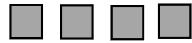


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The National Journal of Urban Education and Practice

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About the journal:

The National Journal of Urban Education and Practice is a national, peer reviewed journal. The Journal seeks to make available educational research and knowledge that will equip and empower educators nationwide with methodologies and research driven tools that will contribute to their ability to meet the diverse needs of urban populations. The Journal is committed to providing literature and resources that contribute to the building of urban professionals that are caring, committed and culturally responsive.

The Journal publishes conceptual and empirical articles that contribute new knowledge and ideas in the quest for excellence in educating urban learners. Each issue has thematic and general interest articles with periodic interviews, and/or book reviews.

Editor's Message

How we support our students is extremely important. Through its Impact on Student Learning and Development conference held June 28-30, 2018 on the campus of Texas Southern University and hosted by the College of Education's Center for Excellence in Urban Education, these issues were addressed. The following articles are devoted to discussions centered around this topic.

The first contribution in this journal "An Academic Support and Equity Model for Athletes in Diverse Institutions and NCAA College Athletics" examines the inequities of services and programs in college division type, diversity population-served, and locales/settings of schools in the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) through examining the notion of academic reform and its impact on college athletes. Within this context, the authors explore the concepts of brand equity and athletic identity to further examine experiences and obstacles faced by diverse college athletes and to present a model for addressing student learning outcomes in higher education.

The next article, "Mathematics Thinking in Early Learners Through the Lens of Quality Children's Literature" addresses how mathematical concepts and skills can be less daunting when teachers allow learners to engage in experiences through mathematics and reading instruction. Additionally, this paper conceptualizes mathematical thinking through the use of age appropriate quality children's literature which allows for productive experiences that enhance the mastery of mathematics thinking. This research demonstrates effective ways to select quality literature, which can be used to conceptualize mathematical concepts.

The following article, "Vocabulary Instruction Matters!" describes the development of strategies to increase the teachers' knowledge of vocabulary development and instruction. This type of knowledge has become progressively more imperative as all classroom teachers are expected to assist learners obtain language and literacy standards that include vocabulary attainment. Vocabulary is crucial factor of reading comprehension and content area knowledge.

The next article, "Video-Based Observations: Improving Clinical Teachers' Reflection in Educator Preparation Programs." This article discussed the multi-layered challenges facing HBCU athletic programs and athletic administrators. These challenges include smaller administrative, academic support, coaching, and athletic training staff, fewer scholarships/grant-in-aids for student athletes, and less updated athletic facilities compared to many of their peer historically White Colleges and Universities (HWCUs) (Cooper et al., 2014a). Many students from urban schools get into college through sports. Because of this dynamic, when athletic programs suffer, so do students. The creation of historically Black colleges and universities (HBCUs) athletic programs were rooted in cultural empowerment.

In the next article "From Student to Professional: Doctoral Student and Beyond," addresses the matriculation of doctoral students to entering their professional career. The desire to teach, research, or have an advanced career in a higher education institution or professional organization is usually what motivates a student to enter a doctoral program. Unfortunately, many students who have this desire do not truly understand the rigor, demands and expectations of a doctoral program resulting in students becoming discouraged and choosing to leave the program. However, for those that choose to remain in the program, it is not because the program became easier, but rather the student made a conscious decision to endure so they can reach their professional career goal.

Editor
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Contents



126 **An Academic Support and Equity Model
for Athletes in Diverse Institutions and
NCAA College Athletics**

*Lisa Hobson, Lacey Reynolds, Courtney
Flowers, Dwalah Fisher, and Nana Asare*

146 **Mathematics Thinking in Early Learners
Through the Lens of Quality Children's
Literature**

Delilah Gonzales and Reginald Todd

152 **Vocabulary Instruction Matters!**

*Ingrid Haynes, Delilah Gonzales,
and Mokysa Benford*

160 **Video-Based Observations: Improving
Clinical Teachers' Reflection in Educator
Preparation Programs**

*Delilah Gonzales, Viveca Grant, Jessica
Davis, and Dwalah Fisher*

166 **In Pursuit of the Doctoral Degree:
An Analysis of Socialization of
Graduate Students at an HBCU**

Bernnell Peltier-Glaze and Collette Bloom

An Academic Support and Equity Model for Athletes in Diverse Institutions and NCAA College Athletics

Lisa Hobson, Lacey Reynolds, Courtney Flowers, Dwalah Fisher and Nana Asare

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Abstract

This article examines the inequities of services and programs in college division type, diversity population-served, and locales/settings of schools in the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) through examining the notion of academic reform and its impact on college athletes. Within this context, the authors explore the concepts of brand equity and athletic identity to further examine experiences and obstacles faced by diverse college athletes and to present a model for addressing student learning outcomes in higher education.

Introduction

In this article, the researchers examine the concepts of brand equity, economic disparities, disparities in division type, e.g. Football Bowl School (FBS) and Football Championship School (FCS), disparities in athletics based on school diversity (predominately White institutions and minority serving institutions), disparities in location type (urban, college-towns, and rural schools) athlete's identity, academic reform, and models and frameworks for educating and preparing athletes for athletic, academic, and career success. This article primarily focuses on the sport of football where prior studies have examined several issues regarding equity as well as parity and pay. Although men's basketball produces the largest source of revenue for the National College Athletics Association (NCAA), no college sport generates more money every year at the institutional level than football (Blackstone, 2018) hence focus on this sport

through the lenses of brand equity, athlete identity and academic reform with this sport.

These concepts and frameworks are addressed due to the continued need for academic reform models across diverse types of institutions for athletes, but also in the context of creating and espousing quality education for all students. Hora and Ferrare (2014) recommended additional research into post-secondary teaching practices and studies that examine the relationship between specific teaching practices and students' perceptions of the quality, effectiveness, and efficacy of instruction. Moreover, and more importantly, in consideration of the need for improved pedagogy and instruction in higher education classrooms and programs in general, in this article, a model developed by the primary authors to address athletes' academic success and matriculation in post-secondary settings, is introduced. There is a contribution to the call for ensuring the adoption of approaches and frameworks that focus on athletes' learning. Regarding college athletics, Petr and Mcardle (2012) emphasized the need for NCAA stakeholders to fully examine how to ensure athletes' academic success through use of incentives, examination and updating of policies, and best practices.

Literature Review

NCAA DI Athletic Programs: FBS Versus the FCS NCAA membership is divided into three separate divisions: Division I (DI), Division II (DII), and Division III (DIII). Each division contains different NCAA requirements pertaining to sport sponsorship, college athlete scholarships, and scheduling criteria. In addition, each division represents different levels of athletic prowess (NCAA, 2018). For example, DIII member institutions focus more on the

overall experience of the college athletes versus their athletic skills through "maximizing the number and variety of athletics opportunities available to students, placing primary emphasis on regional in-season and conference competition" (NCAA, 2018, para. 3). However, unlike Division I and II, Division III member institutions provide no athletic scholarship support for their college athletes.

Division I and II place more emphasis on athletic skills in comparison to Division III member institutions. However, there are some differences in the number of required NCAA sponsored sports. Division II member institutions must sponsor "at least five sports for men and five for women, (or four for men and six for women), with two team sports for each gender, and each playing season represented by each gender" (NCAA, 2018b, para. 2). Whereas, DI member institutions must sponsor "at least seven sports for men and seven for women (or six for men and eight for women) with two team sports for each gender" (NCAA, 2018b, para. 1). However, both Division I and Division II classify football as either Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS) or NCAA Football Championship Subdivision (formerly Division I-AA).

The more talented college athletes typically attend NCAA DI, FBS institutions which boast larger athletic budgets in comparison to Division II and FCS institutions. In Division I, NCAA institutions, e.g. schools that have football teams, the respective institutions are separated into two categories: Football Bowl Subdivision or Football Championship Subdivision. Formerly known as Division I-A, the FBS is the top-tier football membership for the NCAA (NCAA, 2018a). Whereas, Football Championship Subdivision, which was formerly known

as Division I-AA typically have a significantly smaller athletic budget in comparison to FBS schools. Moreover, there are some differences in the NCAA membership requirements as well. FCS institutions are required to sponsor seven varsity intercollegiate sports, including football whereas; FBS institutions are required to sponsor a minimum of 9 of 16 intercollegiate sports, including football (NCAA, 2018a).

Some controversy exists surrounding FCS schools competing against FBS schools embedded in disproportionate funding of these programs. However, these big-games also provide FCS teams access to national media coverage, top-tier athletic trainers and facilities which could leverage increased student enrollment through national institutional recognition. Moreover, FCS college athletes also receive national recognition for competing against FBS teams as well. FCS college athletes receive an opportunity to play on an athletic stage and are viewed and critiqued by audiences outside the reach of their institutions.

Additionally, a true disparity between the types of schools becomes evident when discussions compare FCS athletic budgets to FBS institution budgets. USA Today (2017) reported the University of Texas (UT), a BIG 12 conference institution, lead the NCAA with the highest athletic revenue. During the 2016-17 athletic season, the UT longhorns grossed an astonishing revenue of \$214, 830, 647. In second, was a SEC conference institution, Texas A&M University (TAMU) which reported a revenue of \$211, 960, 034 (Berkowitz, et al., 2017). Also, TAMU was ranked by Forbes Magazine as the *most valuable player* of college football. TAMU acquired \$148,000,000 per year from 2014 to 2016 while UT gained \$133,000,000 in revenue for this same period (Zwerneman, 2018).

The first FCS highlighted on U.S. Today 2016-2017 list of athletic revenues is James Madison who was ranked at number 62 with an athletic revenue of \$48,210,400 (Berkowitz et al., 2017). This revenue pales in relation to UT and TAMU, however it outranks the first listed historically Black university (HBU), Prairie View A&M University, a rural school in Texas, which is ranked at #150 with a gross revenue of \$17,851,213 (Berkowitz et al, 2017).

Furthermore, the FCS schools don't have the marketing power that bigger conferences have which include the recognition, the money, and the larger endorsement companies to help them. It's difficult for FCS to escalate to FBS as they primarily consist of larger schools, so the smaller schools are kept out. The size of students attending the game and the amount of revenue available are factors dictating the bowl type. The FCS can get to the championship level, but can never make the expectations to get to the FBS division because these schools don't have the amenities, revenues, to get to the FBS level. The prestigious Power Five Conferences, the Atlantic Coast Conference (ACC), Big Ten Conference (Big 10), Big Twelve Conference (Big 12), Pacific 12 (Pac 12), and Southeastern Conference (SEC), drive the FBS.

Although a dichotomy exists equity-wise between FBS and FCS schools, higher education administrators, policy makers, athletic directors, and stakeholders may examine several factors in exploring ways to provide more financial and human capital resources for athletics support: (a) Is there a way for an FCS school to compete at an FBS level? (b) Why can't FCS division be transformed to operate at the economic level of the FBS? and (c) What are the advantages to improving equity for the athletes to become athletically and

academically successful? To become an FBS school, the institution must play 100% of the minimum number of contests against DI schools, have minimum number of attendees for home games every game, and an average of \$15,000 paid or actual attendees (NCAA, 2018b). Additionally, FBS schools award at least 90 full scholarships for athletes with only some scholarships being full and others as partial scholarships at FCS schools. FBS schools offer support staff (academic coordinators, tutors, complimentary study hall) to athletes in some cases. These policies are good practices because athletes have more resources to become academically successful.

A school receives more money playing FBS which is a benefit, however, they will still not be FBS in terms of the amount of money they would earn if FBS. Although FCS can make more money with TV rights if playing FBS schools, there is a limit on the number of FBS games FCS organizations can play.

PWIs and MSIs: The Intersection between Division Type and School Ethnic Diversity

Additional differences exist between predominately White institutions (PWIs) and Minority serving institutions (MSIs). Concerning HBCUs, primarily FCS schools, these institutions must play larger schools to sustain and fund their athletic budgets (Nocera, 2016). There are dangers in playing these guarantee games for money against much athletically stronger schools. Additionally, Nocera (2016) wrote: "But I want to here on H.B.C.U. teams, which are usually the most physically over matched and get paid the least amount of money — and yet they feel they have no chioce choice but to use their players as sacrificial lambs in guarantee games to fund their struggling athletic departments. The one-sided scores - and the public humiliation and potential for serious injury that come with such mismatches-

make one wonder whether it is really worth it. (para. 12).

The issue is complex on playing guarantee games because HBCUs lack many of the essential needs to become fully successful as sport teams and meet the academic requirements for graduating many of these student athletes in the six-year window proposed by the NCAA. As of the last few years, HBCU's have not met many of these expectations for the success of their student athletes.

Furthermore, some MSI and HBCU students ride on buses to games where as some FBS and FCS teams fly to their games and have the best hotels and team meals while away for games. Oftentimes, student athletes have academic support from their academic advisor, but the coaches are under so much pressure to win until they do not fully follow the protocol for complete success for many of their students. Some student athletes have difficulty following the guidelines set by their universities and teams. Other student athletes, inclusive and exclusive of ethnic diversity and other demographic variables, face disadvantages due to prior indicators as at-risk students and related challenges before they enrolled in college (NCAA, 2009). Some HBCU coaches are under significant pressure to win that it becomes extremely challenging to fully follow all protocols for successful endeavors of these students due to budget constraints and staff shortages.

