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Mission Statement

The mission of the *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research* is to promote excellence in leadership practice by providing a venue for academics, students, and practitioners to publish current and significant empirical and conceptual research in the arts, humanities, social sciences, and other areas that tests, extends, or builds leadership theory.

Journal of Multidisciplinary Research

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Editorial

In a world of increased velocity of information and immediate communications, people want things immediately, while forgetting those things five minutes later. In this instantaneous world, where established brands and institutions disappear overnight, 50 years sounds like an eternity, and on this occasion of the St. Thomas University 50-year Jubilee celebrations, I would like to thank my Deputy Editor Dr. Raúl Fernández-Calienes for a great job and my associate editors Drs. Lisa Knowles and Nicole Grandmont-Gariboldi for their commitment, insight, and energy, which you can read about in our article "The Branding of an Academic Journal." I also would like to thank Dean Tony Villamil, Dr. Craig Reese, and everyone at St. Thomas University for supporting our efforts to deliver an international, multidisciplinary, global journal accepted and respected by our peers in academia.

Since the beginning, my deputy and associate editors and I have focused on moving the journal forward, staying true to St. Thomas University core values of developing ethical leaders in our global community, and ensuring our commitment to academic and professional excellence. As a result, we are experiencing overwhelming growth. As Henry Thoreau once said, "Be true to your work, your word, and your friend."

As a direct result of a truly university-wide effort, our Jubilee issue is featuring true multidisciplinary research by my colleagues, and we are proud of their work. This Jubilee issue of the peer-reviewed, St. Thomas University's *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research* (Volume 3, Number 3) contains seven articles; a "Life Forward" section featuring an interview with the president of St. Thomas University, the Rev. Monsignor Franklyn Casale; three student articles; and a reflection paper in addition to two book reviews.

As we continue to provide a venue for academia, students, and practitioners to publish current and significant research, we continually work to improve the journal and to making it a world-class publication for our next Jubilee celebration.

All the best,

Hagai Gringarten

Editor-in-Chief

Jubilee Message

Research, Publication, and Success at St. Thomas University

Gregory Chan

American college campuses have for centuries emphasized teaching, research, and service as the three main pillars of higher education. St. Thomas University, in her first four decades since establishment, has excelled in teaching and service among her faculty and students. Since the beginning of the new millennium, St. Thomas University has called strategically and steadfastly for the practice and emphasis of faculty and student research in many academic disciplines across the curriculum, notably, from Science to Theology, from Business to Liberal Studies, from Social Sciences to Professional Studies.

Publishing a research journal has many advantages and benefits for a university, from enhancing academic reputation to all involved to increased institutional brand equity. Within a short time, St. Thomas University's *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research* achieved relatively solid brand awareness and credibility in the academic world, and it has been an amazing success for a young peer reviewed journal!

It is my pleasure and honor to invite you enjoy the reading of this very special issue as St. Thomas University is celebrating its 50th anniversary since the founding of the institution in Miami Gardens, Florida. I also would like to take this time to thank the founding editor Professor Gringarten, all the distinguished members of the Board of Editors, and the contributors for their great effort and contributions to this well published journal. Congratulations for a job well done!

Gregory S. Chan, Ed.D., is Provost and Chief Academic Officer of St. Thomas University, in Florida.

Jubilee Message

St. Thomas University's Jubilee

Susan Angulo

As we celebrate the 50th anniversary of St. Thomas University in Miami, Florida, we look back at the roots of its Augustinian tradition. It was this tradition that drove the Augustinian Friars of *La Universidad de Villanueva*, expelled from Havana, Cuba, to struggle to reopen a university in Miami, Florida. The drive to educate originated with St. Thomas University's namesake, St. Thomas of Villanueva, an Augustinian scholar born in 1486. As Archbishop of Valencia, he sacrificed to establish boarding schools and high schools in Spain. Today, numerous schools and universities bear his name. St. Thomas of Villanueva followed the teachings of St. Augustine, the Bishop of Hippo (354-430 AD) of North Africa and one of the greatest figures of the Catholic Church. Augustine's influence on education is profound, valuing the importance of knowledge in society and its transmission through teaching and learning.

Throughout its 50 years as an institution of higher education, St. Thomas University has followed Augustine's philosophy and his beliefs on education. The university has rooted itself in the Augustinian ideas of the relationship between faith and reason.

In this celebratory issue of St. Thomas University's *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, readers are provided with an opportunity to examine scholarly works of its community members and to reflect upon the enduring message of St. Augustine: "Let knowledge be used as a kind of scaffolding to help build the edifice of love and understanding, which shall endure forever even after knowledge itself passes away."

Susan Angulo, Ed.D., is Associate Provost of St. Thomas University, in Florida.

Community Based Participatory Research on Youth Violence Prevention

Jeffrey Pickens

Abstract

A Community Based Participatory Research (CBPR) approach was used to improve outcomes evaluation for a violence prevention initiative in two urban, South Florida communities. The cities of Miami Gardens and Opa-locka, Florida, surrounding Saint Thomas University were challenged by high rates of poverty, unemployment, youth violence, and crimes. Previously, community based organizations did not effectively measure their youth crime/violence prevention programs due to limited resources, capacity and expertise. University researchers partnered with the city schools, police, and community-based providers to build measurement capacity and cooperation. Collaborative grant writing increased funding to support for the partnership, and joint planning achieved consensus on appropriate evaluation strategies for the diverse coalition of providers. CBPR involved on-going meetings between researchers and community partners over a period of years, and resulted in greater trust, enhanced data collection using standardized instruments, and increased use of pre-test/post-test methods to assess outcomes. Initial results showed the following: (1) CBPR was effective to build cooperation on research, (2) baseline schools data showed the serious risk environment for youths in the communities, (3) out-of-school suspension programs improved youth attitudes about violence and risky behaviors, and (4) community trainings increased adult residents' civic engagement in violence prevention efforts. Overall, CBPR was an effective approach for university researchers to work collaboratively with local community partners to initiate research on youth violence prevention efforts.

Keywords

community psychology, participatory research, youth violence prevention, civic engagement

Introduction[1]

In 2001, the Untied States (U.S.) Surgeon General stated "an epidemic of violent, often lethal behavior broke out in this country, forcing millions of young people and their families to cope with injury, disability, and death" (U.S. Surgeon General's Report on Youth Violence, 2001, p. 1). In 2004, more than 750,000 young people ages 10 to 24 were treated in emergency departments for injuries sustained due to violence (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDCP], 2006). In a nationwide survey of high school students (CDCP, 2003), 33% reported being in a physical fight in the past 12 months, and 17% reported carrying a weapon in the past 30 days. One report estimates that 30% of 6th to 10th graders in the United States were involved in bullying as either perpetrators or victims (Nansel et al., 2001). Problems associated with youth violence are even more acutely experienced in some communities.

This project focused on violence prevention efforts in two urban municipalities surrounding St. Thomas University: Miami Gardens and Opa-locka, in Miami-Dade County, in South Florida. The residents of these two communities are 77.4% African-American, 20.4% Hispanic, and about 3% Non-Hispanic White. About 43% of the population is under 24 years of age. The average household income for Opa-locka and Miami Gardens is $23,598, compared with $43,921 for Miami-Dade County (U.S. Census, 2000), and with 85% of public school students eligible for free or reduced lunch, compared with a 44% statewide average (Florida Department of Education, 2006). Opa-locka in 2003 and 2004 had the highest violent crime rate in the United States according to the Federal Bureau of Investigations (U.S. Department of Justice, 2004) with a total crimes rate of 14,076 per 100,000, compared to the statewide rate of 4,694 per 100,000 residents (U.S. Department of Justice, 2004; Florida Department of Law Enforcement, 2008). Miami Gardens was identified as the sixth most dangerous city in the United States (U.S. Department of Justice, 2004).

To underscore the crisis of youth violence in these communities, there were over a dozen firearm deaths of children aged 0-17 in Miami Gardens or Opa-locka in the past five years. Miami Gardens' zip-code (33054) was identified in the local newspaper as "the most dangerous zip-code for teens in Miami-Dade County" where a review of statistics from the Miami-Dade County Medical Examiner's Office showed a higher rate of gunshot deaths among children 17 and younger in this area than in any other part of the county (*Miami Herald,* 2007, p. L1). In the local middle schools, a 2003-04 survey suggested that over 50% of sixth through eighth grade students experience physical fights, with 7-10% resulting in injuries requiring medical care (Florida Department of Education, 2006). African American students were six times more likely to be suspended than White students, and truancy rates in these communities were 17.2%, compared to 12% county-wide (Florida Department of Education, 2006).

In the context of this crisis of crime and violence and the need to protect children in these communities, an urgent initiative was begun among schools, youth service providers, police, and a local university. Initial discussions led to formation of a "Campus Community Alliance," which continued to plan and seek funding with the local municipalities, and this effort ultimately evolved into a service partnership called the "Youth Violence Prevention Coalition" (YVPC) supported by local grants. Following a particular shocking wave of violent shooting deaths

involving youth and children in 2006, a local funding agency, the Miami-Dade Children's Trust, allocated $9 million in grants to be invested in service partnerships to reduce violence in Miami, with $3 million in grant support awarded to the Miami Gardens and Opa-locka YVPC.

