “Let’s settle”. “This shirt isn’t for everybody”. “Seize every opportunity”. “Hands up! Don’t Shoot!” “I can’t breathe”. “Work hard. Play harder”. “Powerful Black Intelligent Beautiful Strong”. “Love with a happy heart”. “Be one of a kind. Beautiful”. “End disorder”. “Be you”.

Miscellaneous Messages

Miscellaneous messages are the t-shirt messages that did not fit into any of the above themes. The miscellaneous messages enhanced the truth about society that there are some aspects of society that do not necessarily fit into any category in society. The following are some of those t-shirt messages:

“Warning! Stay away!” “Pink”. “*Unde virtus* – And thus the power”. “Prince Hall Mason. Making good men better. Three degrees of light”. “MLK Day 2019”. “Don’t text and drive”. “Venom Lethal Protest”. “Won Der Ful”. “Taking steps to fight cancer”. “Become an aviator”. “Volunteer”. “NASA”. “Under Armour”. “Hitech”. “Melanin”. “Cover two”. “FENDI”. “SHIPT”. “Chi Sigma Iota”. “Tropical vibes only”. “Delta Sigma Theta”.

Summary

This study focused on investigating t-shirt messages to determine if they reflect society. The study was motivated by the researcher’s interest after seeing numerous interesting t-shirt messages in her travels in her country of origin, in the United States and in other parts of the world. To answer the research question, “Do t-shirt messages reflect society?” the researcher collected and analyzed two hundred t-shirt messages. The findings from the analysis of the t-shirt messages indicate that t-shirt messages do reflect several aspects of society. This finding concurs with the observations of Asmara, 2009 and Bekhrad, 2018. The aspects of society that were reflected from the t-shirt messages collected in this study were places, pop culture, education, the economy, business advertising, family, sports, politics, religion, and personal philosophies. Examples of the messages that reflect these aspects of society have been provided. The findings also indicate that even though t-shirt messages reflect society, they do not reflect all aspects of society.

Conclusions

The following are the conclusions from the study:

- T-shirt messages do reflect some aspects of society.
- T-shirt messages do not reflect all aspects of society.
- T-shirt messages are a form of communication.

- T-shirt messages communicate faith and beliefs, aspirations, protest, personal philosophies, etc.
- Some t-shirt messages are tools for advertising.
- Some t-shirt messages portray current trends in pop culture, sports, entertainment, and education.
- Families utilize t-shirt messages to inform the public of who they are.

Recommendations for Further Study

The following are the recommendations for further study:

- It is recommended that a study be conducted in which individuals wearing t-shirts will be interviewed to investigate and determine why they wear the t-shirts with the particular messages that are on the t-shirts they wear.
- A focus group could be interviewed to determine why they wear the t-shirts with the particular messages on them.
- Results from the focus group interviews could be compared to the results of the individual interviews to determine if there are any differences in the reasons why individuals wear t-shirts with particular messages on them as compared to groups.
- An investigation could be conducted in different geographical locations to determine if there are differences in the types of t-shirt messages in different geographical locations.
- An investigation could be conducted with female only and male only populations to determine if there are differences in the t-shirt messages on t-shirts worn by females as compared to t-shirts worn by males.
- An investigation could be conducted with youth only and adults only to determine if there are differences in the messages on t-shirts worn by youth as compared to messages on t-shirts worn by adults.

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Building a Supportive Twitter Community for Teacher Education Students

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New teachers are experiencing higher levels of burnout at a faster rate now than ever before (Ingersoll, Merrill, & Stuckey, 2014). Almost one in five new teachers quits within the first five years (Gray, Taie, & Rear, 2015). Survey results point to work stress as a primary reason for teacher burnout (Aud et al., 2011; Ingersoll et al., 2014). New teachers who leave the profession most frequently cite stress from working conditions including isolation, lack of support, lack of adequate classroom resources, insufficient professional development, little input into decision making, poor leadership, unattainable accountability systems, student misbehavior, and low salaries (Ingersoll et al., 2014).

As increasing demands and pressure are placed upon teachers, Twitter may impact how preservice teachers feel supported before they even officially enter the teaching profession. Previous research shows a positive relationship between social networking and perceived social support, affect, sense of community, and life satisfaction (Oh, Ozkaya, & LaRose, 2014). Social media use has also been shown to have positive effects on the emotional wellbeing of in-service teachers, especially in combating loneliness and promoting positive relationships (Carpenter & Krutka, 2014).