As another example, the FBS and Alamo Bowl champions, the Oregon Ducks of the University of Oregon are well known for the quality of uniforms they compete in every year (Hedlind, 2012). Under an agreement, Nike provided Oregon athletics with \$2.5 million worth of gear each year, \$750,000 in cash each year, \$200,000 in extra gear as requested by

athletic department officials (Fusfeld, 2010). In contrast, the Southwestern Athletic Conference (SWAC) is comprised of ten institutions of higher education in the South, all HBCUs, whose football programs are under a Russell Athletics Sports Apparel contract. Their agreement is not even equivalent to what the University of Oregon spends on their uniforms.

Russell has provided each SWAC school \$50,000 in athletics' gear and equipment during 2010; \$52,000 in 2011; an increase of \$54,000 for 2012; another increase of \$56,000 for 2013; another incremental increase of \$58,000 in 2014; and the last incremental increase to total \$60,000 for 2015 (Toner, 2015). In the event any school requires more items, Russell Athletics sells it to the respective school for 50% off their catalog price. Russell provides game balls to schools as well as receives other benefits as well inclusive of game tickets and endorsements in commercials from head coaches (Toner, 2015). With one FBS institution receiving a large fraction of the finances for attire compared to an entire FCS conference, this could be viewed as a financial difference in apparel value and brand value of the two subdivisions.

Outside of the institutional population served, even FCS predominately White institutions (PWIs) experience financial challenges and play games where they typically lose against FBS (Nocera, 2016). "Understanding these factors relating to revenue generation is vital to the budgeting and financial activities of athletic programs" (McEvoy, Morse, & Shapiro, 2013, p. 264). Additionally, financial compensation difference exists between FBS and FCS college football players regarding recruitment of the different caliber of players. As an example, according to Berkowitz (2016), the recruitment staff for the Spartans of the

University of Michigan (Ann Arbor, Michigan) use a private jet to travel solely to recruit, including head coach Jim Harbaugh and his team whose jet travels amounted to more than \$10,000 a day.

On the other hand, McEvoy, et al. (2013) documented that revenue generation is even a challenge for FBS athletic programs due to competition and increasing costs. The researchers found the best predictors of revenue generation are: conference affiliation, enrollment, time, and the relative success of the men's basketball and football teams (McEvoy et al., 2013). All the resources contribute to the value of the institution for the athletes and the branding and marketing of the school as well.

Brand Equity in Academic Organizations and Athletics

Keller (1993) defined brand equity as a crucial component of brand management and strategy. However, as a marketing tool, brand equity is the customer's perception of the organization. Brand equity can assist organizations in differentiating themselves from each other in the marketplace and it fuels organizational recognition and loyalty of its customers. However, about college sports brand equity can be associated with a team's mascots, college athletes, apparel, and rituals, as examples. On the surface, DI athletic institutions may mirror each other in brand equity. However, the true glimpse into athletic program brand equity comes into view when FCS athletic budgets are compared to FBS institutions.

The most visible of all college sports is men's football and basketball as these sports generate most of the money (Blackstone, 2018). They are the most visible, because of how much money they bring into the

university and how much they are broadcast to the public. Brand equity of college sports, in most markets, is synonymous with football as the leading revenue generating sports in college athletics.

Brand Equity for Whom? Examining Equity for the Institution, Industry, and the Athlete

No college sport generates more money every year than football (Blackstone, 2018). In 2016, University of Texas' football program generated \$182.1 million and was the highest producer in college revenues for that fiscal year, the most of any college in the United States at the time (Blackstone, 2018).

Furthermore, "Football players with the top 10 highest estimated fair market values are worth between \$345k-\$514k in 2009-10. The top spot was held by University of Texas football players. While 100% of these players received scholarships that left them living below the federal poverty line and with an average scholarship shortfall of \$2841 in 2010-11, their coaches were paid an average of over \$3.5 million each in 2010 excluding bonuses" (Huma and Staurowsky, 2012, p. 12).

The 2000 NCAA Bylaw 2.9: The Principle of Amateurism states, "Student-athletes shall be amateurs in an intercollegiate sport, and their participation should be motivated primarily by education and by the physical, mental and social benefits to be derived. Student participation in intercollegiate athletics is an avocation, and student-athletes should be protected from exploitation by professional and commercial enterprises" (NCAA, 2000a, para. 1). Many of these student athletes are receiving neither a legitimate education nor fair compensation for their athletic services (Miller, 2012). As a result, unlike other associations, institutions, and/or businesses in the United States, NCAA

universities can obtain the benefits of valuable labor, and specifically in this case, players' labor which is paramount to the athletic enterprise and all without compensation at a competitive wage. It concluded the athletes are under what may be viewed as the pervasive control by their coaches and athletic departments, in fact, greater control than that experienced by any other employee at those universities.

Whether athletes play for an FBS or FCS, a school in an urban setting or rural setting, or a PWI or MSI, beyond the money received or spent, there are little to non-existent advantages for the student athlete themselves particularly given very few student athletes play at the professional football level. Additionally, beyond the recognition in playing in championship opportunities to play for Division I games, athletes may receive some recognition, but not the other benefits.

In the academic fraud allegation involving the University of North Carolina (UNC), this incident garnered attention to some of the identity challenges athletes face while participating in NCAA DI athletics. Additionally, Henry (2015) discussed the federal judge issued, landmark decision against the NCAA which is considered whether to grant class-action status to lawsuits by current and former college athletes seeking to abolish the NCAA's prohibition against competitively paying players.

Taken together, these cases carry legal and financial implications and hinge, essentially, on whether the concepts of amateur athleticism and economic competition can co-exist. This dialogue regarding the thought of college athletes receiving financial compensation first started as a stipend yet over the duration of a few years that stipend has become a matter of an actual paycheck (Henry, 2015). However, these

scenarios highlight a greater issue surrounding athletic identity. The separation of college athletes by the extra benefits they receive disconnects these students from the general student body. Moreover, by providing extra benefits, NCAA DI college athletic programs forge a relationship with college athletes which may facilitate an unbalanced view of athletic success above academic excellence.

According to the Division I manual, the purpose of the NCAA is “to maintain intercollegiate athletics as an integral part of the educational program and the athlete as an integral part of the student body and, by so doing, retain a clear line of demarcation between intercollegiate athletics and professional sports” (NCAA, 2018a, p.1). Moreover, Bylaw 12.02.14. Student Athlete defines a college athlete as “a student whose enrollment was solicited by a member of the athletics staff or other representative of athletics interests with a view toward the student’s ultimate participation in the intercollegiate athletics program” (NCAA, 2018c, para. 1). Similarly, Huma and Staurowsky (2012) noted, “Nationwide, FBS football and men’s basketball players were denied over \$1.5 billion of their fair market value in 2011-12. Ultimately, football players receive about 17% of their fair market value” (p. 4). In addition, Huma and Staurowsky (2014) exposed the misconception of the full scholarship stating:

In addition to denying the vast majority of these players’ their fair market value, the NCAA prohibits its member institutions from providing “full” athletic scholarships that cover all of the costs associated with attending a college or university. NCAA rules allow athletic or grants-in-aid to include tuition, room and board, and books. Expenses that are

allowed for academic scholarships but are prohibited from inclusion in athletic scholarships may include books that are recommended but not required, school supplies, transportation to and from school, basic necessities, and entertainment. In 2011-2012, the range of out-of-pocket expenses for a full scholarship athlete in the Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS) was \$1000/year to \$6904/year depending on the institution (p. 15).

However, a college athlete may lose their athletic eligibility for receiving payment for play. More specifically, in Bylaw 12.02.10 - Pay, the NCAA defines pay as “the receipt of funds, awards or benefits not permitted by the governing legislation of the Association for participation in athletics” (NCAA, 2018d, para. 17). Yet and according to Bylaw 12.4.1.1 - Athletics Reputation, an athlete may receive payment for research participation and teaching and coaching sport skills, but “compensation may not include any remuneration for value or utility that the student-athlete may have for the employer because of the publicity, reputation, fame or personal following that he or she has obtained because of athletics ability” (NCAA, 2000b, para. 2). Hence college athletes cannot receive payment for the assisting in increasing the brand equity of the athletic program and/or institution.

Some college athletes have found this notion unfair and have fought against Bylaw 12.4.1.1. In 2014, members of the Northwestern football team attempted to unionize. Their goal was to change the power structure of college athletics which they felt marginalized the college athletes. More

specifically they sought to become employees of Northwestern. Two key leaders of this initiative were two college football players: Ramogi Huma, a former UCLA college athlete and Kain Coulter, who was the quarterback for Northwestern. Huma was expressively impacted by the marginalization of college athletes. Subsequently, Huma and Staurowsky (2012) addressed numerous examples of claims of marginalization (previously experienced by the co-author Huma along with Coulter), stating athletes in the revenue-producing sports of football and men's basketball are less likely to receive their diplomas than any other group of athletes while also bearing the burden of financing a college sport enterprise that has resulted in highly lucrative compensation packages for high profile coaches, athletics administrators, conference commissioners, and football bowl executives.

Both reports support Coulter and Huma's argument of marginalization of college athletes. The reports also support the initiative of this article which introduces the college athlete as not only a key element in the brand equity of college athletic program, but also forges a dialogue surrounding the identity challenges faced by these college athletes due to the brand equity of these revenue-generating institutions.

Yet, the NCAA states it strives to protect college athletes "from exploitation by professionalism and commercial enterprise" (NCAA, 2000a, para. 1). Some practitioners contend the NCAA itself is responsible for exploiting college athletes due to findings for from Huma and Staurowsky (2012 & 2014). Their proof would hinge on the fact that many of these students are receiving neither a legitimate education (Huma & Staurowsky, 2012 & 2014) nor fair compensation for their athletic services (Miller, M., 2012; Huma & Staurowsky; 2012 & 2014).

Conversely, the NCAA has been involved in initiatives and reform models that focus on academic support for athletes. Johnson (2013) found the NCAA's Graduation Risk Overview (GRO) Model was a sufficient predictor of DI athletes' semester GPAs. The NCAA GRO Model is a research-based model for rating risk factors that predict DI athletes' potential for failure in attempting to successfully matriculate through an institution to graduate (NCAA, 2009). Although not solely unrelated to Academic performance, Johnson (2013) also found when combined with the GRO total score, demographic variables did not help with predicting semester GPA which included: (a) academic level, (b) new vs. returning status, (c) gender, and (d) in-season vs. out-of-season timing.

However, in reference to the unionization of college athletic programs through maintaining the idea of the college-athlete as a commodity, the NCAA and its member institutions diminish the status of an athlete as an employee by emphasizing his or her seemingly contrary identity as a mere student, hence giving the appearance that the respective athlete is irrelevant to the brand equity of the institution. Quite the contrary, the use of athletes' likenesses in promoting athletics gear demonstrates that these students have brand equity, however, they do not benefit from it. This notion of athletes as commodities solely for the institution is the antithesis of what the NCAA states it stands for and represents.

Athletic Identity, Academic Reform, and Outcome Actualization in College Athletics

The NCAA began linking student-athletes' academic performance with eligibility in 1965 and passed Proposition 48 governing minimum high school GPAs and Scholastic Aptitude

Test/American College scores for eligibility to play freshman-level college athletics in 1983 (Brown, 2014). For the entire period of a 21-year review of college graduation rates from 1984 (the year of inception of Proposition 48) through 2004, Division I student athletes' graduation rates were always consistently 1-3 percentage points higher than the general student population (Petr & McArdle, 2012). Athletes graduated at slightly higher rates than the regular student population (Petr and McArdle, 2012), because of athletic identity. According to Brewer et al. (1993), athletic identity can be defined as a psychological attachment to one's athletic identity. When these athletes do graduate, they often have trouble adjusting when no longer playing sports.

Athletic identity even takes precedence over gender, racial, and ethnic identity (Brewer et al., 1993). Athletic identity is experienced while students are playing for a program but once they either graduate, are no longer eligible, or can't play due to injuries or academic struggles. Moreover, a study conducted by Lamont-Mills and Christensen (2006) found no significant difference between elite and non-elite athlete with reference to athletic identity. Contrarily, the study found athletic identity is formed not by athletic skill, but participation. However, if the brand equity of the athletic program is merged with the athletic identity of the college athletes', identity can become problematic.

According to the NCAA, athletics is solely a tool to help students graduate not a vessel to impact athletic identity. During the 1980s, the NCAA began examining student

athletes' academic performance in the national context of reform, specifically addressing GPA data (Petr & McArdle, 2012).

In 1990, the NCAA initiated the practice of requiring colleges to collect and report graduation data along three demographic variables: (a) race, (b) gender, and (c) the sport played (Brown, 2014).

Since that major educational reform era, the Knight Commission has emphasized the need for significant academic reform in college athletics (Knight Commission 1991;2001, & 2010). The Knight Commission has admonished the NCAA to move from the concept of the player as an athlete-only model to the model of athlete-student (Knight Commission 1991;2001, & 2010). Moreover, the Knight Commission (2010) suggests that "All Division I institutions should publish accurate and comparable information about revenues and expenses in athletics every year" (p. 11).

Each student who comes to college on an athletic scholarship has a positive attitude and a belief that he/she will meet all their expectations to make the team and earn a full scholarship. Although, athletics is a tool through the usage of scholarships to complete degrees, the assumption that college athletes that are on full scholarships does not necessarily entail the complete thought of a free ride while some students on full scholarship actually live at or below the poverty level. Research has also shown in the article that the fair market value of big time football and basketball players are in the hundreds of thousands annually while the NCAA continues to uphold financial restrictions on the value of scholarships (Huma & Staurowsky, 2012).

The serious and far-ranging financial consequences of big-time sports also increase the likelihood that coaches will recruit exceptional athletes who maybe unqualified for the academic demands of college and subsequently, coaches meet the demands of keeping marginal students eligible. The perceived exploitation of student-athletes, the current model for compensating college athletes is ethically questionable (Miller, A., 2012).