Previously, community based organizations did not effectively measure their violence prevention programs due to limited resources, capacity, and expertise. Each provider of violence prevention programming was using self-developed client satisfaction surveys, and there was no systematic science-based measurement of program outcomes. One challenge that emerged as researchers began to work with the community providers, was a need to implement developmentally and culturally appropriate outcomes evaluations for the newly formed YVPC. However, providers had limited research and evaluation experience or capacity. The university researcher was familiar with Community Based Participatory Research (CBPR), a more inclusive and collaborative approach to building a research program with community partners, in contrast to approaches in which academics alone design a research plan. CBPR encourages research as a collaborative partnership between academic researchers, community members, and organizations and attempts to integrate knowledge and action to create change and promote co-learning and dissemination of results among all partners to address social inequalities (see Foster-Fishman, Cantillon, Pierce, & Van Egeren, 2007; Minkler, 2005). The YVPC entailed a community-based initiative to increase prevention programming aimed at youths, to increase residents' community engagement in preventing youth violence, and to build community capacity to evaluate its local programs. This CBPR approach was considered a way to better engage diverse residents and programs, develop community capacity, and gain providers' trust to participate in research. The CBPR methodology and select outcomes for the first three years of this effort are reported to illustrate how a university-community partnership and participatory approach addressed key challenges for community-based violence prevention programs.

Methods

Participants

Data was collected from several groups of participants in Opa-locka and Miami Gardens, Florida, between 2007 and 2010.

1. Minutes of the Youth Violence Coalition service providers and board member meetings between 2005 and 2008. N = 12 community based agency directors participated.
2. Baseline data: Students enrolled in public middle schools who completed school climate surveys. The survey of 1,081 public middle school students provided baseline information about students' attitudes and experiences in these communities.
3. Youths (13-18 years) in out-of-school behavioral suspension programs. Outcomes for two cohorts of youths (2007-08, 2009-10 school years) were collected for 265 teens who participated in a minimum of 8 sessions of a 10-day out-of-school suspension for behavior problems. These youths were enrolled in a "Life Skills Training," a risky-behavior prevention program: 34.6% lived in Miami Gardens, 45.6% lived in Opa-locka, and 19% lived nearby and attended Miami Gardens or Opa-locka public schools.
4. Local residents who attended crime prevention and "Stop the Violence" meetings. A total of 309 adult community residents completed civic engagement surveys at the start and

end of a series of three monthly, half-day "Neighborhood Crime Watch and Violence Prevention" workshops.

Table 1 shows some of the demographic information for this sample.

Table 1
Demographic Information

_____

<div align="center">Youth (SAGE Baseline Youth Risk Behavior Surveys)</div>

Age range   13 to 18 years
Mean age   15.5 years (sd = 2.15)
N = 265 (Females = 126, Males = 139)

Culture/Race
      African American/Black   91.1%
      Mixed Race   5.7%
      Hispanic-White   3.2%
      Non-Hispanic White   0%

Home environment (Who do you live with most of the time?)
      Biological father and step-mother   29.8%
      Biological mother and step-father   28.2%
      Biological mother and father living at home   19.4%
      Biological father only   8.1%
      Foster care or with another relative   8.0%
      Biological mother only   6.5%

Self-reported grades in school
      Mostly A's   9.2%
      Mostly B's   34.2%
      Mostly C's   47.5%
      Mostly D's or lower   9.2%

<div align="center">Adult Community Residents</div>

Age range   18 to 79 years
Mean age   41.79 years (sd = 15.29)
N = 309 (Females = 216, Males = 90)
Mean number of children per household: 2.5 (sd = 1.25; Range: 1 – 6)

Culture/Race
      African American/Black   88.5%
      White/Caucasian   4.1%
      Other/Mixed Race   7.4%

Ethnicity
     American   66.1%
     Hispanic/Latino   17.9%
     Haitian   16.1%
Primary Language
     English   88.1%
     Spanish   6.3%
     Creole/French   4.8%
     Other   0.8%
Education
     Some High School   30.8%
     High School Degree   29.1%
     Some College   27.4%
     College Degree   2.6%
     Other/Technical   9.4%
     Graduate School   0.9%

Measurement Instruments

SAGE Youth Risk Behavior Survey. For the youth program outcomes, the YVPC used the SAGE Youth Risky Behavior Survey (YRBS; Flewelling, Paschall, & Ringwalt, 1993), a 37-item test that is widely used to measure teens' self-reported frequency of drug and alcohol use, aggressive and risky behaviors, exposure to violence, and self-control (see Dahlberg, Toal, Swahn, & Behrens, 2005; Flewelling, Paschall, & Ringwalt, 1993; Paschall & Flewelling, 1997). The YRBS was administered as a pre-and post-test. The first 12 items asked students to report when they were involved in violence, for example: "When was the last time you: Hit or punched someone?, Were hurt in a fight?, Threatened to hurt someone?, etc.). Responses were: (1) Within past month, (2) 1-6 months ago, (3) 6-months - 1 year, (4) > 1 year, or (5) Never. Responses were summed for the 12 items to form a *Violence Risk Score* ranging from 12 to 60 with higher scores more optimal.

The next 13 items on YRBS asked about drug/alcohol use (e.g., "When was the last time you: Sold any amount of illicit drugs?, Drank alcohol including beer, wine, or hard liquor?, Used marijuana?, Used cocaine?" and "In the last 30 days, how many times have you: Drank beer?, Drank wine or wine coolers?, Been drunk?, Used marijuana? etc.) with a 6-point scale to report last use and frequency of use. Responses were summed to form a *Drug/Alcohol Risk Score* ranging from 13 to 78 with higher scores more optimal.

The next six questions on YRBS asked about self-control, where students reported their level of agreement with a series of statements (e.g., "Sometimes you have to fight to get what you want. I get mad easily. I do whatever I feel like doing. When I am mad I yell at people. Sometimes I break things on purpose." etc.) using a 4-point scale from (1) YES! Very True to (4) NO! Very False. Responses for these questions were summed together into a total *Self-Control Score* ranged from 6 to 24 with higher scores more optimal. The final six questions dealt with cooperation, where students indicated agreement with six statements ("Being part of a team is fun. Helping others makes me feel good. It is important to do your part helping at home." etc.)

with responses on a 4-point scale. Responses were summed to form a *Cooperation Score* ranging from 6 to 24 with higher scores more optimal.

Civic Engagement Pre-Post Survey. A series of "Stop the Violence" sessions for community residents was held in the third year of YVPC activities. Participants included school crossing guards, parents, and concerned residents of the local communities. A series of Civic Engagement questions was used from the U.S. Department of Education Civic Engagement Survey (Hagedorn et al., 2004; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2007). Questions (see below) referred to community resident perceptions about community safety and crime prevention efforts. Participants indicated their level of agreement with the following statements on a 1-7 scale from: (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree:

1. I feel I can make a positive contribution in my community.
2. I am more aware of what can be done to meet the important needs in my community.
3. I feel I have the ability to make a difference in my community.
4. I feel more informed about my community.
5. I feel more supported by community leaders.
6. The community will be safer as a result of community meetings such as today's.
7. This forum has increased my confidence.
8. I feel listened to as a resident in this community.
9. I feel like change in happening.
10. I have increased hope as a result of today's event.

The Civic Engagement surveys were administered as a pre-test at the start of violence prevention sessions and again as a post-test after residents participated in a minimum of three half-day violence prevention sessions. Residents had to complete all three training sessions for their pre-post data to be included for analysis.

Two additional questions were added to the surveys, which asked: (1) "How safe is your community?" answered on a 7-point scale from (1) Not Safe to (7) Very Safe, and (2) "What is your opinion about crime trends in the last year in your community?" answered on a 7- point scale from (1) Getting Worse to (7) Getting Better.

Results

Coalition/CBPR Outcomes

One of the key changes observed in the first years of the YVPC operation (2005-2007) was an increase in the use of standardized measurement tools to assess outcomes and the increase in the use of baseline (pre-test), versus post-test comparison methods to measure program outcomes. Initially, the small, non-profit providers of prevention services were either not evaluating program outcomes data (other than taking attendance) or were utilizing homemade "customer satisfaction" surveys following program activities. Few providers of youth services conducted formal outcomes evaluations, and those who did employed one-time only (post-test) surveys. These were useful to document challenges faced by students in the communities, such as the "School Climate Survey" (see baseline data, below) to identify areas of concern. School climate is a measurement of student perceptions of their school, strongly impacted by school

administration leadership practices, and influencing student retention and performance (McFarlane, 2010). Over time, as a result of the CBPR process, providers were coached in evaluation practices, and gradually moved away from one-time agency-produced surveys to the use of standardized instruments and pre- versus post-tests to assess behavior/attitude change from baseline levels.