Although social media use is widespread in everyday life, it has grown rather slowly in higher education (Gülbahar, Rapp, Kilis, & Sitnikova, 2017). While the use of Twitter in higher education holds many potential promises for preservice teachers, studies investigating the impact of Twitter in teacher education programs are limited, despite the need to offer more support to new teachers.

Twitter may support the emotional well-being of preservice teachers by connecting them to classmates, instructors, and other professionals in the field who may provide leadership and help reduce new teachers' feelings of stress. This support may be a factor in reducing new teacher attrition, which is a growing problem (Aud et al., 2011; Ingersoll et al., 2014). Limited research surrounding how Twitter use in teacher education programs impacts preservice teachers' feelings of community and emotional support is presented, and a Twitter guide for leaders in teacher education programs is included.

Supportive Twitter Communities in Teacher Education

Although studies are limited, Twitter use in teacher education programs appears to positively support preservice teachers' emotional needs by strengthening connections to peers, faculty, and other educators as well as offering opportunities for reflection and collaboration, all of which may help reduce feelings of isolation and work stress (Benko et al., 2013; Domizi, 2013; Johnson, 2016; Krutka, 2014; Lin et al., 2013; Lou et al., 2017; Wright, 2010). Early research from Wright (2010) explored how Twitter enabled preservice teachers to develop reflective practices with one another during their student teaching experiences. Participants were required to tweet in response to predetermined prompts, sharing brief reflections upon their daily experiences in the classroom. Participants' accounts were set up to be private from the rest of the cyberspace area of Twitter; the study was not intended to examine how microblogging might help participants interact with the larger professional community on Twitter. Participants stated Twitter helped them connect to other educators they already had established face-to-face relationships with and mitigate feelings of isolation and emotional overload (Wright, 2010).

Lin et al. (2013) offered an optional extra credit assignment for undergraduate and graduate students in technology-rich education courses to examine how students perceive and use Twitter. Students were asked to create a Twitter account, follow each other on Twitter, follow class hashtags, and tweet at least

75 times during the semester. Students were intentionally not given instruction on how to create an account, follow tweets, or what is a hashtag. Lin et al. (2013) found participants tended to use Twitter as more of a personal social network rather than a professional one. Participants engaged in a large volume of tweets that were not professionally related. When asked specific questions using class hashtags, students seldom responded. Survey data showed students enjoyed being consumers of tweets but seldom retweeted or replied, thus offering limited data into the usefulness of Twitter as a tool for communication and collaboration. While this limited data suggests Twitter may be a powerful tool in helping preservice teachers build relationships, Lin et al. (2013) concluded incorporating Twitter in teacher education courses should be intentional, and faculty should provide considerable scaffolding and modeling for preservice teachers.

Similarly, Johnson (2016) studied the perceptions of preservice teachers in their utilization of Twitter to establish a professional online presence. Participants, who were college sophomores in a teacher education program, reported having multiple personal social media accounts prior to entering the course, but they had no professional social media accounts. As a requirement of the course, participants created Twitter accounts they used to connect with classmates and other professionals in order to begin developing a professional presence on social media. Participants focused on using Twitter for communication as they shared professional resources via tweeting and retweeting. Evidence from pre- and post-surveys indicated Twitter had a positive impact on students' perceptions of developing an online professional presence (Johnson, 2016). In a post-survey, students reported positive feelings of being connected to other educational professionals. However, like Lin et al. (2013), Johnson (2016) stressed the importance of scaffolding professional Twitter use for preservice teachers.

Likewise, Benko et al. (2016) utilized Twitter with students in an English methods course and found Twitter offered numerous opportunities for reflection and collaboration. Data suggest Twitter was useful for ongoing reflection and enabled preservice teachers to connect with a larger community of practitioners outside of their own institution. However, as did Lin et al. (2013) and Johnson (2016), researchers observed limitations including the need for scaffolding and guidance in helping participants develop reflection skills.

In a highly-structured and comprehensive study, Krutka (2014) found utilizing Twitter with preservice teachers in a social studies methods course offered them emotional support. Class participants completed surveys, reflective journals, and field notes, indicating Twitter helped foster a community feeling and enhanced students' relationships with the instructor, one another, and inservice teachers who used Twitter.