Some NCAA conference commissioners have discussed approaches to compensating athletes beyond solely awarding athletic scholarships. Conference USA commissioner Britton Banowsky stated, "Unless the student-athletes in the revenue-producing sports get more of the pie, the model will eventually break down. It seems it is only a matter of time" (Schad, 2011, para. 3). If the model breaks down, the NCAA's members will need to evaluate and ponder this notion of student-athletes' exploitation before the creation of a new and reformed model (Miller, A. 2012.p. 5).

There are many practices that are widespread enough to lead some to conclude that the corruption of academic ideals is common practice in universities with major sports programs (Dean, Eitzen and Hufnagel, 1982). The organization responsible for policing the athletic programs of major U.S. universities, the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), has focused on violations of amateurism, such as athletes receiving financial inducements to play, and neglected the investigation of charges that athletes may be receiving an inferior education. Although, some athletics professionals have engaged in unethical actions for some time, the issues are further exacerbated by the current financial climate of contemporary intercollegiate sports programs.

Even though it is rather abstract and possibly quasi-philosophical concept, a player's talent is

one of the most important products that spectators view whether they President Mark Emmert has continued to assert the necessity of exploring ways to increase the financial assistance awarded to student-athletes (Schad, 2011). Currently, the student-athlete has limited options i.e. to either accept the rules of the NCAA and finish school or if given the rare opportunity, accept a position playing for a professional team. The development of an equitable system that is beneficial to the student-athletes, the NCAA, and its member institutions, especially college athletes who, we assert, also deserve academic equity.

Reconceptualizing Athletics Programs for Academic Reform and Athlete's Identity and Equity:

Although, during the 2014-2017 academic years over 87% of NCAA college athletes graduated with a degree (USA Today, 2017), however when they graduate, athletes often have trouble adjusting when no longer playing sports. Given the myriad of challenges in ensuring the success of athletes in school and post-graduation, academic reform models are apropos and important as they focus on the athlete as more than a commodity, but are individual assets and deserve the opportunity for those assets to provide benefits for the athletes' own advancement.

In conceptualizing strategies and approaches, the authors reflected on and examined their qualitative assumptions regarding brand equity, academic reform, and impact of institution on students' success and academic achievement as well as our experiences, positive, neutral, and challenging in working with athletes and/or athletics programs. Regarding one author of this article, her experiences served in teaching athletes in higher education settings and having family members who played FBS, FCS, and professional sports. On the other hand, she

noted the paucity of services to assist athletes who needed academic support, mental health counseling, career counseling, and matriculation advisement. In working at an urban FCS HBCU, she noted the types of support that was truly needed for student success. Furthermore, when working at an FBS PWI in a rural locale, she noted the hands-on and constant support the athletes received with tutoring services as well as constant communication from the academic advisors with ensuring responsibility of the athletes with academics.

Another author of this article examined the notion of gender equity, Title IX, and women's sports. She noted her experiences working in an FBS in a large metropolitan area that is quasi-urban and quasi suburban. This school provided significant support to athletes. At this institution, athletes arrived at the campus before the fall semesters would start in the summer before the freshman year to become acclimated to the campus and college life.

Consequently, one of the authors of this article played as a former student athlete at a HBCU during the 70s and noted that not much has changed since that time for some institutions. Anecdotally, he recalled, "We did not have many of the opportunities as our counterparts at the PWI Universities. We did not have the academic support, financial support nor the opportunity to make a selection. We were on loans and had to pay as we go for our academic opportunities. When I was a student athlete in school, we made sandwiches before the road trips to eat, because the funds were low or unavailable." These challenges are still quite prevalent through observation of work in HBCUs through the present decade as well. Petr and McArdle (2012) commented that prior to 1980, there was a paucity of or non-

existent research capturing athletes' academic performance. Neither PWIs nor MSIs systematically collected data on student-athletes' school success and achievement. Collective experiences acknowledged the work needed for student-athlete success underpinned the qualitative assumptions regarding academic reform, athlete identity, and athletics equity. Creswell (2014) admonishes researchers to approach research from a reflexive position whereby they acknowledge and examine how their personal backgrounds and experiences form interpretations of content in a study. Subsequently, our assumptions undergirding this conceptual and policy article are as follows:

1. Support the Knight Commission concept of the student athlete in lieu of solely athlete and the NCAA's focus on submission of outcome data on athletes' academic success.
2. Beyond athlete identity, athletes need an understanding of their own social-cultural awareness and that of others to successfully navigate college experiences and athletics.
3. Higher education institutions move beyond solely brand equity as a focus of their own advancement and ensure athletes have the tools necessary for success beyond playing solely for the schools.
4. Institutions should regularly assess the academic as well as wellness programs of all athletes including mental health checks.
5. Academic programs and institutions must regularly establish, define, and assess performance outcomes that specific address graduation, college-to-career transitions, and career readiness.
6. Institutions must collect performance data from employers and other stakeholders on their preparation of the athlete beyond playing for the institution.

7. Stakeholders, college coaches, athletes, alumni, peers, and families must move beyond the premise of athletes must/can only go pro to be successful in life and must embrace a framework that provides multiple notions of success.

To address the inequities and current deficit models for compensating and rewarding athletes and the need for academic reform regarding academic preparation, we propose a conceptual framework and model of practices to improve the quality of athletes' schooling experiences in higher education as well as areas where higher education administrators and faculty can improve curricular models and strategies. Our model extends beyond traditional models of athletes as sole commodities used only when they are/were able to play to the athlete as an institutional and individual asset with obligations by both parties to ensure athlete equity, athlete academic self-efficacy, and athletes' mental health and wellness.

In their review of academic reform on NCAA and , Petr and McArdle (2012) placed the responsibility on all stakeholders whether athletic associations, higher education institutions, policy-makers, and athletics programs to examine the work done with and for athletes.

There was a realization that member colleges can only have minimal impact on what happens to student-athletes before they come to our institutions, so the NCAA should look much more closely at what happens to those student-athletes while they are on our campuses. Thus, the question becomes: How can we create policies, incentives, and best practices that inspire (and/or require) all NCAA constituent groups to place a primary focus on the academic success of student-athletes during their collegiate careers? (Petr & McArdle, 2012).

The authors concur as there is also an urgent need to reconceptualize models the higher education institutions employ in their educational and athletic development of athletes. Hence, the lead researchers of this article have proposed a framework that addresses both academic reform, social/cultural awareness, critical and social justice awareness, and athlete identity, i.e. the Athletics' Academic and Career Equity Model (AACE).

The authors' model was developed from collective years of decades of serving as coaches, advisors of athletes, university administrators of athletes, professors of athletes, K-12 professors of athletes, former service as athletes in high school and/or college as well as an awareness of the literature on best practices for supporting students academically. There are effective models that address the different component's of working with and supporting athletes for specific and separate areas. The authors' model seeks to incorporate success strategies into an overall framework that synthesizes the different elements that comprise effective athlete support and to connect all the stakeholders who are involved in successfully preparing an athlete to meet enrollment, matriculation, graduation, and career outcomes. To extend beyond the concept of brand equity which includes collective branding, industry branding, and corporate branding, the authors' model is designed to provide a framework for institutions to strategize how to help their students succeed to achieve academically - post-matriculation and post-graduation.

Although the NCAA's GRO model was cited as a successful resource for predicting

student-athletes' GPAs, this model is considered novel and lacks empirical data to undergird its validity as a tool for accurately and adequately identifying academic-risk (Johnson, 2013). Additionally, in lieu of examining the athlete from the perspective of deficits or potentially deficit frameworks, our model seeks to focus on the strategies available for assisting all student athletes irrespective of at-risk level which educators are called and behooved to perform through professional codes of ethics and university, college/school, a program accreditation standards and guidelines. Regarding mental health and wellness-support, Klenck (2014) provides eight components for athletic programs in providing effective, collegiate-level mental health services:

- identifying members of the mental health services available;
- screening, recognition, and appropriate referral;
- communicating among members of the mental health services team;
- medication management;
- risk management;
- crisis management; and
- transition of care (pp. 101-102)

Additionally, the authors value these highly-supportive best practices and advocate further in the model due to: (a) the on-going focus on mental health and wellness throughout the academic program including the athlete understanding self selection of seeking help as an appropriate strategy for coping and (b) the inclusion of cultural and social equity and the role cultural consciousness plays in the healthy psycho-social and career development of athletes.

Although athletic identity can supersede gender, race, and ethnicity (Brewer et. al., 1993),

some athletes struggle due to factors related to these demographic variables. Williams (2014) examined the impact of race on student athletes' matriculation. Regarding African American athletes, she writes: When they arrive at college, many Black student-athletes experience an additional set of stressors. These can include a feeling of isolation from the majority and from dominant social-cultural aspects of college life, the absence of supportive social networks outside of sports, academic struggles (and in some instances, barriers) created by socioeconomic challenges. In environments where there are sociocultural differences, some black student-athletes may struggle to transition and fit in (Williams, 2014, pp. 76-77).

Additionally, the authors recognize issues of intersectionality for women of color who are student-athletes. In general, McCall (2005) asserted multiple marginality and intersectionality both address and envelop the dynamic experiences reflected in the multiple threads of race, gender, and class in the lives of women of color.

In the model, an athlete's matriculation and the supports from the institution begin with Stage 1. Acclimation and Orientation in the first year at the institution or academic program and move to Stage 2a. Advisement and Integration and Stage 2b. which commence during the first year of the school, but also contain important steps for the second and third years as on-going strategies and approaches for both the athlete and college advisement, academic, and administrative employees.

Stage 3a. Mentoring, Marketing, and Management begins in the third year or

junior- level coursework and continues through Stage 3b. Career and Psychosocial Services through the senior year/final year of the student-athlete's program of study. In the last phase, Stage 4.

Access, Achievement, and Advancement, this stage includes approaches to employ which are outcomes indicating how well the program and college have assisted the athlete in matriculating and how well the athlete is meeting performance measures that are for his or her individual benefit.

In Stage 1, the primary focus is on helping the student-athlete immerse into the academic culture and expectations for higher education ensuring a strong transition from high school to college and the academic requirements and discipline necessary for success along with the change from high school level athletics expectations to college level expectations. Additionally, the authors recommend introduction to and access to counseling services. Given some athletes struggle from the change of former high school-level star to freshman support, this change in type of athlete identity may require mental health services for athletes experiencing difficulty with acceptance and adjustment even beyond the freshman year. Programs and schools are cautioned about focusing heavily or solely on college athletes being drafted and obtaining positions as the professional sports level as this piece is rare and there are multiple pathways to former athletes' success beyond going pro.

In Stage 2a, the student-athletes would complete their first-year experience course in sections solely for athletes, so the instructors can focus on academic considerations that solely athletes typically experience. Additionally, athletes' access to tutoring services would include instruction in study

skills, metacognitive strategies, and higher order thinking skills. These skills, when used sufficiently, help athletes succeed academically and on criterion and norm- referenced tests and other performance-based assessments. Hora and Holden (2013) found students' types of cognitive engagement correspond with usage of different teaching behaviors and methods as well as usage of different technologies. In Stage 2b, we emphasize instructional development of the faculty members teaching courses so that instructors employ strategies that reach, challenge, and engage the current population of higher education learners and student athletes. Hora and Ferrare (2014) recommended additional research and studies to examine the relationship between specified teaching practices and students' perceptions of quality, effectiveness, and efficacy of these practices.

In Stage 3, the college emphasizes career readiness and strategies for gaining employment and ensuring the right academic coursework is completed so that the athlete is completing the correct program of study. NCAA already requires monitoring of athlete's degree plans and GPAs (Brown, 2014). In Stage 3, students learn about individual branding and marketing themselves to be successful in the designated/desired career trajectory.

Again, the Stage 4 indicators are outcomes to measure how well the respective athletics program and college have assisted the athlete in matriculating and the athlete's own mastery of identified goals from the career inventories completed in the prior years. Brewer et al. (1993) found an athlete's identity supersedes demographic variables such as gender, race, and ethnicity. Colleges and universities must utilize exit surveys with athletes and employer follow- up surveys to examine their effectiveness in preparing the athletes for

positions and careers irrespective of whether they play professional sports or select other types of employment. Again, students' beliefs about the quality, effectiveness, and efficacy of instruction should be assessed (Hora and Ferrare, 2014). These actions reinforce with former athletes that more options exist beyond solely going pro and are catalysts for data-driven performance expectations and decision-making. These practices can inform future programmatic changes as well as instructional improvements.

In Stages 1 and 3a, we focus on critical, social justice, and culturally relevant pedagogies due to the impact of diversity variables on student-athlete experiences in college. A few recent university incidents that have resulted in violence or conflict have related to acceptance of different types of diversity. Stakeholders must react to these incidents when better approaches are more proactive and prescriptive. All instructional members must receive professional development in appropriate strategies for communicating with and teaching diverse students and millennial learners. Pedagogy must aid the instructor in engaging the learner. Our experiences inform us that the instructional pieces of students' enrollment require significant improvement and when students fail, it is not always or primarily the fault of the students.