In Year 1 (2005) and Year 2 (2006), when the CBPR approach was not yet implemented, the 12 providers in the study group used 11 different surveys Year 1, and 18 different measurement instruments used by 12 providers for evaluating program outcomes in Year 2. The full CBPR effort was fully implemented in Year 3 (2007), with repeated trainings and consultations with the 12 primary community-based provider agencies. Researchers encouraged the providers to use more standardized measurement tools, and, over time in Year 3, the CBPR efforts resulted in a consensus reached to employ widely used standardized assessments across all the providers. There was an agreement to use the Youth Risk Behavior Survey for youth programs and an AmeriCorps Community Engagement Survey for residents (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Change over time away from 1-time surveys to use of pre-post test design.
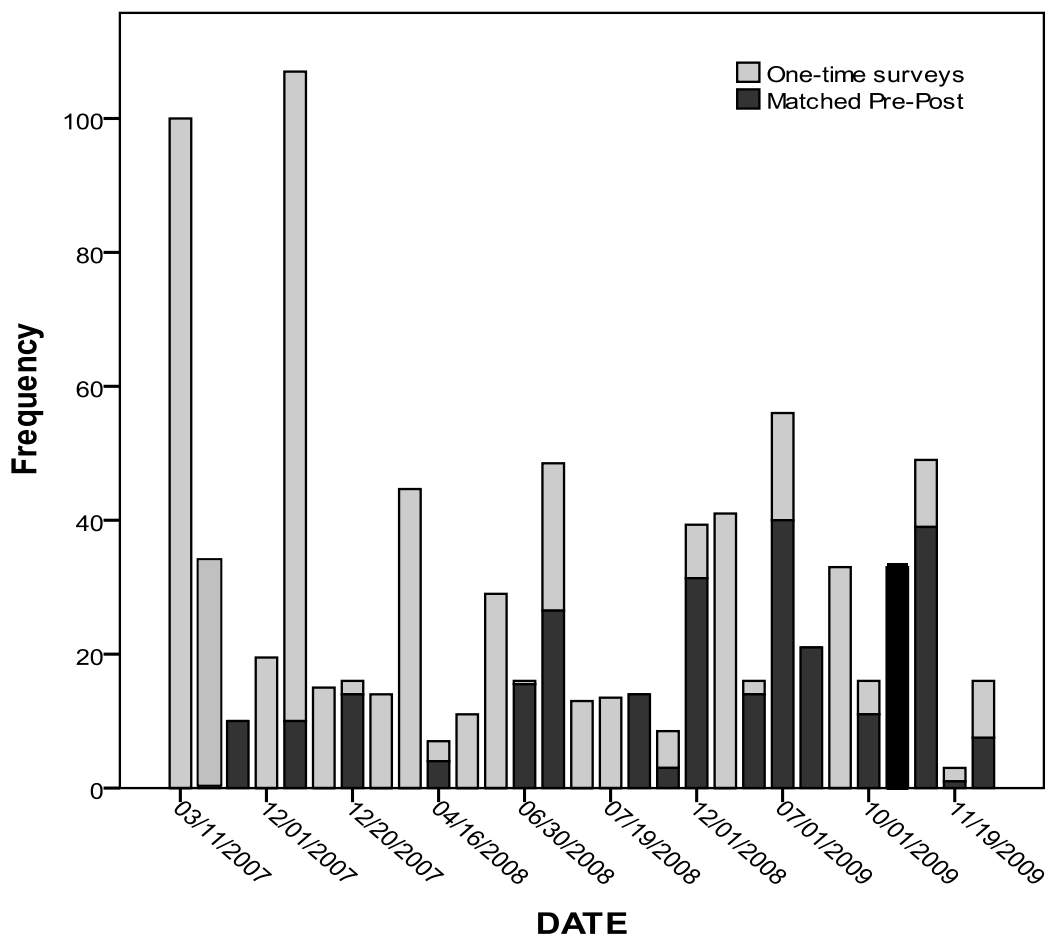
Analysis of the minutes of the monthly YVPC provider meetings revealed several consistent themes in categorical theme analyses (Holland & Quinn, 1987; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). These techniques have been successfully utilized to identify key issues with African

American and other minority groups engaged in youth violence prevention research (see Barkin, Ryan, & Gelberg, 1999). The top 6 themes-categories identified in the minutes of 14 provider meetings held over 18 months, included the following:

Collaboration

1. Desire for greater trust and reduced competition among providers in the coalition.
2. Ways to increase cross-referrals and information sharing about clients served by more than one provider in the coalition.

Coalition Goals and Focus

3. The term "wrap-around" care was increasingly used to refer to comprehensive case management approaches with youth, family, and community.
4. That better coordination with local police agencies was needed and that police representatives (truancy sweeps, youth academy, school police) should be included at the monthly board meetings.

Research / Outcomes Evaluation

5. Need to move to more standardized, common assessment instruments.
6. Outcomes needed to be measured to document program outcomes and provide data for quality improvement efforts.

These themes were indicative of the cooperation built by the coalition effort between previously independent and competing agencies. There was emergence of less of a competition for youth and family clients and greater cross-referral such that clients received services from multiple providers as part of the wrap-around comprehensive care approach. Comments indicated greater attention to outcomes measurement, use of more standardized instruments, and development of more scientific evaluation during the 2007-2009 period of CBPR activities. Furthermore, the coalition members participated in the analysis and review of results, attended a local research conference at the university, and participated in presenting the findings of this project, and in sharing and dissemination research results and best practices.

Youth Outcomes

Baseline. In 2007, about 1,500 students from 5 public middle schools in the target communities were administered the Miami-Dade County Public Schools Climate Survey, and 1,081 returned completed surveys (72% return rate). A preliminary Analysis of Variance with School and Gender as a between subjects factors did not show any significant main effects for School or Gender ($p > .05$), so the data were combined for all students. This Year 1 evaluation showed that students in these communities were exposed to risks including drugs-alcohol, weapons, and violence (see Table 2). While showing some positives (such as 70% of youths stating they like being at their school), the baseline surveys exposed many challenges including teens' disengagement with schools and participation in risky behaviors. This early descriptive

data was useful in documenting the need for new approaches to youth interventions in the communities and to apply for funding to establish the newly formed YVPC.

Table 2
Results of the School Climate surveys (N = 1081 Middle School Students)

Item	% response
Had low neighborhood attachment…	62%
Did not feel safe in school…	39%
Did not feel safe in their neighborhoods…	46%
Had friends who have carried a gun…	20%
Had a friend who had been arrested…	25%
Had friends who have been in jail…	26%
Had access to a handgun…	20%.
Crime & drugs characterize my neighborhood	20%
Students who reported using marijuana	10%
Students who reported using alcohol	20%
Know an adult who regularly gets drunk or high	30%
Someone in my family has alcohol or drug problem	20%
Stated they "Hate being at school"	30%
Stated that they "Like being at school"	70%
Participated in sports programs or clubs	70%
My family has clear rules about alcohol/drug use	40%

Youth Risk Behavior Pre/Post. The SAGE Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS) was administered to 411 students from 3 out-of-school suspension programs in 2008 and 2009. All students who participated were enrolled in the out-of-school suspension plus after-school programs as a result of a behavioral referral from their public school. The YRBS were administered as a pre-test on intake into the program and then again at program termination (return to public school). Some students missed the post-test, resulting in a total sample of 265 with matching pre-and post-tests. Analysis of the average *Violence Risk Score* students in suspension/after-school programs reported a longer time period since they last participated in or witnessed violence, with scores going from 40.4 on pretest to 46.4 on post-test. This was a statistically significant increase from pre- to post-test ($t(264) = 2.188$, $p < .05$, See Figure 2).

Figure 2. SAGE Youth Risk Behavior Survey: Mean Pre vs. Post-test Scores.
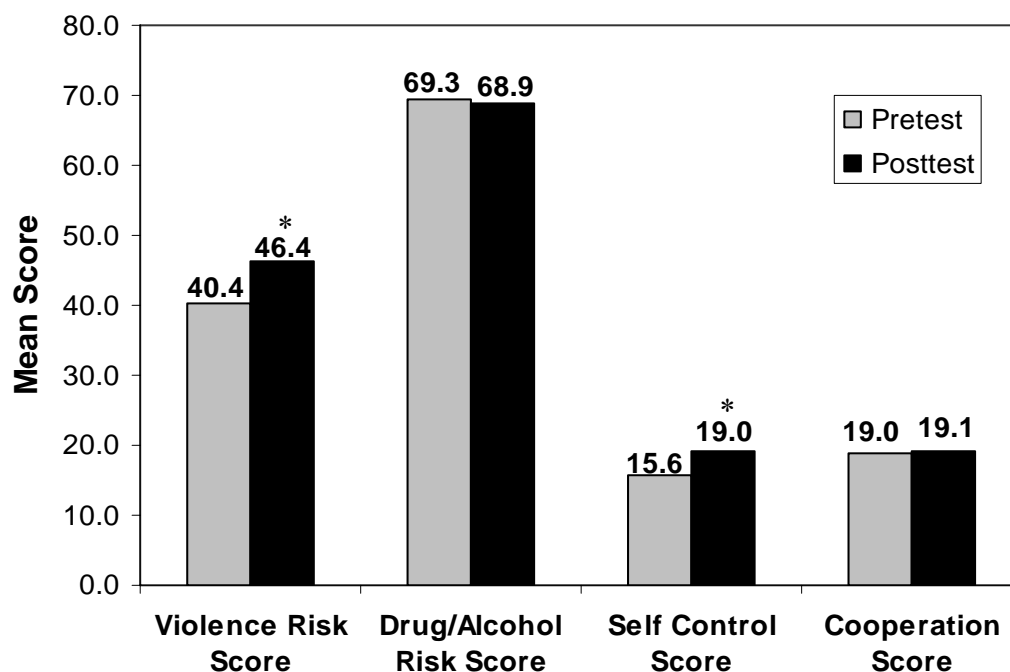
For the *Drug/Alcohol Risk Score*, youths averaged 69.3 on the pretest versus 68.9 on post-test, and this was not a statistically significant change ($t(263) = 0.998$, $p > .05$). Note that many students reported zero use of alcohol or drugs on pre-test, with no significant change from pre- to post-test. Students total "Self-Control" scores showed an increase from 15.6 pre-test at baseline to 19.0 on post-test, a statistically significant change ($t(260) = 2.43$, $p < .05$. See Figure 2). This represented a small but significant improvement in Self-Control scores. Student *Cooperation Scores* averaged 19.0 on pretest versus 19.1 on post-test, showing no statistically significant increase over the course of their suspension ($t(264) = 0.11$, $p > .05$).