The research of Lou et al. (2017) also highlighted preservice teachers' desire to find support through the use of Twitter. Participants were undergraduate students in a hybrid educational technology course who were required to participate in a Twitter live chat. They were given a list of education-related chats, a video tutorial explaining how to participate, and tips for how to contribute to the conversation. Student surveys indicated a high level of engagement and a desire to continue participating in the future. Students noted benefits of chats including access to new resources and ideas, exposure to widely differing views in a safe environment, the ability to examine view from multiple perspectives, and a supportive environment in which users could get input and advice from experienced educators all over the world (Lou et al., 2017).

Finally, while the aforementioned studies were conducted with undergraduate students in teacher education programs, Domizi (2013) investigated the use of microblogging via Twitter to enhance learning and foster relationships among participants in a weekly multidisciplinary graduate seminar on teaching and pedagogy. Data included an initial reaction paper, Twitter posts from students and the instructor, and a post-seminar survey to determine if and how students' attitudes about using Twitter had changed during the semester. Analyses of the data indicated Twitter use increased participants' positive attitudes about using the tool, and participants reported Twitter helped them feel more connected to the content and to one another (Domizi, 2013).

Guidelines for Building a Supportive Twitter Community for Teacher Education Students

Research shows the use of Twitter benefits students in teacher education programs by providing a sense of community and emotional support (Benko et al., 2013; Carpenter & Krutka, 2014; Domizi, 2013; Johnson, 2016; Krutka, 2014; Lin et al., 2013; Lou et al., 2017; Oh, Ozkaya, & LaRose, 2014; Wright, 2010). Thus, continued use of Twitter may reduce new teachers' feelings of stress and isolation, which lead to new teacher attrition. Instructors involved in teacher education programs may find Twitter beneficial for preservice teachers, as participation in Twitter can help them connect with other professionals for support.

Before using Twitter with teacher education students, the instructor must create a Twitter account and become familiar with Twitter. The following online tutorials are aimed at assisting Twitter beginners with the basics.

- [Starting a PLN on Twitter: A Quick Guide for Teachers](#)
- [Intro to TweetDeck](#)

After the instructor has set up his or her professional Twitter account and become acquainted with how Twitter works, then he or she may ask students to create their own Twitter accounts as either a course requirement or optional assignment. The process of creating a professional Twitter profile page should be scaffolded, as it may look very different from students' personal social media pages. Students should be encouraged to use a professional profile photo, create a professional handle (username), and write a professional bio, which may include relevant and appropriate hashtags (#) and handles. See Figure 1 for an example of a professional Twitter profile page.

Place Figure 1 about here.

The guidelines presented in Table 1 are offered for instructors in teacher education programs desiring to support preservice teachers through the use of Twitter. Tasks including how to develop a Personal Learning Network (PLN), participate in Twitter chats, tweet and retweet content, and use Twitter as a networking tool, are explained further below.

Place Table 1 about here.

Develop Your PLN

A PLN is a network operated by an individual for the purpose of engaging in professional activities through online platforms, which support informal, self-directed learning needs (Rajagopal, Joosten-ten Brinke, Van Bruggen, & Sloep, 2011). Twitter users may follow other Twitter users' content by navigating to their profile page and clicking the Follow button. This adds those Twitter users' content to their newsfeed. Preservice teachers who follow several dozen or perhaps even a hundred or more Twitter users including classmates, instructors, and professional educators can login to their Twitter account and scroll through their newsfeed for up-to-the-minute coverage of their followers' content in one convenient location. PLNs via Twitter provide preservice teachers with the ability to share resources and exchange ideas virtually with others whom they already know as well as users they may have never met in person before.

Participate in Twitter Chats

Twitter chats are live conversations that occur on Twitter in which a group of people meet virtually at a set time to tweet about the same topic using a specific hashtag, allowing the discussion to be followed on Twitter. Hashtags organize tweets by topic, so when a tweet is used, it becomes categorized with other tweets that include the same hashtag. Each Twitter chat uses a unique hashtag so users can follow the conversation by following the hashtag. A Twitter chat may be attended by a handful of participants or even thousands from all over the world. Most Twitter chats repeat on a regular basis, such as weekly, bi-weekly, or monthly (Fouts, 2017). Twitter chats are usually moderated by one or more hosts using a question-and-answer format (Ward, 2017). Twitter chats focused on education take place regularly, and participation in such chats can be used as a way to expand one's PLN (Ward, 2017) and promote community building (Whitby, 2012).