Recommendations for NCAA Division Rule Updates and Mitigating FBS and FCS Differences

Beyond the recommendations for implementing and utilizing the academic model, we propose several recommendations for reforming NCAA policies to benefit athletes given their goal of athletes becoming educated graduates at all schools, particularly FCS, diverse schools, varying locale schools, and smaller schools to adopt. As an example, one can make the argument for increasing the number of games an FCS can play against an

FBS. FBS has capped the number at 11 games per season. The FCS has a 12-game season with their conference schedule. They usually play one FCS game per season, if it is allowed by their conference. If a school was a conference champ with an undefeated record and placed high in championship series, perhaps that school could have a chance to play against more Power Five schools the next season. Some schools have been able to transition to the FBS level and Bowl Championship School conferences, but additional research is needed in these areas (McEvoy, Morse, & Shapiro, 2013). However, as stated earlier in this article, guarantee games can pose challenges with student safety if they are not prepared to play against more athletically competitive schools (Nocera, 2016). This piece can be explored further on ways to ensure student safety, but allow opportunities to play select schools.

As an example, FCS schools should try to hire FBS coaches once they leave those schools. If an FCS could get a former FBS coach, they would utilize the skills of a higher ranking coach and that coach may have a better wealth of knowledge to help a FCS school. They get a coach from a higher caliber program and they may win some championships as well recruit a better-quality student-athlete for their programs. In a qualitative research study of 18 NCAA DI elite college athletes, Becker (2009) identified core traits of highly effective coaches beyond winning games and media recognition. Great coaches are: knowledgeable, committed, disciplined, passionate, inspirational, enthusiastic, integrous, professional, competent, motivating, responsive, and experienced.

Furthermore, they can utilize strategies such as hiring former professional athletes

as coaches of their schools. The former athletes could connect talented athletes with recruiters and schools where they used to play. Historically, great coaches are those who worked at the collegiate and professional levels. This type of experience was further recognized by the diverse athletes in Becker's (2009) study who valued having coaches who played sports. These DI elite student-athletes described "veteran coaches who were highly respected within their sports. Furthermore, the athletes granted an automatic level of credibility to coaches who were well known or had positive reputations" (Becker, 2009, p. 101).

FCS should work on increasing their profiles. FCS schools should consider strategies for garnering more name recognition for their graduates and name behind the student for the next 5-10 years of the job. The FCS universities name can assist with getting student athletes employment after graduation with possibly a higher salary.

FBS and PWIs have more alumni and donors to support their athletics programs and have a systematic, highly functional and operational advancement and developments platform and orientation. As an example, TAMU received \$260,000,000 in donor funding which was approximately double to the donations received by other schools (Zwernamen, 2018). FCS may not currently have the money of FBS, but could focus on name recognition of successful graduates, increased networking and externships with alumni, and garnering more alumni and other donor support. These foci are particularly important for HBCUs and other MSIs. Gasman (2013) admonishes HBCUs to emphasize fundraising at new student orientation at the onset of their college matriculation. Furthermore, HBCUs

should understand the funding agendas of donors which change over time and trends (Gasman 2013).

Both FBS and FCS should make the transition to college more readily accessible for students, eliminate the pressure of college athletics by providing stipends for students' success with monetary support. Both types of schools have the responsibility of ensuring athletes' success. Institutions should provide more academic support for each individual student and their teams, hire more academic advisors and meet the expectations mandated by the NCAA for successful graduation rates per academic school year. Since 1965, NCAA has focused on minimum graduation rates of athletes so this piece continues to remain constant (Brown, 2014).

Conclusions and Implications

For future research efforts, the primary authors will provide validation study data further examining, critiquing, assessing, revising, and/or supporting usage of the AACE model. Additionally, the authors will examine application of the model across different types of sports and different types of colleges (FBS, FCS, ethnically diverse institutions, urban/suburban/rural locales). Additional research is needed on post-secondary teaching practices and the relationship between teaching practices and students' perceptions of the quality and efficacy of instruction (Hora and Ferrare, 2014). Future studies should also examine the respective aspects of athletes' matriculation through programs that require additional support due to their prevalence along institutional demographic or division variables. The authors recognize assessment and evaluation of practices

and implementation of best practices is a cyclical and on-going process.

In conclusion, the challenge for all stakeholders involved in athletes' education and sports participation including the athletes themselves, is to improve options, access to services, and outcome measurement and attainment. In development of the model, the authors discussed the notion of how all stakeholders, can best strategize and provide institutions with tools to help student-athletes achieve academically. The authors understand institutions should have on-going dialogues for athletes, but other populations as well. When stakeholders use outcome-based performance measures, operate transparently, employ accountability and data-driven approaches to student success, academic reform will be more than relevant, but also standard practice.

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Mathematics Thinking in Early Learners through the Lens of Quality Children's Literature

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Abstract

The paper addresses how mathematical concepts and skills can be less daunting when teachers allow learners to engage in experiences through mathematics and reading instruction. Additionally, this paper conceptualizes mathematical thinking through the use of age appropriate quality children's literature which allows for productive experiences that enhance the mastery of mathematics thinking. This research demonstrates effective ways to select quality literature, which can be used to conceptualize mathematical concepts.

Keywords: literacy, mathematics, critical thinking

Introduction

Mathematical thinking is frequently seen by many educators as a challenging content to teach and challenging for students to grasp. This school of thought often comes from early experiences, which may not have been positive. But imagine if one gave a child a book to enhance his/her development of mathematical concepts and skills? Perhaps the abstractness of mathematical concepts could be conceptualized for the youngest of learners. The authors' collective experiences with integrating reading and math have produced a convincing thought that if math skills and concepts are taught using children's favorite books, even the most reluctant learner can be helped to engage in and learn from their

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explorations and experiences with math concepts and skills "In the integration of mathematics and children's literature, the literature becomes the context, and mathematics can be taught and constructed naturally through questioning and experience" (Green, Gallagher, & Hart, 2018, p.3). The intent of this article is to share some of the authors' experiences with using an integrated approach to teaching math in early childhood classroom.

The notion of using an integrated reading and math approach is not a new approach. Researchers, Siebert and Draper (2012), have long stated literature and math instruction should be intermingled. However, they caution, "...before literacy and mathematical educators can work together effectively, they must establish a bridge of communication between two fields that recognizes and respect the discipline-specific goals of each field and that attempts to build common ground from which meaningful literacy instruction in a mathematics classroom can emerge." Indeed, integrated approaches to instruction have been widely advocated as one of the ways to reduce fragmentation throughout the curriculum. Of course, in some important ways, learning to read and learning math are different.

Math instruction time is often somber and tense. Rigor and seriousness are essential, but so are the excitement and creativity that teachers generate when teaching language arts. Similarities do exist between learning to read and learning math. For example, both involve skills. But this similarity also leads to another difference: For reading, there's one gatekeeper skill, decoding. While decoding alone isn't sufficient for reading proficiency, it's the essential skill that gives readers access to the entire world of printed matter. Unfortunately, this isn't the case for math. As early learners, students learn to

count and add and subtract small numbers; next, they learn about place value and working with greater numbers; then they move on to multiplication and division. They do all of this first with whole numbers, and then face fractions and decimals and how to add, subtract, multiply, and divide them as well. In math, there's no one gatekeeper skill that students can practice and perfect. The concepts and skills build and build. It can be daunting.

Research suggest it is possible that abstract mathematical concepts and skills can be less daunting when teachers allow learners to deeply engage in explorations and experiences through math and reading integration (Tasdan, 2015). Conceptualizing mathematical thinking through the use of age appropriate quality children's literature allows of productive experiences that enhance the mastery of mathematical skills and concepts. Moreover, Cunnington, Kantrowitz, Harnett, and Hill-Ries (2014) state rigorous interdisciplinary instruction supports cognitive skill development while increasing students' literacy and math learning through enhancing their ability to reflect meaningfully on their own work.

As researchers working with teachers from a literacy-focused elementary school, the challenge was to figure out how to translate the key tenets of integrated literacy instruction into actual classroom practices that worked well for the students. Focusing on the integration of reading and math, two basic questions were asked: Why use literature to teach math? and How should we go about infusing math with reading? Of course, numerous answers emerged to the why question. The simplest and most compelling reasons were:

- evidence of a current movement toward integrated multidisciplinary curriculum;
- potential benefits of integrated instruction for teaching concepts and skills in a more holistic, rather than fragmented, way;
- theoretical grounding of integrated approaches, as found in the work of such widely respected scholars as Kilpatrick, Swafford, and Findell (2010);
- support of integrate instruction given by key professional organizations such as the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, the National Council of Teachers of English, and the National Association for the Education of Young Child; and
- frequent occurrence of integrated topics in widely respected journals, such as *The Reading Teacher* or the *Educational Research and Review*.

Without belaboring the point, there were ample reasons to move forward with finding ways to make the learning connection of reading and math a reality in the classroom. However, beyond the rational of theoretical support, the need to figure out the conditions for making the integration of reading and math work, prevailed.

Rickleman and Nichols (2001) suggest that "a key for successful teaching and learning in reading and math is to make sense of the text and to relate the information it conveys to real-life experiences" (p. 729). Therefore, no condition emerged more important to success than that of choosing the 'right' books. Massey and Riley (2013) argue trade books assisted with mathematic content do not facilitate of reinforce students' comprehension of content area material unless incorporated into instruction

purposefully and appropriately. Therefore, guidelines were developed for selecting books, concluding that minimally the books must allow us to:

- make linkages to our student's background knowledge;
- bridge abstract knowledge to concrete knowledge;
- apply new knowledge to real world situations.

Beyond these guidelines, there was a grappling with the question of whether the types of books, fiction or informational, should influence the selection of books. Accepted wisdom has been that young children grasp the concepts of fictional books because of their interest in fantasy and their constant involvement in play as a key mechanism for learning. However, the explorations with the question of the type of book to select from, fiction as opposed to nonfiction, led to some interesting discoveries.

Quite recently, more attention has been given to the value of informational books in early childhood curriculum (Hill, Friedland, & McMillen, 2016). The findings revealed that informational books are popular among children and are gaining prominence by book publishers. It was also resolved that the selection of books should not be limited to fictional books but should adhere rigidly to our guidelines for selecting books. Yet, it was decided to begin the explorations with fictional books. Mindful of the guidelines for selecting books, a list of timeless classics was generated:

- Arthur's TV Trouble by Marc Brown;
- The Very Hungry Caterpillar by Eric Carle;
- The Grouchy Ladybug by Eric Carle;
- Miss Viola and Uncle Ed Lee by Alice Faye Duncan;

- *Willie Jerome* by Alice Faye Duncan;
- *The Jazz Fly* by Matthew Gollub;
- *Amazing Grace* by Mary Hoffman;
- *I Love You Stinky Face* by Lisa McCourt;
- *All By Myself* by Mercer Mayer;
- *If You Give A Mouse a Cookie* by Laura Numeroff;
- *Leola and the Honeybears* by Meodye Benson Rosales;
- *Bunny Cakes* by Rosemary Wells;

Emphasizing the books selected, the math content may be either explicit or implicit. For example, the Grouchy Ladybug by Eric Carle explicitly allows for the teaching of time, a math concept that is identified in the standards for mastery by kindergarten children. In contrast, *Willie Jerome* by Alice Faye Duncan presents implicit information about time, e.g. the time of day that is considered inappropriate for Willie Jerome to practice his music. Importantly though, all the books above fit the guidelines for selecting books.

The answer to the question of how to use books to teach math concepts and skills is illustrated in this section. For some of the books on the list above, activities that have been used successfully to teach mathematical skills and concepts are described.

**Arthur's TV Trouble* by March Brown

Construct a pet store in the classroom. Have students bring in their favorite stuffed animals and make a price tag for them. The prices should be set up to match the number concepts being taught. Have the students figure out how much of his allowance Arthur will need to save in order to purchase a pet from the pet store. Then, using play money, allow the students to purchase their favorite pets from the pet store.

**Willie Jerome and Miss Viola and Uncle Ed Lee* by Alice Faye Duncan

Make a hypothetical schedule of a typical

day for Willie Jerome utilizing time segments appropriate to the level of the students. Considering time in relation to seasons, determine the seasons that are represented by the 'courtship' of Miss Viola and Uncle Ed Lee. It is also possible to engage children in an author study by having them vote on the book by Duncan that they liked most. Using paper clips to vote on their favorite story have students clip the paper clips together. Using a ruler to measure the length of the paper clips, have the judges of the contest to determine which book the class liked most.

**The Jazz Fly* by Matthew Gollub

Make a "jazz fly" by writing the recipe and discussing the number and shapes of items needed: 1 Oreo cookie, 1 miniature Oreo cookie, 6 pretzel sticks, 2 red hot candies, 2 waxed paper wings, etc. You are now ready to extend this activity by having a "Jazz Fly" Concert. Make a concert schedule and tickets to go to the Jazz Fly concert. Students entertain at the concert with a chorale reading of the book.

**Amazing Grace* by Mary Hoffman

Make spiders and have students number the legs on the spiders. Allow children to count (by twos) the legs on the spider. Push the math concepts of the book forward by providing coins from the U.S. and Trinidad so that students can compare the coins and then use them to purchase the spiders made by the class.

**All by Myself* by Mercer Mayer

Using ordinal numbers, recount the sequence of events of the book. Have children use teddy bear cookies as counters to vote on the kind of juice they want to have with their cookies for snack. Reinforcing the main idea of the book, make a graph to show the number of students who have little sisters, little brothers, or neither.

**Leola and the Honeybears* by Meodye Benson Rosales

Use counters to vote on the children's favorite story of Godilocks and the three little

bears or the Leola version. Reinforcing the skill of identifying main characters and counting, allow students to vote on Goldilocks or Leola as their favorite character. Select students who need extra work on counting to be judges and allow them to count the votes. To teach fractions, have children guess in terms of fraction the amount of porridge/soup taken from the bears' bowls, e.g. about $\frac{1}{8}$ of a cup from Papa Bear but $\frac{8}{8}$ from Baby Bear's bowl. Also, practice fractions by having children use a recipe to measure ingredients for a cookie activity that allows students to prepare a special treat for Baby Bear who was left without a nutritional lunch.