Community Resident Outcomes

Baseline. A total of 309 community residents participated in Neighborhood Crime Watch and "Stop the Violence" meetings, followed by one-time evaluations. Table 1 provided demographic information for this sample. For the first question, "How safe is your community?" with responses from (1) Not Safe to (7) Very Safe, more than half (53.7%) of residents circled (4) or lower indicating many did not feel safe in their community. Question 2, "What is your opinion about crime trends in the last year in your community?" with responses from (1) Getting Worse to (7) Getting Better, more than half (58.5%) answered (4) or lower, indicating residents perceived crime as the same or getting worse in their communities.

Civic Engagement Pre-Post. Community residents who participated in three Violence Prevention workshops were administered the Civic Engagement Survey at the start and end of the program. N= 309 residents (see Table 1 for demographic information) responded to questions about involvement, community responsibility, and information sharing. *Total Civic Engagement Scores* (calculated by combining residents' responses for all 10 items) went from a

mean of 39.1 on pretest to 51.6 on post-test, indicating increased civic engagement, and this was a statistically significant change from pre- to post-test (paired $t(308) = 15.15$, $p < .05$). Figure 3 displays individual survey item means (Questions 1-10), showing higher scores on post-test than pre-test indicating increased agreement with each civic engagement statement by the end of the program ($p < .05$ all tests).

Figure 3. Civic Engagemnet Survey Pre versus Post Test Scores.

Discussion
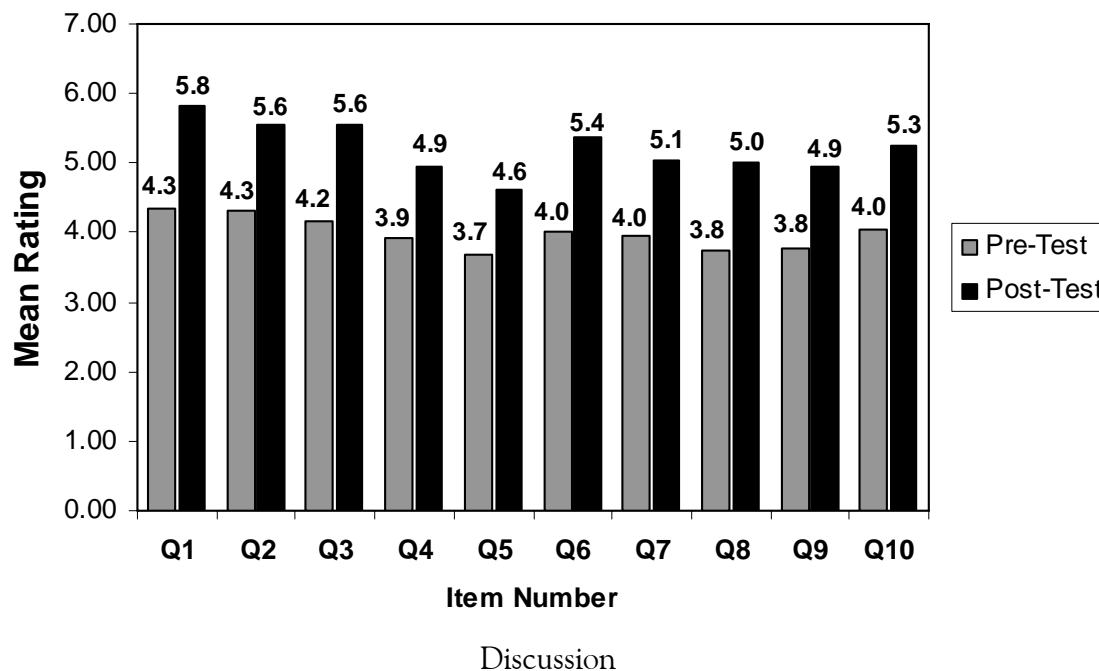
The most interesting result of this project was observing that a Community Based Participatory Research approach increased the level of collaboration and consultation between university researchers and community-based providers of crime prevention programs and services. This resulted in the implementation of better research practices, as indicated by the multiple providers and agencies agreeing to utilize the same outcomes measurement tools, and by the increased use of pre- versus post-test measurement of changes in client attitudes and behaviors. Likewise, the local providers participated more with researchers in developing conference presentations, sharing data, and disseminating the YVPC results and practices with other providers and researchers from Florida and around the nation. The CBPR approach also facilitated the collection and analysis of important outcomes data as benchmarks for the community based prevention efforts and progress. This was helpful when the YVPC sought additional funding to support youth prevention services because now there was documentation of the history of the YVPC efforts and results.

Initial baseline "School Climate" surveys of public school students showcased the high levels of risk and violence exposure for youths in the target communities. While early surveys suggested some positives (such as 70% of youths stating they liked being at their school), the baseline surveys also exposed many challenges such as teens' disengagement with schools and their frequent involvement in risky behaviors. This early descriptive data was useful in establishing the need for new approaches to prevention programs in the communities.

Pre and post-test assessment of youths who were placed in out-of-school suspension programs, using the SAGE Youth Risk Behavior Survey showed these programs were effective at increasing youth's awareness about risky behavior, violence, weapons, drugs, and alcohol. Higher scores on end-of-program post-tests, compared to baseline pre-tests, suggested the students achieved significant improvements in their risky attitudes and behaviors. These youth program outcomes data were some of the first ever common evaluations undertaken by these community-based youth programs, and were important for establishing their programs' efficacy and accountability, and lending coherence and accountability to coalition efforts.

Note that one surprising finding was a low rate of self-reported use of alcohol and drugs by youths on their initial intake assessment with the YRBS survey. The survey questions asked about both frequency of use and about "last use" going back as far as one year. These students were from the same cohort that reported higher rates of exposure to drugs/alcohol on their School Climate Surveys. Yet, these students consistently did *not* report drug/alcohol use during the year previous to their out-of-school suspension. Although ID numbers were used instead of names, the students might have inferred their responses were not anonymous. This type of positive self-presentation bias by adolescents on self-report drug/alcohol inventories have been previously reported (Bauman & Ennett, 1994; Campanelli, Dielman, & Shope, 1987; Crockett, Schulenberg, & Petersen, 1987). Not all studies find inaccuracies in teen self-reported drug/alcohol use (see Maisto, Connors, & Allen, 1995; Winters, 1990), but the present results do raise questions about the validity of the self reported responses about alcohol/drug use in this study. Teens may have provided what they believed were more socially desirable answers in the context of the out-of-school suspension programs. Future research may adjust methods to better explain anonymity of participants' responses to promote honest self-disclosure of risk behaviors.

Of interest to the use of CBPR was the change in the numbers of different measurement tools utilized by the coalition over time. Initially, at the start of the CBPR process, there were few formal evaluations conducted. When the word circulated that evaluating outcomes was a requirement by the funding agency and was needed for the research project, there was a big increase in the collection of data. Initially, this resulted in the proliferation of user-created and program specific surveys with little coordination or research planning across multiple providers. As the YVPC and collaborative research/evaluation process continued, we saw fewer such homemade evaluations, and greater collaboration with the researcher in the identification and selection of appropriate assessment tools and strategies. As a result of ongoing collaborative meetings between the researcher, YVPC partners providing youth services, and the funding agency, eventually a consensus was reached by the fourth year of the project to concentrate on using just three measurement tools for each audience domain (Youths, Parents, and Community Residents) to better help the coalition to collect and compare outcomes data across its many programs. The providers also showed a robust increase in the use of pre-test/post-test for outcomes assessment, and improvement over the predominant use of one-time evaluations early on (see Figure 1). The observed changes from early attempts to evaluate outcomes through a proliferation of heterogeneous measurement tools to a subsequent convergence on agreed upon measurement tools and strategies was a unique evolution resulting from a CBPR approach to evaluating outcomes with the community.

One other interesting feature of the CBPR approach was that the partnership with the local university resulted in a series of on-going student internships and service learning experiences. For the early years of the coalition, students enrolled at the local university and

under the supervision of the researcher and on-site mentors performed much of the data entry that is the basis for conducting program evaluation. The students assisted with survey administration, scoring instruments, entering data, and participating at community-based agencies providing youth services. The students from the minority-serving institution were valuable role models visible to the high-school students in the school suspension programs. Further, this use of college student workforce to help administer surveys and enter evaluation data provided much needed resources at times during the early years of the coalition development before full-time staff were funded and hired. Given the importance of experiential learning, this development of internship sites was a helpful aspect of the university-community partnership that benefits the students, university, and community alike.

Capacity building in the area of crime prevention program evaluation was a key aim of the project, and the results suggest improvements in both the quantity and quality of data collection over time. Another interesting process was the increase in the governing and coordination capacity of the coalition of service providers. Review of the minutes of board meetings and the coalition program utilization over time showed there was increased communications, cross-referrals, and interactions with County officials, Public School and Police staff, and community residents over the course of the YVPC's development. The service partnership continued to build and grow, with dedicated staff for case management and delivery of youth services for a growing number of client families. The CBPR approach and partnership with the local university clearly helped to bootstrap the research process and engage the providers to increase accountability and feedback for the benefit of the YVPC and the local communities.