Research shows preservice teachers find Twitter chats to be an engaging way to connect with other users, particularly teachers in their field, and often preservice teachers indicate they plan to continue participating in Twitter chats after they graduate and have classrooms of their own (Luo et al., 2017). Preservice teachers should be guided through Twitter chats by an instructor who is familiar with the

process. A tweet management system such as TweetDeck is useful in organizing chats for Twitter users, especially those who are new to chats. Instructors may find it helpful to generate a class hashtag and a list of questions on a topic of interest and hold a few class Twitter chats before assigning students to join external chats, as in-class practice may build students' skills and confidence with Twitter chats.

Tweet and Retweet Professional Content

A post on Twitter is called a tweet. Sharing content through tweets is another way to connect with other users on Twitter. When preservice teachers create or find appropriate professional content, they should be encouraged to share it through a tweet. A tweet may be up to 280 characters long. Tweets may include weblinks, images such as illustrations, infographics, photographs, or (GIFs), and the user's physical location, if desired. Users may also choose to include a poll in a tweet. A retweet is when a user tweets content previously tweeted by another user, and proper etiquette calls for the retweet to feature the letters RT (retweet) in front of the original tweeter's handle, in order to give them credit.

Network with Others

Twitter can provide opportunities for preservice teachers to network and collaborate with other users. For example, Twitter users may include administrators who tweet about job opportunities in their schools or districts. Preservice teachers may be able to interview for jobs about which they previously would never have heard. Online interactions through Twitter may also afford preservice teachers with scholarly opportunities such as researching, writing grants, publishing, or presenting. These types of activities would appeal to preservice teachers looking to develop their leadership skills and distinguish themselves from other teacher candidates.

Evaluation

Evaluating the impact of Twitter on preservice teachers' sense of community should be an integral component of implementation. Throughout the use of Twitter with preservice teachers, instructors should reflect on how Twitter assignments meet course goals and objectives. Preservice teachers should be asked for their feedback, and assignments should be modified as needed.

Teacher educators may utilize a digital tool such as Google Forms to create free and easy-to-use surveys to evaluate their use of Twitter as a platform for building community and providing emotional support in teacher education programs. Sample survey questions may include:

- What are the benefits and/or challenges of maintaining a PLN through Twitter?
- What are the benefits and/or challenges of participating in education Twitter chats?
- What are the benefits and/or challenges of tweeting professional content via Twitter?
- What are the benefits and/or challenges of networking with others via Twitter?
- Do you plan to continue using Twitter for professional purposes? Why or why not?

Conclusion

Data suggest Twitter may be a factor in helping support preservice teachers by providing a sense of community in a global social network (Benko et al., 2013; Domizi, 2013; Johnson, 2016; Krutka, 2014; Lin et al., 2013; Wright, 2010). Researchers assert Twitter is most useful to preservice teachers when it is incorporated into classes by design through scaffolding and modeling, which necessitates teacher education faculty who are proficient in utilizing Twitter (Benko et al, 2016; Johnson, 2016; Lin et al., 2013). Instructors in teacher education programs are likely to be the first to expose future teachers to Twitter's effectiveness as a powerful resource for support. Because one in five new teachers is likely to leave the teaching profession within the first five years (Gray, Taie, & Rear, 2015), instructors in teacher education programs should continue to investigate the impact Twitter may have on meeting the needs of future teachers and contributing to new teacher retention.