**Bunny Cakes* by Rosemary Wells

Using clothespins have students make a graph showing the cake that Granny would like best. Using a measuring cup, have children measure the ingredients needed to make a bunny cake for Ruby, the main character of the story.

It is noted that many of the activities above can be used with a variety of books and can be adapted for use with children from pre-K through second grade. Teaching mathematics through children's literature provides students mathematical experiences based on their interests (Haury, 2001), and allow opportunities for students to actively engage in mathematical ideas and promote critical thinking by creating an environment for students to ask questions elicit discussion, and make personal connections (Anderson, Anderson, Shapiro, 2004). The main point is, however, that if early childhood educators use books that are carefully selected and pre-examined for the value in teaching mathematical concepts and skills, the students will be motivated to

engage productively in learning. The students will ask more questions, make more requests, and become involved in more useful learning experiences than otherwise imagined, just as mouse did when he was given a cookie.

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Vocabulary Instructions Matters!

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Abstract

This article describes the development of strategies to increase the teachers' knowledge of vocabulary development and instruction. This type of knowledge has become progressively more imperative as all classroom teachers are expected to assist learners obtain language and literacy standards that include vocabulary attainment. Vocabulary is a crucial factor of reading comprehension and content area knowledge. This is even more of a greater determinant with English learners (Dugay, Kenyon, Haynes, August & Yanosky, 2016).

A great deal of research converges on vocabulary knowledge as a key lever for overall academic achievement. Research says: "Improve vocabulary, comprehension improves too." But many classrooms seem trapped by their weekly schedule, which does not provide opportunities for independent practice with vocabulary to improve retention. Vocabulary-building for those in need is best achieved by explicit instruction. Research identifies the critical factors for successful vocabulary instruction.

Introduction

Of the many compelling reasons for providing students with instruction to build vocabulary, none is more important than the contribution of vocabulary knowledge to reading comprehension. Indeed, one of the most enduring findings in reading research is the extent to which students' vocabulary knowledge relates to their reading comprehension (e.g. Anderson, R. C., & Freebody, P. 1981; Baumann, 2009; Nagy,

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4227+0 " Y j gp" one" vj kpnš" qh" xqecdwrct { " kp" vj g" gctn { " ercuutqqo u." vj gtg" ku" c" i qqf " ej cpeg" vj ere is a thought" qh" rjpi " rkuu" qh" y qtf u" ltqo " c" ur gmkpi " rku0' It is an assumption" vj cv' the majority of people" uj ctg" vj g" eqo o qp" ej kf j qqf " g z r g t g p e g" qh" i g w k p i " spelling y qtf u" qp" O q p f c { . " y t k k p i " vj g" y q t f u" h k x g" v k o g u" g c e j " q p " V w g u f c { . " y t k k p i " vj g" f g h k p k k p p " q p " Y g f p g u f c { . " w u k p i " vj g" y q t f u" k p " c " u g p v g p e g" q p " V j w t u f c { . " c p f " v c n k p i " c " u r g m k p i " v g u v" q p " H k f c { 0 " " V j k u " k u " c " x g t { " e q p x g p v k p c n " y c { " q h" k p u t w e k q p 0' Q f f n { . " g p q w i j " vj c v' u { u r g o k e " y c { " q h" n g c t p k p i " x q e c d w r c t { " u v k n ' g z k u u " k p " o c p { " e r c u u t q q o u " v q f c { 0 " " " E f w e c v t u " c p f " r c t g p w " q h" u e j q q n - c i g f " e j k f t g p have asked their e j k f t g p " c d q w " vj g" y q t f " r k u v" h t q o " vj g" p r i o r y g g m ' c p f " have gotten t j g " following t g u r q p u g . " o vj c v' y c u " r u v " y g g m " y g " j c x g " p g y " y q t f u" vj k u " y g g m o " " " " V j k u " c t v l e r g " g z r m t g u " vj g" t q r g " q h" x q e c d w r c t { " k p " vj g " t g c f k p i " f g x g n r o g p v " c p f " u w i i g u u " u q o g " e r c u u t q q o / v g u g f " c r r t q c e j g u " h q t " p w t w t k p i " x q e c d w r c t { " f g x g n r o g p v " c p f " k p v g t g u v " k p " u w f g p w 0'

Vocabulary knowledge is essential for success in reading. Students cannot understand what they read without understanding what most of the words mean. Decades of research have confirmed the important role that vocabulary plays in reading comprehension and in students' overall academic success (Hiebert & Kamil, 2005). Yet there is an alarming word-knowledge gap between students who come from economically advantaged backgrounds and those who live in poverty (Hart & Risley, 1995). The differences in vocabulary knowledge begin before children enter school and—without intervention—the gap grows even wider as students move from grade to grade.

Reading instruction that focuses on the growth of children's vocabulary results in enhancing their abilities to infer meanings

and to better comprehend what they read. Vocabulary instruction is partially an outcome of comprehension skills, and reading comprehension is partially an outcome of vocabulary (Nation, K., Snowling, M., & Clarke, P., 2007). Thus, they provide a mutual benefit to promoting reading development. As children's vocabulary grows their ability to comprehend what they read grows as well; furthermore, as their comprehension skills grow so do their abilities to learn new words from context. Children with broad vocabulary knowledge are better to infer the meanings of unfamiliar words in the text that they read. Consequently, vocabulary knowledge promotes text processing, interactions with peers and teachers, and lays the foundation for effective reading skills.

What Is Vocabulary?

Broadly defined, vocabulary is knowledge of words and word meanings (Kamil & Hiebert, 2005). However, vocabulary is more complex than this definition suggests. First, words come in two forms: oral and print. Oral vocabulary includes those words that are recognized and used in listening and speaking. Print vocabulary includes those words are recognized and used in reading and writing. Many educators have discussed which of the two forms is more developed in children. Research suggests that childrens' listening and speaking skills are more developed than their reading and writing skills (Kamil & Hiebert, 2005). Second, word knowledge also comes in two forms, receptive and productive. Receptive vocabulary includes words that are recognized when heard or seen. Productive vocabulary includes words that are used when spoken or written. Receptive vocabulary is typically larger than productive vocabulary, and may

include many words to which are assigned some meaning, even if their full definitions and connotations are not known— or ever used while speaking and writing (Graves & Watts-Taffe, 2002).

Adding further complexity, in education, the word vocabulary is used with varying meanings. For example, for beginning reading teachers, the word might be synonymous with “sight vocabulary,” by which they mean a set of the most common words in English that young students need to be able to recognize quickly as they see them in print. However, for teachers of upper elementary and secondary school students, vocabulary usually means the “difficult” words that students encounter in content area textbook and literature selections. Stahl (2005) stated, “Vocabulary knowledge is knowledge; the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world” (p.22).

There is an overwhelming need for more vocabulary instruction at all grade levels by all teachers. The number of words that students need to learn is exceedingly large. Research explains that on average students should add 2,000 to 3,000 new words a year to their reading vocabularies (Beck, McKeown & Kucan, 2002). For fragile readers and students with disabilities the ability to learn and develop vocabulary is a significant challenge for many educators. The challenge for educators is to teach – so the sentence should probably read – For struggling readers and students with disabilities the ability to learn and develop vocabulary is a significant challenge that educators have to help them overcome.

The researchers categorize fragile readers in four categories:

•**Students with limited English** - Spoken and written English is very differently from daily conversational English. This often presents a challenge to students whose first language is not English, and this can also impact their academic performance.

•**Students who do not read outside of school and lack motivation to read** The amount of time spent reading and the amount read are important. For example, a student who reads 21 minutes per day outside of school reads almost 2 million words per year. A student who reads less than a minute per day outside of school reads only 8,000 to 21,000 words per year. An average students in grades 3 through 12 is likely to learn approximately 3,000 new vocabulary words each year, assuming he or she reads between 500,000 and 1 million running words of text a school year (Nagy & Anderson, 1984). Between grades 1 and 3, it is estimated that economically disadvantaged students' vocabularies increase by about 5,000 words per year.

•**Students with reading and learning disabilities** Weaknesses in phonemic awareness, phonics, and word analysis skills prohibit students from reading grade-level content material and the rich opportunity this offers for encountering new, content-related words that can only be found in written English.

•**Students who enter school with limited vocabulary knowledge** At first-grade, high-performing students know about twice as many words as low-performing students, but that differential gets magnified each year, resulting in high-performing 12th grade students knowing about four times as many words as the low performing 12th graders (Hart & Risley, 1995).

To overcome these obstacles, teachers need to engage the best kinds of vocabulary instruction that accommodates and supports that instruction.

Vocabulary Growth and Concept Development

The development of an adequate vocabulary is essential to successful reading ability.

Reading is the basic skill required for all academic areas and yet 80% of students with learning disability have difficulties with reading (Lerner, 2006). Students with dyslexia find it extremely difficult to recognize letters and words and to comprehend printed information. Therefore, it is important that when working with students with learning disabilities, educators and parents not only use specific teaching strategies, but also teach learning strategies - e.g. students with learning disabilities are not only taught what to learn but also how to learn.

Any teaching approach used with students with learning disabilities fall under two broad categories – the remediation approach and the compensation approach (Lewis & Doorlag, 1999). In the remediation approach the focus is on the teaching and re-teaching of basic skills. Repeated practice with a specific list of vocabulary words would fall under the remediation approach. In the compensation approach the focus is on bypassing the student's difficulties. Therefore, in order to compensate for a student's writing difficulties, he may be given a test comprised of multiple choice items where, the student would need to only circle the correct choice. His peers on the other hand may be tested on the same content through short answer questions.

The Phonics approach and the whole language approach have both been used to teach students with learning disabilities. However, it has been found that the phonics approach has had greater impact in teaching these students how to decode words and develop their vocabulary. Once students have gained more confidence in being able to decode words, it then becomes essential to develop their sight vocabulary of irregular words. Some strategies to help students with their vocabulary include:

1. When using the phonics approach, teach letter sound correspondence starting with the most useful consonants – i.e. consonants that are used in most common and frequently occurring words.
2. Use texts that contain words students can decode so that students develop their vocabulary base and gain confidence regarding their reading ability.
3. Use computer programs that provide drill and practice, provide immediate feedback and allow students to self "see" the words in context.
4. For younger students, immerse them in a "print rich" classroom. Label all the objects in the classroom, and then use some of the same words in teacher made "books," thus enabling the students to "see: the words in context.

Use high interest-low vocabulary texts (Lewis & Doorlag, 1999) to help students gain confidence in their reading level, while using materials that are age appropriate in terms of interest.

Active Processing of Vocabulary Instruction

By building connection between "old" vocabulary words and new words found in their reading, students begin to understand

relationships among words they encounter. When instruction is based on building connections, students are not just asked to supply words that fit the example, but rather to describe how words fit in the stories and informational text that they read. While visiting classrooms, the researchers saw many children and teachers such as Mrs. Jackson, a first year teacher who was going over the new vocabulary for the week. When she read the word 'breakfast', she quickly said the word and asked the students, "who can define breakfast and what kinds of food do you eat for breakfast?" Amusingly, the responses were surprising to the first year teacher, Mrs. Jackson. One student shouted, 'breakfast is a meal. One student yelled out, 'we eat chicken for breakfast.' Another student yelled, 'we eat pizza for breakfast.' Mrs. Jackson was shocked that many of her students told her breakfast could be eaten at lunch time and breakfast food could also be lunch food. The students were clearly defining the word 'breakfast' as it relates to their personal experiences. The teacher then provided an example of how the word breakfast was used in the reading passage to help students be able to transfer knowledge.

Knowing a word in the fullest sense goes beyond simply being able to define it or get some gist of it from the context. Active processing that associates experiences and concepts with words contributes significantly to vocabulary growth, enhanced comprehension, and continuous learning. Vocabulary instruction that encourages children to discuss, elaborate, and demonstrate meanings of new words and provide varied opportunities for them to use new words outside of their classroom has been shown to be effective (Beck, McKeown & Kucan,

2002). Such vocabulary instruction is based on and encourages active processing of word meaning.

Explicit Vocabulary Instruction

Teaching vocabulary in a balanced reading program should be grounded in teacher-directed instruction, varied opportunities for students to practice and apply their word knowledge, and exposure to wide reading writing activities in both narrative and informational texts. Students should be engaged in learning new words and expanding their understanding of words through instruction that is based on active processing. That is, students are not just memorizing definitions but are entering information and integrating word meanings with their existing knowledge to build conceptual representation of vocabulary in multiple contextual situations. The following instructional guidelines reflect the inclusion of these active processing components.

Applications and Examples of Successful Vocabulary Instruction

1. Select words for the vocabulary instruction that come from text that students will be reading for the week. This helps make the meaning of words relevant to the context in which they appear and helps to build connections between existing knowledge and new knowledge. Students encounter the new words in a confirmatory manner rather than as an unknown word.
2. Generate instruction on language activities as a primary means for word learning. The focus of these activities should be on engaging the students in generating the learning of new words to enhance remembering and deep processing of the words. Students should be provided multiple opportunities to use

- new words in their speaking, listening, reading, and writing activities.
3. Build a conceptual base for learning the new words. It is good practice to use analogies, simulations, and other relationships to known words to activate the student's background knowledge of concepts of new words.
 4. Provide a variety of instructional strategies that would allow students to mentally visualize the new word, kinesthetically associate the new words, smell, taste, etc.