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Lessons Learned? A Comparison of Modern State Immigration Laws and Past Federal Health Policy in the Stigmatization of Minority Groups in the United States

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Abstract

The proliferation of so-called 'Arizona Laws,' which give state officials the right to demand documentation and deny benefits or employment to anyone suspected of being in the United States illegally, has generated a great deal of concern among Hispanics in America. These fears are not unfounded. As 2011 marks the 30th anniversary of the first documented cases of AIDS in the United States, many forget that Haitians in the United States (U.S.) were once a target of suspicion in the federal government's fight against the spread of AIDS, with devastating consequences. Although the long term effects of the state anti-illegal immigration laws will not be known for some time, public policy analysts and state government officials would do well to study the spillover effects from policies that knowingly or unknowingly stigmatize members of a particular ethnic group, a lesson that both the Centers for Disease Control and the Food and Drug Administration learned from their pronouncements and guidelines with respect to the Haitian-American community in the early years of the AIDS epidemic.

Keywords

HIV/AIDS, immigration reform (U.S.), health policy (U.S.), Haitian-American, Hispanic-American, discrimination

Introduction

June of 2011 marked the 30th anniversary of the first appearance of the plague we now know as AIDS, an acronym that no longer needs explanation. For all of the scientific and medical advances that have taken place over the past three decades, just what have we learned from our collective experience with this insidious disease? We know its modes of transmission and replication habits, drugs that work and those that do not, and the groups most susceptible to

infection. What we have not mastered is the ability to take the lessons learned from this stigmatizing disease and apply them to our 21st century public policymaking. The so-called 'Arizona Law' movement is gaining more momentum as the 2012 presidential election draws closer. The fact that the original Arizona state law was ruled unconstitutional by the 9th Circuit Court of Appeals in April of 2011 has not dampened the appeal of laws aimed at addressing illegal immigration at the state level.

Once the sole province of the federal government, states in increasing numbers have presented legislation or enacted laws directly addressing immigration. According to the National Conference of State Legislatures (NCSL), since 2005, more than 5,000 bills have been introduced, more than 250 were adopted as resolutions, and more than 800 were enacted into law. The federalism issue notwithstanding, this represents unprecedented extension of the states' police powers under the 10th Amendment of the Constitution. Most of the laws passed are aimed at forcing employers in both the public and private sector to verify the citizenship status of employees or potential hires, but others are nearly as draconian as the now-defunct Arizona law that gave law enforcement the right to demand immigration status papers on the spot under the auspices of reasonable search and seizure. For example, in Oklahoma, it is a felony to knowingly aid in the enterprise of harboring or transporting an illegal alien, punishable by a year in prison (Americans for Legal Immigration, 2011a). Georgia now requires that all persons' immigration status, citizenship status, or both, be verified before dispersing virtually any form of public aid (Georgia State Assembly, 2011). South Carolina goes even further, requiring that all who apply for any public assistance be subject to signing an affidavit that affirms they are a legal immigrant or U.S. citizen. The penalty for falsifying this document is deemed a felony with a maximum term of five years in prison with forced recompense of the state by the incarcerated for any benefits received while under 'false pretenses.' This penalty also applies to anyone found to be 'aiding and abetting' such an enterprise (Americans for Legal Immigration, 2011b).

Proponents of these laws make the argument that the federal government's illegal immigration efforts have been woefully inadequate, and the states have no choice but to step into what up until now had been exclusive federal territory. Supporters also make the claim that they are not intruding on, but assisting, efforts by Immigrations and Customs Enforcement (ICE) through their efforts. This is all well and good and certainly best intentioned on the surface. But if one examines the demographics of illegal immigration in the United States, quite a different picture emerges. By the sheer numbers of legislation passed, one would be led to think we are being inundated with an ever-increasing tide of illegal immigrants whose numbers are increasing on an exponential basis. On the contrary, there are only an estimated 12 million 'illegal aliens' currently residing in the U.S., representing less than 4% of the total population and less than one-third of the non-citizen U.S. population (NCSL, 2011). Of the immigrant population in the U.S. (legal and otherwise), 53% hail from Latin America, with Mexico the most prolific at 14% based on current data. It is precisely these statistics that have immigration rights groups and Hispanic-American organizations on alert as anti-illegal immigration bills continue to roll out of the state legislatures. It is no secret that the rejection of former President Bush's immigrant amnesty measure that was killed in the U.S. Senate in 2007 was representative of a backlash against Hispanic migrant farm workers who were viewed erroneously as stealing jobs from U.S. citizens. Thus, it is no great stretch to view the 'Arizona-type' immigration laws as specifically aimed at one ethnicity, that being Latinos of all nationalities, with Mexicans as the primary target. The states that have enacted these laws have either unknowingly or purposefully adopted

a *Plessy v. Ferguson* mentality—only, instead of 'separate but equal' meaning 'exclusion of African-Americans from certain aspects of public life' but the 'vigorous enforcement of immigration laws' in reality meaning the 'targeting of Hispanics for potential harassment from agents of the state with regard to immigration and citizenship status.'

The true damage, as will be demonstrated later in this article, is when public policy has intentionally (such as de-jure segregation) or unintentionally (listing Haitian-Americans as a high-risk group for the carrying of the AIDS virus) stigmatize a particular group based on ethnic or racial background. The automatic suspicion of illegality surrounding a group of brown skinned men speaking Spanish on the part of law enforcement without question has great potential for harm among those similarly situated, not unlike the notorious cases of DWB (driving while black) racial profiling cases that pervaded many law enforcement agencies, most notably New Jersey's State Troopers. Members of the Hispanic working population in the U.S. now is saddled in many states with looking over their shoulders at co-workers or supervisors or carrying the weight of righteous indignation through no fault of their own. There undoubtedly is a very large chance that prior to the striking down of Arizona's law there were multiple unreported incidences where U.S. citizens were asked for verification based purely on their skin tone or conversing in Spanish in public places. Even the policy of filling out an 'affidavit of immigration or citizenship status' smacks of the infamous literacy tests of the Deep South prior to the Civil Rights Acts. The existence of armed citizen 'border patrols' and hyperbolic talk of erecting a 'Great Wall of America' from California to Louisiana only underscores the argument that these laws target a specific group of people based solely on their ethnicity. In a supposedly enlightened and democratic 21st century society that has had to incrementally eradicate legalized racism, the fact that this is an issue at all is deeply disturbing and woefully out of step with the hopeful view of the U.S. as a just and color-blind society.

The continuing public support for these laws merits a fine reexamination of what happens when a specific racial or ethnic group is targeted principally due to popular angst over a critical public policy issue. Today, it is Hispanics and illegal immigration. Almost 30 years ago, it was the Haitian community and AIDS; only then, the bogeyman was the federal government and not the individual states who have long been the primary source of discriminatory racial or ethnic policies. The majority of the remainder of this piece recounts the story of a people who were the only racial or ethnic group in U.S. history officially categorized by a federal agency as dangerous vectors of an infectious and fatal disease. Although far more stigmatizing and racist than even the harshest standing anti-immigration statute, the policies that precipitated the injustices suffered by the Haitian community during the nascent years of the AIDS epidemic in the U.S. should give us long pause as we consider the ramifications of potentially subjecting Hispanics to a similar kind of treatment.

Reopening Old Wounds

For the most part, the material found in the publications of scientific journals is far removed from the everyday life of the average citizen. Everyone is far more familiar with the trials and tribulations of Hollywood celebrities from the tabloid displays at the local supermarket checkout line than the latest scientific breakthrough outlined in the *Journal of the American Medical Association* or *Science*. The November 20, 2007, issue of the *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, however, was of great significance to Haitians in the United States. In "The

Emergence of HIV/AIDS in the Americas and Beyond," Dr. M. Thomas P. Gilbert, the principal author of the study, concludes that AIDS was present in the United States as early as 1969, brought by Haitian immigrants. The findings of Gilbert and his co-authors indicate that HIV originated in equatorial Africa and was brought back to the Caribbean basin by Haitian workers recruited to work in the newly independent Democratic Republic of the Congo (known as Zaire from 1965 to 1997) and subsequently to the United States and beyond. The study, however, does not implicitly conclude that a Haitian immigrant brought the virus to American shores. Moreover, its authors have publicly maintained through press releases and interviews that the study is not intended to scapegoat any one group in the spread of the AIDS pandemic. In a December 3, 2007, interview on Time Warner Cable's Manhattan News Network program "The World And Democracy" with host Smith Georges, himself a Haitian-American, Dr. Michael Worobey, a co-author of the study reiterated that the findings were not intended to pit societal groups against one another and maintained that the focus of the battle against AIDS should not be on blame but on the disease itself. Despite these public statements, a large segment of the South Florida Haitian immigrant community claimed that it did precisely that. In the days following the study's publication, Haitian talk radio programs were inundated with irate callers expressing their suspicions that politics had a hand in the process. The Association of Haitian Physicians Abroad refused to comment on the study but categorized it in the realm of 'junk science.' Yolly Roberson, one of only two Haitian-Americans in the Florida House of Representatives, echoed the anger of her constituents, commenting that it tainted Haitian-American legacy (Beras, 2007). A month later, on World AIDS Day, Haitian-American groups were still up in arms about the study to the point that the Haitian Lawyers Association announced it was seeking records from the U.S. Centers for Disease Control (CDC) to investigate whether Worobey and his co-authors obtained the blood samples used for their research without proper authorization (Morris, 2007).