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Figure 1

Home Moments Notifications Messages Search Twitter Tweet

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Assistant Prof of #EdTech @AustinPeay
Tweeting my #TeacherEd students using #ap3040 & my #EdD students using #EDUC7002. Former 4th/5th Grade Teacher
Goodlettsville, TN
linkedin.com/in/joannazimme...
Joined February 2017

Tweets 1,304 Following 554 Followers 616 Likes 1,921 Lists 15 Moments 0 Edit profile

Tweets Tweets & replies Media

Dr. Joanna Zimmerle @drzimmerle · 36s
RT @mrslepre Great podcast for #preserviceteachers! #prechat #newteacher #newteacherjourney

EPISODE 57
HOW TO ILLUMINATE YOUR STRENGTHS WHEN ANSWERING ANY QUESTION IN AN INTERVIEW

Kim Lepre @mrslepre
Teachers Need Teachers Podcast Episode 57: How to highlight your strengths while answering any interview question bit.ly/2vgUY8y #firstyearteacher #studentteacher #preserviceteacher...

Your Tweet activity
Your Tweets earned 1,489 impressions over the last 28 days
View your top Tweets

Who to follow · Refresh · View all
Kelly Gamez @MTSD_Cur...
Follow

Table 1

Guidelines for Using Twitter to Build a Supportive Community for Preservice Teachers

Actions	Examples
Develop your PLN.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Follow classmates, instructors, and administrators in your Teacher Education program. • Find other users to follow by searching hashtags related to education. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ #Education ○ #Teachers ○ #Students ○ Content-area specific hashtags, such as #Math or #Reading ○ Grade-level hashtags, such as #fourthgrade or #4thgrade ○ Examine the Following lists of users whom you admire and determine if they include other users you would like to follow.
Participate in or start your own Twitter chats.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An official Education Chats list may be accessed at https://sites.google.com/site/twittereducationchats/education-chat-calendar • Chats of interest: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Pretchat is geared toward preservice teachers. It occurs Thursdays at 8:00 PM Central. Moderators are @dmantz7 and @SFecich. ○ #nt2t stands for New Teachers to Twitter. It occurs Saturdays at 8:00 AM Central. Moderators are @shyj and stephwurking.
Tweet and retweet other users' professional content.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When you develop or find a good idea or resource, share it through a tweet. • Include relevant hashtags and handles to enable other users to find your tweets. • When you retweet, give credit to the original user by including RT in front of their handle (username).
Use Twitter as a networking tool.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May assist in the job search. • May lead to scholarly opportunities such as research, grants, publishing, or presenting.

Book Review

A Look at *The Diary of Malcolm X, El-Hajj Malik El-Shabazz 1964*.

Boyd, Herb, & El-Shabazz, El-Hajj Malik. (2013). *The Diary of Malcolm X, El-Hajj Malik El-Shabazz 1964*. Chicago: Third World Press.

Reviewer: J. Vern Cromartie

From April 1964 to November 1964, Malcolm X, also known as El-Hajj Malik El-Shabazz, kept a diary as he traveled to various countries in Africa, Europe, and the Middle East. As he traveled, Malcolm X met with important dignitaries as well as everyday people. During his travels, Malcolm X wrote in his diary almost daily. Third World Press has stepped forward to publish the diary as a book despite some legal controversy about its ownership.

The book includes the following sections: acknowledgments; foreword, introduction; the diary; epilogue; commentary and annotations; and a brief chronology of Malcolm X. The acknowledgments section was jointly written by Ilyasah Al-Shabazz, Herb Boyd, and Haki R. Madhubuti. The foreword to the book was written by Haki R. Madhubuti, the head of Third World Press. Herb Boyd wrote the introduction.

In his introduction, Herb Boyd lays out key details about the history of the diary. He discloses that it had once sat in a Florida storage facility with other possessions of Malcolm X before ending up in a San Francisco auction house. It is made clear by Boyd that an attorney helped the family of Malcolm X to get back the extremely valuable memorabilia, including the diary. Boyd notes that Malcolm X was a “keen collector of keepsakes, documents, books, newspapers, films, and, of course, the record of his life” (p. xix). He explains that, “Volumes I and II of his diary total more than 200 pages in microfilm, and are mainly a record of his second and third trips to Africa and the Middle East. Most of it is quite legible and ripe for commentary and further exegesis of Malcolm’s random musings and other jottings” (pp. xix-xx). Boyd states that, “The transcribed diary and our annotations and commentary, along with photos and travel documents, and actual pages from the diary, will comprise the bulk of the book” (p. xx).