Application and Examples of Successful Vocabulary Instruction

It is so important that vocabulary instructional practices immerse students in language rich activities that allow students to use their everyday working definition of the word and teaches words in meaningful reading experiences that allow students to further build their comprehension skills. Vocabulary instruction should be teacher-directed instruction, skilled based teaching, and encompass a broad infusion of reading based material and continuous writing opportunity. Vocabulary instruction is often criticized when taught in isolation and taught as a dictionary activity- simply allowing the students to look up and define words.

Concept Map

One instructional technique that builds on students' background knowledge encourages brainstorming and discussion, and at the same time visually displays the connection between previous conceptual knowledge and the new word being learned is the concept map.

Semantic Word Map

Semantic word maps allow students to conceptually explore their knowledge of a new word by mapping it with other words or phrases, which categorically share meaning with the new word. Words that function as labels for and as a means of integration of

concepts do not often clearly demonstrate the meaning behind the concepts when viewed alone. Word maps allow students to learn the connection among several words in order to provide a clear definition of the concept represented. There are three components to a semantic map:

1. Core question or concept: this is a key word or phrase that is the main focus of the map.
2. Strands: subordinate ideas that help explain or clarify the main concept. These can be generated by the students.
3. Supporting information: details, inferences and generalization that are related to each strand. Supports clarify the strands and distinguish one strand from another.

Semantic Webbing

Another method that graphically illustrates how to associate words meaningfully and allows students to make connections between what they know and about words and how words are related is semantic webbing. This strategy allows the student to create an illustration that conveys a message with a meaning. The student draws a series of circles and lines that names a word and depict the definition of words by developing a relationship between the two symbols. Words are placed inside the circle to express the vocabulary word of choice and a definition is placed inside another circle shape.

Knowledge, Information and Memory Clue (K.I.M.)

The purpose of the KIM strategy is to help students understand the meaning of the Key Concepts/Vocabulary words by using the surrounding text in the reading. It also provides an opportunity for the

students to illustrate or write a clue that would allow them to remember the meaning of the new word/concept being learned.

How to use K.I.M. in the classroom.

Students are given the diagram to write their key concept or vocabulary. In the "I" box students write the word or key concept being taught. Next, students complete the "I" by defining the word or key concept and providing an alternate definition, description or additional detail about the concept. In the final box, "M" students include a diagram or picture that helps them remember the concept. After the chart is complete students construct a personal sentence using the new word.

Conclusion

Fragile readers and students with learning disabilities in particular have difficulty learning and retaining new words. The process of learning new words is often slow and labored. These students need concrete strategies and continuous exposure to the new word in order for that new word to become a part of the student's long term memory. The key things to remember when teaching fragile readers and students with learning disabilities is provide strategies, repeated exposures, real life definitions and authentic experiences in which students can apply their new word! Lastly, have fun with your students and their new ability to unlock the meaning of new words.

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Video-Based Observations: Improving Clinical Teachers' Self-Reflection in Education Preparation Programs

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Abstract

This paper addresses how education preparation programs can use video-based observations to provide opportunities for clinical teachers to be self-reflective in their field-based experiences. Additionally, this paper addresses how clinical teachers conceptualize the video-based observation to improve on their teaching practices.

Introduction

Education preparation programs (EPP) across the nation have become progressively motivated on constructing their programs to meet evolving needs of the clinical teacher, as well as the P-12 environment (Baecher, McCormack, & Kung, 2014; de Oliveira & Gallardo-Echenique, 2015). During the stage of field experience, which takes place in the P-12 setting, clinical teachers have both in-service teachers and university faculty to serve as mentors. It is during this period clinical teachers have the opportunity to be reflective about their planning, instruction and assessment practices. For novice teachers, this process requires a skill set of effectively noticing areas of strengthening as opposed to judging; exploring rather than evaluating (Baecher, McCormack, & Kung, 2014). In order to guide the clinical teacher to develop this skill set, often experienced supervisors engage in a variety of approaches. One of the effective developments in clinical teacher observation to

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160

bridge the gap of theory and practice is the use of video observations. Christ, Arya, & Chiu (2017) explain, video use in education preparation programs allow clinical teachers and their mentors the chance to create a dense shared experience.

Moreover, the reviews of recordings of their lessons permit an engagement of co-construction of meaning of specific sequences of behaviors for analysis and discussion. When video observations are involved, clinical teachers do not have to rely on their recall of the lesson nor the interpretation of events from the supervisors. A collaborative examination between the two parties can enhance the learning and development of the clinical teachers. (Baecher, McCormack, & Kung, 2014; Baecher & Kung, 2014; Christ, Arya, & Chiu, 2017).

This study explored how collaborative video analysis among clinical teachers and their university supervisors served as a form of effective self-reflection. The initial teacher licensure program, in which this research was conducted, involves an average of 100 field experience students per year. From the time of admission to the completion of the program a student spends over 1,300 hours in the P-12 environment. Video recording is used throughout stages of the program in various ways. During the latter two semesters, each clinical teacher has a minimal of three formal video observations during their year-long clinical teaching. However, the clinical teachers and supervisors have the option to use the video system for informal observations, something commonly done. Additionally, a video library is established from selected admissions with the option for university professors to use in their classroom teaching in the earlier stages of the EPP. After three years of using the video based program, the researchers decided to conduct an inquiry of the practice.

Grounded in the utilization of video observation, the authors inquiry was guided by three questions:

1. What did clinical teachers independently attend to in their analysis of their video teaching?
2. What was the content of the clinical teacher conversations about the videos of teaching?
3. How did the clinical teacher view participation in these conversations?

Video Based Professional Development for Clinical Teacher

As previously stated each clinical teacher is required to complete a minimal of three video observations during the year-long teaching experience. However, the total number of observations is seven. During the beginning stage, the students complete a professional development with the categorization of the use of video into three applications including: orientation, support, and assessment. The clinical teacher shows the necessity of application throughout the experience.

The first application is orientation, which emphasizes the use of informally using the video of teaching to conduct self-reflections. With this application, there is an allowance for the illustration of performance without the stress of a formal observation. Pedagogical and methodological goals can be set, established, and practiced before the university supervisor conducts a formal observation. The students are given key questions to ask themselves, which they record in a reflective journal. Narrative data from the journals serve as a contextualizing agent to bring the realities of teaching to the clinical teacher. Researchers support this application of video observation. According to Baecher & Kung (2014), learning through videos emphasizes the process of observation/reflection within

your own teaching, which allows for the clinical teacher to have a realistic picture of their performance. within your own teaching, which allows for the clinical teacher to have realistic picture of their performance.

The second application is support. Much like the orientation, the support application allows for the clinical teacher to set pedagogical and methodological goals. However, there is a support system to assist the cooperating teacher. This can be during both formal and informal observations, in which collaborative analysis work to identify areas which support the established goals. Also, areas which are not sustenance of the goals can be redirected. In support Clarke, Triggs, and Nielsen (2014) claim the cooperating teacher's role is reported as a centrality in the development of the clinical teacher. There is great importance during the examination of the video reflections with the cooperating teacher to be actively engaged in the process. Hence, the level of participation moves from being a teacher serving as supervisor of practicum to a teacher serving as teacher educator. With this role, video observations serve as “game film” during coaching sessions.

The support is not limited to the cooperating teacher. The clinical teachers also have the opportunity to share their videos in coaching huddles, which can be viewed by their peers. Peer reflections can serve as an additional inquiry as whether goals are met.

The final application is assessment. This is a time for formal observations, in which the clinical teacher, cooperating teacher and university supervisor work collaboratively to assess the benchmarks for the established goals. Established key competencies which are met can be identified. Furthermore, competencies which

need to be addressed at the next benchmark can be recognized and a plan of action for upcoming benchmarks can be established for improvement. Kopcha and Alger (2014), stated collaborative reflections with video can permit effective coaching, explicit articulation of both met and unmet competencies, and overall explorations.

The process of the use of video teaching for observation is for the clinical teacher to move from an outer core of orientation application through the application of support to reach the point of assessment application, which brings the student to becoming an effective clinical teacher.

Method

In order to achieve research base video-based discourse in the clinical teaching process, the clinical teachers completed a pre-survey on their likely use of video observations. At the conclusion of the experience, the clinical teachers completed a post-survey to collect any new outlook on video-based observations. The actual video artifacts were recorded by the clinical teacher, cooperating teacher or the university supervisor in a local P-12 partner school. This research aims to explore the content of clinical teaching observations of the teaching process, the nature of reflections throughout the process and engagement of the stakeholders in the contextualizing of the teaching process.

Context

This qualitative study is framed in a theoretical framework of socio-cultural theory (Christ et al, 2017). The theory undergirds three tenants of video based observations, including 1) social interactions, 2) modeling and scaffolding within the zone of proximal development and 3) artifacts. The

social interaction helps learning to occur and for the learning to be internalized. Moreover, learning within the zone of proximal development supports modeling and scaffolding. Lastly artifacts, specifically videos, mediate the learning process (Christ, Arya, & Chiu 2017).

Participants

The study took place in a large urban college with approximately 100 students admitted to the Education Preparation Program (EPP), from early childhood to secondary certification areas. The areas of certification were comprised of all levels early childhood to secondary. All students have access to the video observations in their field experience. However, the study focused on the clinical teachers in the final two semesters of the program - a total of 32 students. Each student was required to complete a minimal of three video observations.

Procedures/ Data Collection and Analysis

During a pre-requisite week of orientation, a beginning discourse of video observation begins with the clinical teachers and the university supervisors. The following questions shaped the conversation:

1. What did clinical teachers independently attend to in their analysis of their video teaching?
2. What was the content of the clinical teacher conversations about the videos of teaching?
3. How did the clinical teacher view participation in these conversations?

To acquire the desired initial data, information was collected from multiple sources; a) initial survey with objective questions, b) graphic organizer, with video observation as the key concept and c) open conversation.

To gain information at the end of the semester, the same actions were repeated. Additionally, Observation Reflection sheets, Observations Evaluation Instrument, and annotated comments from the actual videos were used to secure common threads.

Findings

The findings of the data produced three major outcomes.

The first outcome addressed the first question- *What did clinical teachers independently attend to in their analysis of their video teaching?*

The data revealed the clinical teachers readily focused on content knowledge. However, during the week of orientation, overwhelmingly the clinical teachers thought classroom management would be the key focus of video teaching. One 4-8 math major was quoted, "I noticed I called the addend, the sum. I think I was nervous." Another EC-6 clinical teacher stated during a phonics lesson, "I cannot believe I mispronounced the phonemes." An additional EC-6 clinical teacher indicated she should have addressed a deeper understanding of habitats when the students asked questions about more exotic animals. More often than not, the clinical teachers noticed errors in the content of their teaching. Several assumed it was due to nervousness, few reported it was due to lack of knowledge. When questioned, the cooperating teachers and university supervisors commonly agreed.

A second theme surrounded the anxiety level of viewing their video teaching arose. A number of the students thought they would have a high level of anxiety with viewing themselves teaching. This addressed the second question - *What was the content of the clinical teacher conversations about the videos of teaching?* During the orientation,

using a 5-point Likert scale survey, seventy-eight percent of the clinical teachers answered medium high to high level of anxieties. At the end of the field experience the levels dropped dramatically. The data results established the percent plummeted to forty-seven percentage. In dialogue, a 4-8 science major revealed, "I thought I would hate seeing myself video teaching, but I actually liked it. I could really be reflective." A human performance major, stated, I like seeing myself because when my university supervisor discussed strengths and weaknesses I was able to actually see it." Overall the clinical teachers felt the video teaching was not as "scary," as reported by a 7-12 ELAR major. The beginning shared thought was the high anxiety of level of viewing the video teaching did not actually materialized.

A final outcome addressed the question- *How did the clinical teacher view participation in these conversations?* Many of the clinical teachers reported they assumed conversations surrounding the video teaching would address their weakness or challenges during the application of support of assessment. However, the end results demonstrated modeling and scaffolding which occurred and was very

very positive. A special education major quantified "My cooperating teacher showed me my strong points. She pointed out the place the students were really into my lesson and how I should have continued to broaden the scope." Likewise, one music major spoke of the ways his teacher modeled a continuation of his lesson.

Additionally, the clinical teachers contributed much of their methodology growth to the video teaching. As a major topic of conversation, several clinical teachers

conveyed during the application of orientation seeing their video teaching allowed for an excellent time of self-reflection. A particular EC-6 major indicated, she could be more reflective when she saw her video teaching as opposed to trying to remember what happened. She stated, "With so much going on in the middle of teaching, I forgot what happened. I like being able to see myself."

Discussion

With the triangulation of the pre- and post-surveys, self-reflection logs and interviews, as a result of the study, the researchers found that video teaching is a useful tool to assist clinical teachers. This practice made it likely the clinical teachers could be reflective and proactive in resolving pedagogy and methodology concerns in their teaching. Baecher, McCormack, and Kung (2014) confirms video teaching holds great potential to move educators forward. The findings of this study illuminates several exciting ways to enhance clinical teachers' reflection. All stakeholders, including the clinical teachers, the cooperating teachers and the university supervisors were insightful in the development of the unlocking potentials for video teaching, which include:

1. Clinical teachers could be encouraged to video their first experience in the classroom as to lay the groundwork for their potential growth. When lessons are independently viewed, an opportunity presents itself to scaffold learning. This type of professional development can serve as a springboard to ongoing self-reflection as the clinical teachers matriculates through their year-long teaching process.
2. Clinical teachers could use video teaching to gather data to conduct

action research for their own professional growth. This would allow the clinical teacher to make changes in their methodology prior to formal observations. When clinical teachers independently view lessons, an opportunity presents itself to compare and contrast their findings. Additionally, responses to the data can enhance their methodology design.