AIDS and the Haitian Experience: The '4-H Club'

To the casual observer, the reaction of the Haitian community to the Gilbert study may seem like overwrought hand-wringing or misplaced anger. However, the role of AIDS in the American experience of Haitian immigrants, especially those in South Florida, should not be underestimated. Research by psychologists and medical anthropologists who have since the mid-1980s studied the reactions of the public at large toward people with AIDS have come to the conclusion that HIV infection imparts a unique and terrible stigma unlike any other medical condition in recent memory. People with AIDS (PWAs) have been subject to some of the worst kinds of discriminatory behavior ranging from estrangement and ostracization, loss of employment, denial of proper health care and housing to outright physical abuse (Herek, Capitonio, & Widaman, 2002). Randy Shilts, author of arguably one of the most influential books about the AIDS epidemic ever written *And The Band Played On,* describes brutal, random attacks on gay men by club-wielding assailants who defended their actions to police by saying it was necessary to kill homosexuals before they 'killed off' the general populace by the spread of AIDS. Although gay men were the first societal group to be linked to the new syndrome by the CDC in 1981 (thus initially earning the disease the acronym GRID for Gay-Related Immunodeficiency Syndrome) more groups were to follow. In March of 1982 reports of the opportunistic infection toxoplasmosis, a feline disease normally harmless to humans came in from

doctors treating members of the Haitian community in both Miami and New York (Shilts, 1987). In the July 9, 1982, edition of the *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report* (MMWR), the CDC reported on the outbreak of rare opportunistic infections in 32 recent Haitian immigrants, 20 of whom were residents of Miami-Dade County. By the end of 1982, GRID patients were found among heterosexual heroin users (Garrett, 1994). The year 1982 also saw the first incidences of immunosuppression among hemophiliacs using the blood-clotting product Factor VIII. In the March 4, 1983, issue of the *MMWR*, the CDC published a summary of what it considered the at-risk pool for getting Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome, or AIDS (changed officially from GRID in July of 1982), which included homosexuals; past and present intravenous (IV) drug users; people with symptoms of AIDS such as nightsweats, fevers, or swollen lymph nodes; hemophiliacs; and Haitian immigrants along with the sexual partners of all members of the list. Haitians were the only group that was identified on the basis of race and ethnicity, as opposed to habits or lifestyle. Soon, members of the AIDS risk group came to be known as the '4-H Club' for homosexuals, heroin addicts, hemophiliacs, and Haitians (Farmer, 1992).

The effects of being a member of 'the club' differed for each group as well as for the response of the group in question. Gay men, at the epicenter of the epidemic, already had begun mobilizing into groups such as Gay Men's Health Crisis that were raising money to fight the disease and provide care for those stricken. Farmer (1992) notes that U.S. gay organizations' response to the outbreak was artful and ran the gamut from parades and press releases to novels, plays, and network television appearances. Of course, they were subject to attacks from members of the religious right who claimed that AIDS was divine retribution for violating the laws of God, but this was nothing new for a group that had been subject to harassment and discrimination for decades and recently had seen the birth of the 'Gay Liberation Movement,' which focused on directly answering such attacks by political grassroots mobilization. The nations' 20,000 hemophiliacs were ably and actively represented by the National Hemophilia Foundation, which already was pressuring the blood industry with regard to safeguarding the U.S. blood supply (Shilts, 1987). They, along with the children of AIDS sufferers who had the disease passed to them *in utero* by their mothers, were seen as innocent victims and deserved sympathy in most cases. Heroin addicts, already outcasts and living on the fringes of society for the most part, and preoccupied with getting their next fix, surfaced only long enough to check into hospitals with a fatal case of a rare pneumonia or die anonymously on the streets or in seedy motels. Siplon (2002) observes that there was little chance of mobilization of intravenous drug users because no 'drug community' existed in a sociopolitical sense. As opposed to European nations where addicts banded together and began safe-needle distribution programs (see Siplon, 1982), hard-core users in the United States had little desire to draw attention to themselves for obvious legal reasons and cared little for the opinion of a society that for the most part regarded them with equal parts disdain and disgust.

Haitians, however, faced a far more formidable situation. As opposed to gays and hemophiliacs who could hide their sexual orientation or condition if they so chose, or heroin users who were barely visible on U.S. society's daily radar, Haitians, through the color of their skin and mother tongue of Creole, found it extraordinarily difficult to shield themselves from the torrent of discriminatory practices that rained down on them almost immediately following the CDC's pronouncement. From Miami to Boston, Haitian immigrants either were fired from their jobs with no cause or were refused consideration for employment. Racism surfaced in particularly ugly ways such as the Haitian-American Community Association of Dade (HACAD), which

specialized in procuring jobs for members of the Haitian community in South Florida receiving hate mail emblazoned with slogans such as "Hire A Haitian - Help Spread AIDS" (Farmer, 1984). The same organization also received a letter that conveyed threats to send out letters to the entire restaurant, hotel, and motel industry in South Florida urging them to fire all Haitian employees as soon as possible to save the Miami-area tourist industry from ruin. The climate of suspicion and hysteria was only made worse in early May when the wire services picked up a story relating to study in the *Journal of the American Medical Association* (JAMA) that AIDS may be spread by routine household contact in addition to the already suspected vectors of sexual transmission and through blood exchange (Wolfe, 1983). In New York, calls starting coming into physician's offices from employers with Haitian workers wondering if they should send them in for physical examinations (Farmer, 1992). In South Florida, the Broward County office of the State Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services fielded calls from prospective employers asking about the risks of hiring Haitians as well as inquiries from Haitians themselves who were worried about their own serological status (Hickey, 1983). The HCAD's job placement statistics for July of 1983 were emblematic of the crisis in the South Florida Haitian-American job market overall: Only 37 jobs were found for their clients when usual numbers were near 100 (Vaughn, 1983). In the paid-under-the-table economy consisting primarily of domestic, landscaping, restaurant, or construction work, the problem was even more pronounced. Stories abounded of Haitian employees summarily being dismissed from their jobs as waiters, dishwashers, and hotel maids for fear that the paying clientele would stop patronizing the business for fear of catching AIDS. Since statistics on the underground economy are sketchy at best, the severity of the impact of the at-risk designation probably never will be known, but one can surmise through the anecdotal evidence that many families already on tenuous ground were pushed nearly to the brink of destitution.

Even for those who managed to keep their jobs, the price was steep. Insurance companies ordered agents to drop Haitians from their rolls and to refuse to write life or health insurance policies for anyone suspected of being Haitian. Landlords refused to renew leases for Haitian families, even if they had never been in arrears. One case, involving an employee of the Florida State Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services is especially telling: She was denied an apartment in Miami Beach after the landlord flatly told her that he did not rent to Haitians because the other tenants would then be forced to live in close proximity to someone who would bring AIDS (McCarthy, 1985).

The social sanctions associated with the at-risk designation were in some ways worse than the economic hardships. Reports abounded of school children shunning their Haitian playmates or taunting them, calling them 'diseased' (Macari, 1985). Clothing stores became wary about letting Haitian customers near the merchandise, even to the point of refusing them the opportunity to try on a pair of shoes (Shilts, 1987). The sanctions, however, were not just a street-level phenomenon confined to the lowest rungs of the socioeconomic ladder. Physicians, supposedly the most informed and sympathetic, acted much like suspicious urban shop owners or landlords. Dr. Henri Hall, a psychiatrist and general physician in Miami, reported that his colleagues were being told to take special care around him as he might inadvertently give them AIDS (Colon, 1985). Denial of heritage became a survival tool as those of Haitian descent would routinely lie, claiming instead they were from Martinique or some other Caribbean island, to avoid being branded with the newest version of the 'Scarlet A' (Shilts, 1987).

The true magnitude of the suffering can be found in the tragic acts of a few who could endure no more and abandoned all hope. In *Pride Against Prejudice: Haitians in the United States*, Alex Stepick relates the story of Phede, who came to the United States at twelve and assimilated himself as African-American, even changing his name to Fred. He became an honor student in high school, held a full-time job, and had an African-American girlfriend. Fred and those like him were referred to as 'cover-ups' for concealing their Haitian roots, which became a matter of social survival with the advent of the AIDS epidemic. Fred's cover, however, was 'blown' when his sister inadvertently spoke Creole to him in front of his girlfriend. Four days later, Fred was found dead of a self-inflicted gunshot wound to the chest. It does not take a trained psychiatrist to figure out what most everyone suspected: Young Fred most likely thought his life was over now that he had the stigma of being branded as an AIDS carrier.