The actual diary has been divided into three parts in the Third World Press book. The first part covers the period from Wednesday, April 15, 1964 to Thursday, May 21, 1964. The second part reflects the period from Friday, July 10, 1964 to Tuesday, September 29, 1964. The third part deals with the period from Wednesday, September 30, 1964 to Tuesday, November 17, 1964. Although Malcolm X was constantly on the move during his final two years of life, he found the time to record important observations collected in those three parts.

In the first part dating from April 15, 1964 to May 21, 1964, Malcolm X writes about his travels in Egypt, Saudi Arabia, Lebanon, Italy, Nigeria, Ghana, Liberia, Morocco, and Algeria. Between April 1963 and May 1964, Malcolm X met with people like Gamal Abdel Nasser, Omar Azzam, Azzam Pasha, Muhammad Harkan, Kasim Guilek, Muhammad Faisal, Mahmoud Shawarbi, Ahmad Harzallah, Foud Mahdi, Hussein El-Borai, Muhammad Omar Daouk, Malik Badri, Ahmad A. Galwash, A. F. Masha, Fata Etti, E. U. Essien-Udom, Julia Wright, Julian Mayfield, Alice Windom, Anna Levie King, Maya Angelou, Huang Hua, Kofi Baako, T. R. Makonnen, Kwame Nkrumah, and Shirley Graham Du Bois. In addition to making a pilgrimage to Mecca, Malcolm X “had an hour audience with Pres. Nkrumah” in Accra (p. 62). Malcolm X recalled that “in Ghana I was able to explain the true plight of the American Negroes to at least

12 ambassadors of African, Asian & Arab nations” (p. 62). He also remembered that “when I left Ghana on May 17th at least five of these ambassadors saw me off at the airport” (p. 62).

Malcolm X, in the second part dating from July 10, 1964 to September 29, 1964, covers his trips to England, Egypt, Saudi Arabia, and Lebanon. While visiting those places, Malcolm X had meetings with people that included H. E. Masha, Nancy Tzibo, Abraham Ngidi, Omar Gabir, Mashhud A. Malik, Muhammad Fathy, Ibrahim Ismail, H. E. Hassan Sabri Al-Khaly, David Du Bois, Joseph F. Towns, Rashad Abdul Aziz, Mahmoud Khally, Abdul Rahman Tage, H. E. Quaison-Sackey, Ahmad Hilal, F. E. Boatman, Tom Goodrum, Tom Mboya, Shirley Graham Du Bois, Ahmed Ousmane, Ann Seidman, John Idagah, Miranda Greenstreet, Emira Attalah, Milton Henry, Abdulrahman Mohamed Babu, Alioune Diop, Akbar Muhammad, Leo Milas, H. E. Oweida, Mohammed M. Hashim, and John Launois. According to Boyd and Al-Shabazz, Malcolm X may have been poisoned during a trip to Egypt in July 1964 by Leo Milas, a Black man from the USA living in Africa. Boyd and Al-Shabazz also accused Milas of being a “possible CIA agent” (p. 213).

In the third part dating from September 30, 1964 to November 17, 1964, Malcolm X addresses his travels to Ethiopia, Zanzibar, Tanzania, Kenya, Guinea, Nigeria, Ghana, Liberia, Algeria, Switzerland, and France. During the period from September 1964 to November 1964, Malcolm X met with people like Otini Kambona, Art Carney, Clennon King, Lornia Strong, Lonia Byrd, George Byrd, Alice Windom, Saleh Kabire, Louis Nthenda, Leo Milas, Bena Ghai, Oginga Odinga, Pio Gama Pinto, Emma Pinto, Ed Andeson, Bill Sutherland, Joyce Macon, Oscar Kambona, Otini Kambona, Ron Reddich, Julius Nyerere, Milton Obote, John Lewis, Don Harris, Tom Mboya, Mel McCaw, Diallo Telli, Jane Craddock, Yvonne Ponvielle, Doni Marchand, Phillipe Kambona, Bill Davis, Olabisi Ajala, Helen Darden, Abdulrahman Mohamed Babu, Nnamdi Azikiwe, E. U. Essien-Udom, Delphine King, Cassius Nimkus, Maya Angelou, Julian Mayfield, Nana Nketia, T. R. Makonnen, Cameron Duodu, Shirley Graham Du Bois, Kwame Nkrumah, Frank Robertson, Elaine Armour, Sam Payne Cooper, Clarence Parker, William Tolbert, Sekou Toure, Nancy Lane, Lafayette Diggs, Neal Willard, Said Ramadan, Alioune Diop, and Aida Wade. According to Malcolm X, Sekou Toure “congratulated me for my firmness in the struggle for dignity” (p. 169).