3. Clinical teachers, cooperating teachers and university supervisors can independently view the video and identify areas of discussion. The stakeholders can come to a consensus of areas which warrant further reflections. This type of support system allows for the exchange to be more collaborative, again working to produce an intuitive teacher.

Conclusion

By exploring the use of video teaching with clinical teachers' observations, this research surfaced a multitude of opportunities to assist the students with self-reflection and interpretation, and overall professional improvement. By considering the attitudes towards and practices of using video, this research seeks to surface the difficulties and opportunities that arise from multi-layered work of supervising clinical teachers with video review. Notwithstanding some amount of hesitancy to engross in video observation, the consequences of the research show that the presence of video review in the observation cycle can enlarge in-person, live observations by promoting both supervisors and clinical teachers to concentrate on clinical teachers and student performances that might otherwise go unobserved. Assumed the ubiquity of

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In Pursuit of the Doctoral Degree: An Analysis of Socialization and Professionalization of Graduate Students at an HBCU

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Abstract

The desire to teach, research, or have an advanced career in a higher education institution or professional organization is usually what motivates a student to enter a doctoral program. Unfortunately, many students who have this desire do not truly understand the rigor, demands and expectations of a doctoral program resulting in students becoming discouraged and choosing to leave the program. However, for those that choose to remain in the program, it is not because the program became easier, but rather the student made a conscious decision to endure through socialization and professionalization. This conceptual paper focuses attention on improving the professionalization of doctoral students, constructing ways to bridge isolation and social distance between students, peers, and faculty, and the critical need to offer more academic support for students pursuing a doctoral degree at a Historically Black University.

Introduction

With even the best of new doctoral programs, there is always a refining process. Especially now, when the concern regarding education is so great, the proper training of personnel who will oversee its administration assumes added significance. The HBCU doctoral program used for this paper is not only adapting to new standards, but also endeavoring, for the first time, to incorporate both a structured course planning model and online

VOLUME 11, ISSUE 4,
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THE NATIONAL
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learning into its delivery model. New required professional development sessions have been added for candidates (those who are at the dissertation writing stage) to perfect their understanding of the stages toward completion, and to feel free to ask questions about all aspects of the process. These sessions emphasize the importance of configuring appropriate models for improvement.

The purpose of this analysis is threefold: First, it is to provide historical and theoretical information regarding the field of Educational Administration at the doctoral level. Second, it is to offer a conceptual discussion of the doctoral program to determine how well it prepares students to operate within the context of changes in K-12 and higher education leadership. Third, it describes the context of socialization and professionalization of students as they move through the program in a framework based on the research by Arthur E. Levine (2005). Correspondingly, the study hopes to assist faculty in their development of new strategies for the overall program improvement in the delivery model.

This paper hopes to add to the depth and breadth of information about the field of educational administration at the doctoral level by first focusing on a brief history of the field and how those dynamics are evidenced at one historically black university.

Background

Education is the backbone of civilization and one of its many purposes is to maintain a system of knowledge-building for the United States in all academic disciplines through deliberation research at the university doctoral level.

Since education is a part of all citizens' lives, it periodically warrants investigation, updating or reform. The calls for reform in education began in earnest in 1957 with the launching of the Russian Sputnik and, more significantly, in 1983. It was at that time the

education system received a publication from the National Commission on Excellence in Education entitled *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Excellence*. This monograph warned there was a "a rising tide of mediocrity" that threatens our very future as a nation and a people. In 2001, Clark identifies and categorizes the three campaigns of educational reforms that followed.

Teachers and students became the targets in the first campaign for improvement in teaching and learning. In establishing more stringent requirements for graduation from high school, other areas also were subject to corrective actions. In order to enter the teaching profession, more rigorous standards were enacted. Measuring student progress through increased testing began to filter into school districts around the country.

The second campaign for improvement centered around decentralization of decision-making through site-based decision making (SBDM), or school-based management (SBM) committees located on school campuses (Clark, 2001). The wave of change was also endorsed emphatically in 1986 by the Carnegie Task Force on Teaching and the Economy, and one year later the National Governors Association Task Force (1987) specifically recommended developing "school site management". Although several studies argued that there was no empirical evidence to suggest that school-based management was a preferable form of governance, the National Governors Task Force was instrumental in getting it into legislative education codes around the country (David, 1989).

The school choice movement entered as the third campaign of educational reform. The latest wave includes school vouchers—used for private schooling, and charter schools, either operating independently with state-sanctioned approval or as a "choice" within the public-school system. Competition in

schooling, and alternative options for parents are the hallmarks of this wave of reform.

Lastly, similar waves of reform and restructuring in the field of educational administration have occurred in higher education. Bolstered by the ongoing changes to school systems, university preparation programs for school administrators in both public schools and higher education have responded to the new requirements and challenges instituted in K-12 education systems. Professors, superintendents, principals, classroom teachers must be prepared to address and respond to the challenges for change that reform movements require.

Socialization

Socialization is described as a distinct period in which a professional acquires the specialized skills, knowledge and attitude of the profession. When students enter graduate school and later the professorate, they don't enter these spaces as fully formed graduate students or future faculty members but are taught directly and indirectly how to become one. Academic socialization describes the process graduate students go through to become introduced into academia, including learning the skills and modes of conduct considered appropriate and necessary to navigate the academy (Westerband, 2016). This can include anything from the language one uses (such as "scholarly language"), the modes of writing employed in a particular discipline, the forms of dress considered appropriate in different academic spaces, the forms of knowledge production that are valued, to the behaviors one should not engage in as an academic.

Academic socialization may vary depending on identity, such as gender and race. There are also positive and negative forms of a

of academic socialization. However, being taught to be cutthroat or undermining of colleagues may be considered negative academic socialization.

Students can imagine obtaining their doctoral degree, but not attaining their doctoral degree. To obtain is to receive something without great effort whereas to attain is to get something with great effort. Attaining a doctoral degree comes with great effort. For many students, the great deal of independence that is required of the program can be overwhelming for them. Believing in their skills and intellectual capacities can unburden them when keeping up with writing assignments and research. Students reported meaningful experiences with faculty that normalized struggle and failure by promoting a growth mind-set, validating student competence and potential, and opening discussion about racialized and gendered dynamics in academia (Posselt, 2018). Researchers have shown that students who believe (or are taught) that intellectual abilities are qualities that can be developed (as opposed to qualities that are fixed) tend to show higher achievement across challenging school transitions and greater course completion rates in challenging ... courses (Ali & Kohun, 2007; Yeager & Dweck, 2012).

Three to five books to read for each course and writing research papers with a minimum of twenty-five references forces many students to rethink their decision. They did not imagine the amount of time they would have to commit to completing assignments. More disheartening is they did not imagine having to give up so much of their free/leisure time (Wolyniak, 2003); they did not imagine that some relationships would suffer and even be broken (Flynn, Chasek, Harper, Murphy, & Jorgensen, 2012; Pocock et al., 2011).

Participants in a study conducted by Blanchard (2018) candidly spoke about the sacrifices they had to make while in their doctoral program but still managed to finish:

Other Considerations for Students

One viewpoint on keeping students engaged and motivated to stay on is to understand the importance of the socialization process (Twale, Weidman, & Bethea, 2016). These researchers suggest that the emphases of socialization includes “socialization as a set of processes that occur in stages over the course of the graduate student experience leading to a set of outcomes (knowledge, skills and abilities) necessary for moving into academic and professional careers (Weidman, 2001). While the socialization experience is cumulative, the sequence of processes varies depending upon individual and institutional characteristics,” (p. 80).

Professionalization

The sociological literature has presented various definitions of the concept of a profession (Evetts, 2003). However, a common definition is an occupation in which there is “mastery of a well-defined set of knowledge and skills acquired through a rigorous and structured course of study” (Gilkey, Garcia, & Rush, 2011, p.179), a definition echoed by Shanahan, Meehan, and Mogge (1994). Freidson (1970) extended this contention in the foundational study “The Profession of Medicine,” in which he argued that the concept of profession differs too greatly across fields and, given that complexity, it should be viewed as a process, which he termed ‘professionalization.’ Professionalization can be defined as “being responsible for meeting the demands of a market, the undertaking of higher education qualifications and engaging in essential specialist training in order to equip

practitioners with advanced knowledge of their chosen field of practice” (Leigh, 2014, p. 627). In other words, professionalization is the means by which the standards of a profession are communicated, understood, and implemented (Shanahan, Meehan, & Mogge, 1994) and takes shape in implementation of certification or licensing, implementation of standards and professional development activities. A great deal is at stake for people working in areas that have not yet been deemed a profession because “professionals wield great power in determining what goes on in our society” (Merriam & Brockett, 2007, p. 218).

The availability of a rigorous and structured coursework related to educational administration is part and parcel of the process of professionalization. The course of study often results in a degree and membership to various professional associations that serve to “distinguish [professionals] from amateurs or laypeople, and they are afforded greater autonomy, status, and often salary, based on this distinction” (Gilkey, Garcia, & Rush, 2011, p. 179). Examples of a credential include licenses and certificates. The concept of certification is defined as “the process by which a professional organization or an independent external agency recognizes the competence of individual practitioners” (Galbraith & Gilley, 1985, p. 12). Certification may simultaneously provide more job security and opportunities to continue self-improvement.

Doctoral students may participate in three professionalization activities: (a) credentialing (i.e., certification), (b) standards implementation (i.e., standards of effective practice for professors, superintendents and principals as well as content standards), and (c) professional development (i.e., initial and ongoing). Professional growth occurs at various points throughout doctoral students’

Careers and can be viewed as a process rather than a construct (Freidson, 1970, 1986). These activities, however, manifest differently from state to state (Belzer & Darkenwald-DeCola, 2014).

Higher Education Educational Administration Programs

Clearly, higher education institutions must prepare those individuals to become knowledgeable about how their leadership will impact the future. For example, Candoli, Cullen, & Stufflebeam (1997) reasoned that “the concept of the superintendent as the chief executive officer of the school district organization has become accepted throughout the United States”, (p.42). Higher education institutions are the lynchpins that connect the school district’s educational programs to effective leaders for the evolution of systematic K-12 programming. Likewise, the preparation of future professors of educational administration look to these educational administration departments for keeping abreast of the latest trends and legislative changes in their respective states.

Higher education has not been without its critics and reformers. There is wide agreement on the necessity to align university curricula to the needs of society and of the labor market. In 1992, Murphy cited reviews that “have chronicled a system of preparing school leaders that is seriously flawed and that has been found wanting in every respect,” and observes that “the curriculum is neither intellectually challenging nor useful to practitioners” (p. 103). Johnson (1996) maintains that “[l]ecture and discussion dominate, with little opportunity for active, experiential learning, and academic content and pedagogical approaches in administrative training programs are regularly reported to be narrow and unimaginative” (p. 286).

Perhaps the most damning report came from Arthur Levine (2005), the president of Teachers College, Columbia University at the time, in a far-reaching study of the programs that prepare most university-based preparation programs for administrators range from “inadequate to appalling.” Levine further states “Our country needs skilled education leaders more than it has ever before, and our schools of education aren’t preparing those people, and there are ways that they could change that would prepare those people.

Others noted that most of the report’s criticisms aren’t new, and in fact echo a national panel’s report in the late 1980s calling on states to shutter poorly performing educational administration programs. “It’s become rather a tiresome story to say that leadership-preparation programs are in dire straits, and that there’s been little movement,” said Michelle D. Young, the executive director of the University Council for Educational Administration, a group that includes seventy-five institutions and is based at the University of Virginia. “That’s not the case for the programs I’m working with.” Education schools, she said, have devoted increasing energy to evaluating their programs and using that information to improve. They also have built stronger connections with school districts to ensure that they’re giving candidates the skills they will need on the job.

The Doctorate

Doctoral-level education is an important part of the United States’ educational system. Doctoral recipients have been described as “stewards in their field” by The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (Golde, 2006). Other studies refute those findings. “Such condemnation in an era of educational reform, sparked the creation of many new and restructured doctoral programs designed to strengthen the ability of graduates from

doctoral programs to initiate change in the educational process, with the expectation that it would then filter down throughout the system” (Cox-Petersen 2016 p. 34). These stewards have the substantial responsibility of creating new knowledge, knowing the intellectual history of the field, using best practices in their work, and embodying the field’s knowledge for others (Golde, 2006).

Given these expectations, the success of doctoral students has implications that extend beyond individual doctoral students to the field, the professoriate, and other students. Aiding in this process were the standards set forth by the various professional associations in educational administration, such as the University Consortium in Educational Administration (UCEA), the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA), new CAEP standards for Advanced Specialized Programs (SPA) identified now as the National Educational Leadership Preparation or NELP Standards. These standards now serve a distinct purpose in that they provide specificity around performance expectations for beginning level building and district leaders.

New programs must be evaluated internally in order to determine how effective they are, to discover their strong and weak points, and to investigate methods for their improvement. However, since the Doctoral Program in Educational Administration at one Historically Black University was initiated in 1981, only one limited program evaluation exists. Therefore, in order to evaluate the content and delivery of the program within the context of current reforms, a comprehensive program review is warranted.

A Framework for the Doctoral Program

Using the framework for evaluating the quality of doctoral programs offered by Arthur E. Levine (2005), this paper describes the

program of at one HBCU under these guidelines. The study will intertwine the socialization and professionalization aspects alongside the framework elements.