From a political perspective, the Haitian community was faced with a classic Catch-22: Visible widespread political mobilization meant identification and exposure, which was something most Haitians were reluctant to do given the severe social and economic penalties common at the time. The task of tackling this problem fell to the Haitian physicians and leaders of local community groups who attacked the veracity of the CDC designation through methods ranging from community meetings and seminars to badgering health officials and the local press (Farmer, 1992). The grass-roots pressure applied by these groups centered on the point that the at-risk classification was scientifically dubious at best and bald-faced racist at worst. The information campaign unearthed many cogent facts, one being that the rate of AIDS in Haiti was actually *lower* than those of other Caribbean islands (Farmer, 1992). Even after the city with most AIDS cases in North America, New York, removed Haitians from their own at-risk listings in the summer of 1983, the CDC refused to budge (Altman, 1983). For more than two years, Haitian advocacy groups clamored for the removal of Haitians from the risk group while the CDC stubbornly dug in its heels, stating that the classifications only implied a group had large numbers of people at risk for the disease, as opposed to increased probability of transmission from casual contact; the CDC also expressed 'regret' that the fears of casual transmission were discriminatory, if they even existed (Farmer, 1992).

The cruel reality was that after the May 1983 publication of the 'casual contact' editorial in *JAMA* that the fear of contracting AIDS from casual contact was embedded in the mind of the general public, despite being discredited and repudiated by physicians and researchers on the frontlines of AIDS research. Unfortunately, unringing the bell of casual contact transmission was impossible and proved to be disastrous to the Haitian community, resulting in more of the discriminatory practices detailed previously. The CDC, for its part, never issued a formal repudiation of the editorial and seemed oblivious to the 'epidemic of fear' regarding AIDS that the JAMA editorial started (Shilts, 1987).

One could hardly blame it, though, as mainstream press coverage of AIDS was scarce prior to 1983 and only picked up steam when it became apparent there was a heterosexual link. Even then, nearly all stories focused on 'white coat' tales of the medical establishment's efforts to find the cause of AIDS or touching human interests stories on the day-to-day lives of people living with the disease (Shilts, 1997). Only the major daily newspapers in cities with significant Haitian populations such as Miami, New York, and Boston touched on the discrimination issue at all, and the story was often framed around generic Haitian 'outrage' over the CDC's classification. All told, the number of even these articles published in the immediate aftermath of the CDC designation could be counted on fingers and toes. No major journalistic investigative

effort ever was undertaken, and virtually no one outside of cities with large Haitian communities knew of systematic AIDS discrimination. Thus, very little sympathy for the plight of the Haitian community was generated by mainstream media coverage.

The battle ended not with a bang, but a whimper in early 1985. Without comment, the CDC, on April 9th, finally removed Haitians from the at-risk group (Associated Press, 1985). No formal apology was issued for any negative ramifications nor did it admit its listing of Haitians among the risk groups was a mistake. The 'official' removal of Haitians from the classification did not remove them from membership in the '4-H' club in the minds of the public however; incidences of AIDS-based discrimination continued in the years that followed as the stigma of 'AIDS carrier' proved to be nearly impossible to shed, and the schism between the Haitian community and the federal bureaucracy was widened even further in 1990 as another U.S. governmental agency involved in combating the AIDS epidemic would again place the Haitian community straight in its bureaucratic cross-hairs—this time, the Food and Drug Administration.

AIDS and the Haitian Experience: Blood Feud

The CDC had suspected that AIDS was a blood-borne disease as early as 1982 when a handful of hemophiliacs with no other risk factors for the disease began coming down with full-blown AIDS or its precursor, ARC (AIDS-Related Complex). The Food and Drug Administration (FDA), and not the CDC, is the agency responsible for safeguarding the nation's blood supply. After heated meetings with the CDC as well as blood bank officials, the FDA finally approved certain donor deferral guidelines designed to lower the risk of a person infected with the AIDS virus donating blood. As of 1983, any man who had sex with another man was barred from giving blood. Other groups such as sex workers and intravenous drug users were added later. Haitians and immigrants from sub-Saharan Africa who came to the United States after 1977 were two such additional groups. Unlike the initial induction into the '4-H' club by the CDC, the FDA screening guidelines did not spur Haitian community groups to action. By comparison, the response in this area can be described well as ambivalent. Donor deferral guidelines were seen as just another bureaucratic policy seeking to add an additional layer of protection to the blood supply, not unlike barring from donation from those who had lived in the United Kingdom for fear of transmitting Variant Creutzfeld-Jakob Disease, the human version of 'mad cow' disease. This attitude was to change in early 1990 when an apparently benign move by the FDA turned into a major public struggle with the American Haitian community.

On February 5, 1990, the FDA announced the ban on Haitian blood donations was extended to all people of Haitian origin, regardless of date of entry into the United States. This ban was extended to Blacks from sub-Saharan Africa as well. The response of the Haitian community to this latest blow from the federal government was radically different from seven years before. The efforts to overturn the '4-H' Club CDC designation in 1983 was more akin to rebuttal time at a college debate; reasoned pleas by knowledgeable professionals for a change in opinion and policy based on a reexamination of the facts. With the FDA ban, the reaction was more like a shouting match precipitating a barroom brawl. Within days, Haitian community groups and their allies swung into action and quickly denounced the policy change as insulting. Archbishop Curley-Notre Dame High School, a Catholic school in Miami, cancelled a blood drive after learning its Haitian students would not be allowed to participate (Branch, 1990). Threats of picketing blood banks and confronting prospective donors and urging them to stop

donating blood prompted both the Palm Beach (Florida) County Health Department and the Palm Beach Blood bank to quickly fire off letters to the FDA exhorting them to reconsider the blanket ban (Vernon, 1990). Warnings of angry public protests percolated continuously throughout South Florida as public and private sector groups banded together into anti-FDA blood policy coalitions with members from local Haitian physicians to the Florida Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services (McKelvey, 1990).

When formal written requests failed to move FDA officials, the protest turned to the streets. Around noon on March 6, 1990, 5,000 protesters, some wearing symbolic red bandanas and armbands, others with vials of blood strung around their necks, mobbed the FDA office in West Dade County (Florida) forcing street closures, snarling Miami International Airport traffic, and requiring the mobilization of over 200 riot control police officers. The protesters came from every corner of the Haitian community; well-heeled financial consultants stood shoulder to shoulder with the high school-age children of the working poor. After five hours of chants and rock-throwing confrontations with police, the crowd dispersed but not before a statement issued by FDA spokeswoman Estela Brown that promised to convene its Blood Products Advisory Committee (BPAC) within the next few weeks to revisit the policy.

The protests soon spread to other parts of the country. In early April 2000, protesters crammed their way into Government Center in Boston armed with letters of support from the Massachusetts (MA) Department of Public Health, the MA Office of Refugees and Immigrants, and the Multicultural AIDS Coalition (Walker, 1990). Boston Mayor Raymond Flynn, who later would become U.S. Ambassador to the Vatican, also penned a letter of protest aimed at the FDA restrictions. The dog-piling of the FDA continued with the Catholic Archdiocese of Miami, the American Red Cross, the National Council of Community Blood Centers, and the NAACP vowing to speak against the restrictions at the next scheduled FDA BPAC meeting (Strouse, 1990). The FDA was stunned by the snowballing of opposition to what it considered to be a minor change to an existing policy. What had started with a few angry Haitians in Miami within two months had mushroomed to include nearly all the heavyweights in the blood industry, the oldest and most powerful minority rights interest group in the country, and the Catholic Church. The scope of the movement had grown far beyond what anyone, let alone the FDA, had expected.

The drive to rescind the ban reached a crescendo on Friday, April 20, 1990. While the FDA BPAC convened in Rockville, Maryland, a crowd of protesters in New York City estimated at 50,000 strong poured across the Brooklyn Bridge and into Manhattan, effectively paralyzing the lower portion of the city (Lorch, 1990). The marchers chanted their way towards City Hall and eventually surrounded the complex, prompting Mayor David Dinkins to join the crowd and express his support. By mid-afternoon, the FDA had announced the BPAC had recommended that geographic or national origin donation stipulations be removed. Formal announcement that the ban was to be rescinded came three days later. Although the FDA refused to comment on whether the reversal in policy was due to public pressure and the ban itself was not officially done away with until December 4th, it was a major political victory for the Haitian community and their temporary allies. The FDA hesitantly admitted later that the guidelines were fashioned not from medical necessity but rather convenience (Colen, 1990). More surprisingly, the agency even acknowledged that, in retrospect, it should have reached out to the Haitian community before making such a rash decision.

Another interesting development in the aftermath of the blood ban debate was the reaction of the mainstream press. Reporting of the Haitian mobilization efforts was either neutral or leaning toward the positive. The April 20th march on Manhattan produced incidences of violence that included an overturned car and a severe beating of a bystander by a gang of roughly 60 protesters that landed the victim in an area hospital in serious condition; this information, however, was nestled in a *New York Times* article between Mayor Dinkins' cheering of the march's goals and a single-sentence paragraph reporting there were no arrests made (Lorch, 1990). This positive reporting dissipated almost immediately when the FDA announced the ban would be rescinded. In scathing editorials from New York to California, mainstream newspapers chastised the FDA for putting politics before public health. The *New York Times* was especially critical, stating that even the .1 % AIDS antibodies test failure rate was too high to justify withholding any measure that would increase the safety of the blood supply, no matter who was in danger of stigmatization (*New York Times,* 1990). Apparently, U.S. journalists were rooting enthusiastically for the underdogs, up until the point it became apparent that they actually won.