In the epilogue of *The Autobiography of Malcolm X*, Alex Haley noted that Malcolm X kept a diary that he wanted to turn into a second book. The public is very fortunate that it has been published. The editors and Third World Press are to be commended for making this important primary source document accessible to the public. They are also to be commended for providing some excellent annotations and commentary. The publication of the diary is a valuable contribution to the literature related to the Diaspora in general and Malcolm X in particular. It is destined to become one of the greatest primary source documents to emerge in print during the first 15 years of the 21st century.

Book Review

A Look at A Look at *Doing Race in Social Studies: Critical Perspectives*

Chandler, P. T. (Ed.). (2016). *Doing Race in Social Studies: Critical Perspectives*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Reviewer: Jennifer Walker.

How do high school teachers address race when teaching social studies? Prentice Chandler posed this question in the opening chapter of the book he edited titled *Doing Race in Social Studies: Critical Perspectives*. As a former teacher in the Alabama school district, his experiences in the classroom shaped his research interest in critical race theory (CRT). Instances include the murder of Trayvon Martin and other minorities across America. Chandler struggled to understand how to teach race in this climate properly. The book offers teachers valuable insight and applications on how to properly implement critical race theory.

The book is divided into two sections. Both address content dealing with critical race theory application and practices. The first section contains chapters two through six and looks at new research that has been written to focus on race within social studies. The chapters address the manners by which we comprehend the place and intensity of race as a consistent power inside the social examinations teaching method. From educator personality to curricular materials and to instituted teaching methods, this area enables us to consider the significance of race not as something that will be survived, but rather something that will be comprehended.

In her essay titled “Cultural Genocide Masked as Education,” Sarah Shear examines the use of United States history textbooks’ use of critical race theory and tribal critical race theory. Shear’s work asks us, as social studies teachers, to go up against imperialism in the United States by effectively captivating the talk of decolonization. She urged that this approach be used in both research and educating. Chapter three provides a look at researcher Christopher Martell’s analysis of his involvement with turning into a socially relevant teacher whose work is informed by precepts of CRT. In Martell’s self-examination, he takes us through his adventure over 15 years and four racially various schools. Martell gives us knowledge into the manners by which teachers change and develop into racially cognizant educators.

Chapters four through six proceed to analyze the instructional method of three White educators in Alabama as they engaged in teaching about colonization in their U.S. history classes. They named their teaching method “White Social Studies.” Their work focuses on the manners by which White teachers outline their teaching method to provide certain accounts about U.S. history. They note that these accounts are often inconsistent with their convictions about race. Chapter five reports findings from book content examinations led by Ryan Craig and Victoria Davis. Craig and Davis present their examination of six optional instruction course books from various time frames to follow what they call an “account of viciousness” to uncover the representative rejection of American Indians from the texts. This exploration furnishes teachers with a chance to learn what an increasingly genuine portrayal of America’s indigeneity in social analysis may resemble. The first section also chronicled the encounters of one secondary teacher and how he instructs about race and bigotry in his elective social studies courses. His work uncovers the significance of racial reflection and exchange, the need to build up a typical language for discourse, and the significance of making a protected and secure space from which discourse can result.

The second section covers chapters 7 through 13. It provides readers with a variety of social investigations through the lens of CRT. This section asks teachers and other educators to think about what classrooms would resemble in their institutions. The purpose of these chapters is not to give an idiot-proof layout to pursue, but rather to assist educators with contemplating the principles of CRT and how they can be applied to encouraging social examination content. This thought is a focal idea in the CRT. It holds that race impacts every part of public activity in the United States.

Race can be found as a theme in expert writing, at national meetings, and in graduate and undergraduate projects. In real practice, the field of social investigations reflects that race has real consequences in the United States. Race is not a relic of past times, but a present-day factor and social force. In the institutions of this country, discussions of race are often sometimes viewed as hazardous or something to be forbidden. There is a need to have social investigations that focus on the social construction of race in this country and worldwide. To not address race as a social construction is to carry on like ostriches with heads in the sand. This book is strongly recommended.