1. **Purpose:** *The program’s purpose is explicit, focusing on the education of practicing school leaders; the goals reflect the needs of today’s leaders, schools, and children; and the definition of success is tied to student learning in the schools administered by the graduates of the program.*

Endurance, along with grit, are only a few of the many traits needed to successfully matriculate through a doctoral program (Blanchard, 2018). Earning a doctorate degree is one of the highest honors in one’s academic journey; yet very few doctoral students actually achieve this honor. Only about 50% of students complete their degree. Doctoral attrition rates are high in North America: an estimated 40% to 50% of candidates never finish (Litalien & Guay, 2015). Oftentimes, students do not realize they are entering into a world where only 1 out of 2 students graduate. According to the U.S. Census Bureau’s Educational Attainment (2019), 4.5 percent of Americans hold a doctorate degree. There is numerous research about why students drop out of a program (Dynn, 2014; Bagaka, Badillo, Bransteter & Rispinto, 2015; Devos, Boudrenghien, Van der Linden, Azzi, Frenay, Galand & Klein, 2017), but there is need for information for how students can persist through the program and beyond. Therefore, it is important for students to begin with the end in mind.

2. **Curricular coherence:** *The curriculum mirrors program purposes and goals. The curriculum is rigorous, coherent, and organized to teach the skills and knowledge needed by leaders at specific types of*

schools and at the various stages of their careers.

3. **Curricular balance:** *The curriculum integrates the theory and practice of administration, balancing study in university classrooms and work in schools with successful practitioners.*

In this context, the Educational Administration doctoral program provides a coherent and rigorous curriculum specifically designed to give higher education administrators, principals and superintendents the preparation they need. The program is intent on helping students meet the most rigorous certification requirements by giving the most amount of effort, using the as many of the university resources available as possible. Coursework is required for any doctoral program and students are encouraged to place their focus on the knowledge and not necessarily the grade. Programs accept students who they expect to maintain the required GPA. Therefore, the goal should be to acquire the knowledge needed to be successful on the comprehensive examination to be considered an expertise in their field of study. While the typical undergraduate carries 15 or more credit hours, the typical graduate student carries 9 or fewer. Expectations from the professors are higher, however: students really need to allow one or more study hours for every class hour. Choosing courses for the first semester must be done with care (O'Leary, 2016).

The curriculum is defined through the degree plan. Students must select from one of four choices: Major Area: K-12 public schools, Higher Education or Community College Leadership. Once settled, the student will follow the degree plan for doctoral students which is divided into six distinct areas: Foundations (including statistics and research) 18 hours, Core courses-27 hours,

Elective-3 hours, Internship-6 hours and Dissertation-6 hours. For students that have not had courses in research and/or statistics, they must take leveling courses in educational statistics and/educational research or both. The minimum number of hours is 60.

A student's internship placement and assigned duties during the internship can also play an extremely significant role in job placement for a student. Evidence indicates that internships improve students' employability, academic outcomes, and career crystallization (Hora, Wolfgram & Thompson, 2017). The placement for internships in this program correlates to agreement with the university supervisor, the on-site supervisor and the student.

4. **Faculty composition:** *The faculty includes academics and practitioners, ideally the same individuals, who are expert in school leadership, up to date in their field, intellectually productive, and firmly rooted in both the academy and the schools. Taken as a whole, the faculty's size and fields of expertise are aligned with the curriculum and student enrollment.*

The doctoral program has thirteen full-time faculty members who are productive in research and their fields of expertise are aligned with the courses taught and class size is usually under 10, with the exception of research and statistics, averaging between 15 to 20 students. The doctoral program helps set up mentoring relationships, and several full-time professors serve as and effectively supervise doctoral candidates.

5. **Admission:** *Admissions criteria are designed to recruit students with the capacity and motivation to become successful school leaders.*

The process for admission is rigorous and follows the guidelines from the admission standards of the graduate school.

6. **Degrees:** *Graduation standards are high, and degrees awarded are appropriate to the profession.*

Candidates for the doctoral degree (Ed.D. in Educational Administration) with a concentration in K-12 schools, higher education or community college leadership are awarded the degree up successfully defending their dissertation to the committee.

7. **Research:** *Graduation standards are high, and degrees awarded are appropriate to the profession.*

Building on the foundation of the required 18 hours of research and statistics all students complete, a large majority of the research is completed using quantitative methodology, resulting in studies engaged in empirical research; and is directly connected to practice.

8. **Finances:** *Resources are adequate to support the program.*

One area that always causes concern for the students in the program is the cost required for completion. Unfortunately, the students do not have the ability to fund the entire cost, and the department only has a limited amount of funds to offer 3 doctoral fellowships. One of the areas that will be addressed is soliciting funds through doctoral grant applications.

Financial burdens, relationships suffered, time lost, and mental health issues all are a price to pay. Some participants take out student loans to pay for the heavy doctoral degree price tag, and one even took out a home equity loan. Those that experienced difficulties with their relationships mentioned that being in the doctoral program caused a strain on their marriage and friendships. A few participants put off family planning until they have completed their doctorate, and others who already had a family had to explain to their families that “it will get better in a few years.” Many participants added that they missed

family events such as their children’s games and dance recitals, as well as family time and eating dinner together. One participant stated, “The doctoral program was the catalyst for my divorce (Blanchard, 2018, p. 22).

At some point, many doctoral students have to do some soul searching (Hunter, K. H.) & Devine, K. 2016) and ask themselves the difficult questions - What is my purpose for entering a doctoral program? Once a student has come to terms with this information and truly understands their purpose for entering a doctoral program, there is critical information they need to know to navigate through the program to attain their final career goal. Since students’ ultimate goal is to have an advanced career, there are things that they must do outside of required coursework, comprehensive exam and dissertation. When students graduate, institutions and organization are looking for how productive a student was while matriculating through his or her program, beyond the required components. Costs may cause early exiting from the program.

9. **Assessment:** *The program engages in continuing self-assessment and improvement of performance.*

The Doctoral Center has as its mission to support, encourage research, and prepare students throughout their time in the program. Additionally, the doctoral center consistently reviews the performance of students for continuous improvement.

Required Components- Coursework
Comprehensive Examinations

The comprehensive examination concludes the coursework of the program and serves as a summative evaluation that should demonstrate the student’s readiness to move to candidacy to begin writing their dissertation. The exam assesses whether students are able to function at the level of an

expertise demanded of those with an advanced graduate degree. Additionally, the examination process provides an opportunity for the student to demonstrate mastery of the curriculum, knowledge base of the profession, and the competencies required of a program graduate (Gonsalves, Georges, & Huss, 2011). No two universities have the exact format for their comprehensive exams, but regardless of the exam format, students who prepare rarely fail. Preparation comes in many forms:

(1) **Read Strategically** - Students need to read strategically and keep abreast of their field. Creating an approved reading list of books and journal articles will be extremely helpful to students on exam day. Oftentimes, professors get ideas for questions from reading the latest research and controversies. When studying for the exams, graduate students should take time to peruse the latest journals in their field;

(2) **Take Detailed Notes and Get Organized** - Students need to take detailed notes and get organized. After a class lecture, reading course material or a journal article, students should write down the main points and keep them organized by topic or course;

(3) **Seek Advice** - Students should seek advice from former students who have passed the comprehensive exam. Students who have already passed their comprehensive exams make great resources;

(4) **Read Directions** - Students must read the directions. Test-takers should note the number of pages allotted to a question and the formatting requirements of the comprehensive exam. Most importantly, students need to double check that they have answered the required number of questions and all the parts of each essay question.

(5) **Be thorough** – Students need to elaborate on the topic in several paragraphs.

Dissertation

The dissertation process is a required step toward earning a doctorate degree. According to the U.S. Department of Education (2008), the doctorate degree ranks as the highest academic credential in U.S. post-secondary education. Paired with coursework beyond the master's level degree, writing a dissertation fulfills a portion of graduation requirements for the doctoral candidate. So treat your dissertation as a job. Candidates should commit 10 to 20 hours per week for 12 to 18 months to avoid become a casualty to the All But Dissertation (ABD) label. Set specific work hours and choose a specific place to work (Dittman, 2005).

However, other components, along with coursework, is priority in graduate school. When a student eventually gets to the academic job market, program requirements will matter, but so will presenting at academic conferences, teaching courses, and publishing journal articles (Salter, 2017). Whereas, teaching, research, and service are the requirements for tenure and promotion for the majority of American universities, a recent study which focused on nearly 300 job postings by universities in Australia in just one day, analyzed the job descriptions for junior academic posts, and found a trend that requires early career academics to not only be able to balance teaching and research, but to also have the ability to perform duties, also deemed essential, in administration and community engagement (Pitt & Mewburn, 2016).

Usually, if a student is not a Doctoral Fellow or Graduate Assistant, they are not provided the opportunity to teach courses or serve as a teaching assistant. They are also not exposed to the importance of presenting at academic conferences or publishing journal articles; instead their focus is on getting through their coursework, comprehensive exam and the

dissertation. Unfortunately, when graduation is upon them, they are wondering what their next steps are because now they are looking at job postings and the recommended requirements are teaching experience and publications (Stoilescu & McDougall, 2010). For doctoral students they do not go into the professorship, internship experience can prove to be very valuable in their job search. The question becomes “How do we add that into our already busy schedule?”

Teaching

As previously stated, students do not usually get the opportunity to teach courses or serve as a teaching assistant if they are not a Doctoral Fellow or Graduate Assistant. So, how do I get this under my belt? Professors appreciate students who take the initiative and do not mind assistance. Approaching a professor who has taught a class that you have previously taken to assist would be extremely beneficial or to help with an undergraduate course. The goal is to become familiar with the responsibilities of a professor- teaching, research, and service.

Research/Publishing

Few doctoral students engage in formal academic writing at a level sufficient enough to get accepted into quality peer-reviewed journals (Gray & Drew, 2008). Therefore, it is important that they find a faculty member that can mentor them. Professors, too, are busy with teaching, research, and family life, so be prepared. Before approaching a professor, try to identify a subject to publish on. To assist with this: know what are you passionate about? Explore an area you completed, or will do, substantial research on? Seriously consider what do you want to be known for? Once the topic is identified, then it is time to find a faculty mentor. It is also not a bad idea to

include a classmate as a co-author if you all share similar research agendas.

However, if his does not work, Haupt (2017) suggests that doctoral students start with a book review. Identify a book of interest published in recent years that does not already have a review published. Then, reach out to a potential journal to determine interest. Hopefully, it will result in submission, revision and then publication. Doctoral students have to be mindful that publishing is ultimately their responsibility.

Conclusions

A Students enter a doctoral program because they have the desire of a teaching and research career or an advanced career in a higher education institution or professional organization; therefore, they must begin with this end in mind. “Begin With the End in Mind” is a phrase coined by author, Stephen Covey. It is Habit 2 from his book, *The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People*. Covey states that Habit 2 is based on imagination—...the ability to envision in your mind what you cannot at present see with your eyes. It is based on the principle that all things are created twice. There is a mental (first) creation, and a physical (second) creation. The physical creation follows the mental, just as a building follows a blueprint. If you don't make a conscious effort to visualize who you are and what you want in life, then you empower other people and circumstances to shape you and your life by default. It's about connecting again with your own uniqueness and then defining the personal, moral, and ethical guidelines within which you can most happily express and fulfill yourself (Covey, 1989).

The research has validated the importance of careful selection of students for the program as the collegiality, interactive support, sharing, and communication among and between the members play a vital part in their successful completion of the program, and proved a valuable asset

valuable asset in their job performance after graduation (Erlandson, Westbrook, 1999). Supportive relationships, at the departmental and advisor level, reduced emotional exhaustion and intentions to leave academia, and that emotional exhaustion was positively related to doctoral students' intentions to leave academia. It may be reasonable to consider all avenues of connections for doctoral students. Leveraging technology to promote extracurricular interactions between faculty and peers would assist in making the necessary connections needed to keep students engaged, supported and persisting (Barry, 2017). Other findings also indicated that advisor experience and frequency of meetings reduced students' emotional exhaustion (Hunter & Devine, 2016).

The doctoral program discussed in this analysis meet many of the elements of Levine's (2005) Framework for educational administration preparation programs. It is within the realm of possibility that the program will exercise an ongoing assessment and evaluation in all areas, but especially in the area of finances, as students attending HBCUs carry on average more loan debt that their counterparts at other institutions.

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Volume 11, Issue 4, Winter 2018

i. **Editorial Review Board**

ii. **Call for Manuscripts**

iii. **Call for Proposals—Guest Editorship**

iv. **Editor's Message**
Table of Contents

126 **An Academic Support and Equity Model for Athletes in Diverse
Institutions and NCAA College Athletics**
Lisa Hobson, Lacey Reynolds, Courtney Flowers and Dwalah Fisher

151 **Mathematics Thinking in Early Learners Through the Lens of Quality
Children's Literature**
Delilah Gonzales and Reginald Todd

157 **Vocabulary Instruction Matters!**
Ingrid Haynes, Delilah Gonzales and Mokeysha Benford

165 **Video-Based Observations: Improving Clinical Teachers' Reflection
in Educator Preparation Programs**
Delilah Gonzales, Viveca Grant, Jessica Davis and Dwalah Fisher

165 **In Pursuit of the Doctoral Degree: An Analysis of Socialization and
Professionalization of Graduate Students at an HBCU**
Bernnell Peltier-Glaze and Collette Bloom