Haitian AIDS Stigma: Political Consequences

Despite the two political victories over the CDC and the FDA that Haitians in the U.S. can claim, the bottom line is that the stigma of being associated with AIDS still remains. Siplon (2002) states that following the blood ban reversal, Haitians retreated from the forefront of the federal AIDS policy struggle. However, Siplon also makes the claim that this marked the end of the Haitian community's identification with the disease. Unfortunately, this has not been the case. Haitians ever since have waged a continuous campaign against their association with AIDS. In many cases, the stigma affects attitudes toward others in their own community. Haitian AIDS patients still often lie about their illness to prevent perpetuating the stigma or to avoid the 'shunning' of friends and family members in this mostly Roman Catholic community who view the disease as one associated with homosexuality or promiscuity. The more deleterious effect is the refusal of many in the Haitian community to be tested for HIV for the fear of testing positive and enduring the pain of living a lie or stigmatization from within and without. This unspoken policy leads to nothing more than an increased rate of infection in a community that has already seen far too much of it.

In the years following the FDA's reversal of the blood ban, many Haitians still refused to donate blood, although eligible to do so (Valbrun & Donoghue, 1991). Children in South Florida schoolyards continue to deny their Haitian heritage, fearing being called names and physically beaten by schoolmates (Chauvet, 1995). The 1998 hit movie *How Stella Got Her Groove Back* about a middle-aged woman who finds love with a young Jamaican man underscores how prevalent the Haiti-AIDS connection was in 1990s U.S. culture. In one scene in the film, the female stockbroker played by Angela Bassett returns from the Caribbean and is quizzed by one of her sisters on whether she used a condom due to the fact that she was visiting Jamaica, which she thought was an AIDS-riddled island, but then is quickly corrected by another sister who identifies Haiti as the culprit (Latour, 1998). Under protests from the Haitian community across the U.S., the director of the film announced the material would be removed from the video release version and issued a formal apology. Ironically, the original film score included music from Wyclef Jean, a noted Haitian rapper and hip-hop artist.

The high social and economic price Haitians in the United States have paid for AIDS stigma has been well documented. With Hispanics now the largest minority class in the United States, it is very surprising that we as a society would be unwilling to learn from, or flatly ignore, the blatantly discriminatory policy errors of the early 1980s and 1990s, especially with a crucial national election a little more than a year away. To be sure, there are Hispanics in the United States illegally today just as there were Haitians in the United States infected with HIV 30 years ago. But then, as now, there are other groups just as 'guilty' but not singled out based on race or ethnicity. No clarion call has gone out to root out and deport Norwegian exchange students overstaying their visas or to scour Boston's Irish bars for anyone with a suspicious brogue. Moreover, little concern at the state level has been paid by comparison to the problem of human trafficking, an odious form of modern-day slavery that is becoming more pervasive in the United States and is a problem that carries far more moral weight in the immigration debate than the mere presence of illegal immigrant workers (Bernadin, 2010).

The current concern expressed by members of the Hispanic community is justified, and their fears are not unwarranted for we know now, living in the shadow of three decades of AIDS policy, that the road to Hell is paved not only with good intentions but also with a good deal of racism and xenophobia as well. This is not to say the Hispanic community will suffer the same level of discrimination and scorn as the Haitian community did. History repeating itself in that fashion would be a cruel and unspeakable sociopolitical tragedy and, in all likelihood, will not happen. For that, we should all be grateful. Still, the specter of an angry Hispanic population at the voting booth should rightfully scare any career-minded politician at both the state and federal level. That an Hispanic backlash not unlike the Haitian reaction to the FDA ban, only on a much grander scale, has not entered the minds of those supporting the Arizona-style measures is indeed mystifying. In a society in which information travels faster than ever and mobilization efforts are easier to organize, it would make good political sense to tread lightly on such delicate ground, instead of stomping on it like an angry, lumbering dinosaur. That being said, the mere fact that the issues put forth in this piece are salient today should give one pause as to the wisdom of our elected policymakers who are so eager to repeat the mistakes of their predecessors in yet an all new policy venue and century.

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What were they Thinking: A Reflective Look at Students' Attitude toward Ethnicity, Culture, and Diversity

Paul Maxwell

Abstract

An exercise directed at documenting the feelings and attitudes toward and about the subjects of ethnic cultures and diversity was conducted in a class of undergraduate business administration students at a regional college in South Florida. The exercise consisted of each student participant responding to four questions; each individual question and its responses were analyzed using the "Critical Incident Technique."

Keywords

student attitudes, ethnic cultures, diversity

What are they Thinking: The Motivation

It was a pleasant spring day as my wife and I headed for a much-anticipated undergraduate class reunion luncheon at a large, urban institution. I navigated the rental car through a maze of side streets, finally reaching the entrance to a gigantic university parking garage. My first thoughts were: How could such an enormous structure (it housed both a garage and umpteen student resident suites) be located on the former, grassy site of our original computer center? Well at least the building in which most of our classes were held remained unscathed. Then, time seemed to stop, and my mind was filled with a bundle of questions: "I wonder what it's like going to school here now? I wonder what the students are like? I wonder what and how they see the world."

We wandered down the street and soon found the location of the reunion luncheon. Our class was one of those singled out for "longevity recognition"—you know, based on multiples of five, I think. Perhaps this practice is intended to further warm our hearts and loosen our checking accounts. I never did "learn" (remember, we were back in college again) just how much our "class gift" added up to; in any event, it was all tax deductable.

We were greeted at the door by several bright-eyed, eager underclassmen (and women). Gee they looked so young, or did we feel so old? Once more, I was struck by the thought, "I wonder what today's students think about, what are their attitudes towards our ever changing world?"

As luck would have it, some nine members of our class did—as if by magic—appear at a "front row, center aisle" table. I recognized only two attendees who had not changed much over all these years; they were our friends Charley and Gale from Maine. Maybe that was because Charley was a basketball center, and Gale reached his waist. We immediately grabbed seats together.

The luncheon proceeded, as all luncheons do, with food and chatter. Finally, the dean called us to order. What I appreciated about his achievements was the fact that, without a terminal degree, but rather a successful business career, he became dean of a major college's school of business. Perhaps this was an omen: a business school being directed by those experienced in the world of business. I wondered what he was thinking.

Per the norm, several of our fellow alumni received recognition for their outstanding contributions and achievements in the world of business and communications. All recipients were received warmly; how often do you have lunch with a nationally known TV personality? And now, it was finally time to listen to what was happening at our alma mater. Wow! How long and how loud can one extol student SAT scores, high school GPA's, cut-off scores for undergraduate admission and academic achievements of current graduates? As the dean continued to report "numbers," I cringed. I wanted to learn about their character and their thinking, not their "numbers." Over the years, I have often recalled the experience because I wonder "What kind of people are graduating from our colleges and universities today? What are their value systems? How do they see themselves fitting into today's global community?"

The Reaction

The issue had been raised; it was time to explore the sensitivities of students I had been interacting with at a small, religious-based college located in suburban Miami, Florida. To establish a baseline, my perceptions are documented, beyond the stated institution's "Mission Statement" and brand slogan.

Perceptions of the responsibilities of a School of Business are based on a collection of experiences from current and previous academic, administrative, and teaching activities. Collective faculty responsibilities are seen as enabling our students to do the following:

- acquire a set of specific marketable skills,
- initiate a "community-oriented" sense of personal responsibility, and
- validate the values gained from the study of liberal arts courses.

What Research Tells Us

In an attempt to obtain further insight with respect to "the type of people we are graduating," a review of selected research on the subject of attitudes follows.

- We find that attitudes are formed throughout our lives and represent a summary of our worldly experiences. Personality and attitudes are complex cognitive processes. The term attitude generally is used to describe people and their behavior (Luthans, 2007).

- The basic components of attitudes are described as emotional, informational, and behavioral. The *emotional* component involves feelings, the *informational* component involves the beliefs and knowledge one has about an object, and the *behavioral* component consists of one's tendencies to behave in a particular fashion toward an object (Luthans, 2007).

- It is very difficult to perceive another's emotional and/or informational components because of the need to come to know and understand the individual. Only the behavioral component can be observed directly (Luthans, 2007).

- *Attitudes* represent another type of individual differences; they are relatively lasting feelings, beliefs, and behavioral tendencies that we direct towards specific people, ideas, issues, or objects. An *Attitude* is made up of three components: an *effective* component (feelings, emotions, etc.), a *cognitive* component (beliefs, information, etc.), and a *behavioral* component (predisposition to act in a particular fashion). Attitude is determined by the interaction of these three components (Hellriegel, Slocum, & Woodman, 1995).

- "Pollsters…often measure attitudes in order to predict subsequent behavior. Predicting behavior from attitudes can be improved by observing three principles.
    1. General attitudes best predict general behaviors.
    2. Specific attitudes best predict specific behaviors.
    3. The less time that elapses between attitude measurement and behavior, the more consistent will be the relationship between attitude and behavior." (Hellriegel, Slocum, & Woodman, 1995, p. 52).

- Early research on attitudes assumed they were causally related to behavior. In the late l960s, Leon Festinger argued that attitudes follow behavior. People often change what they say so it remains consistent with what they do (Robbins & Judge, 2011).

- "Research has concluded that people do seek consistency among their attitudes and between their attitudes and their behavior" (Robbins & Judge, 2011, p. 74).

- "*Attitudes* are the feelings and beliefs that largely determine how employees will perceive their environment, commit themselves to intended actions, and ultimately behave" (Newstrom, 2007, p. 203).

- "An *Attitude* is a predisposition to respond that exerts an influence on a person's response to a person, a thing, an idea, or a situation" (DuBrina, 2007, p. 64).

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The Class Assignment

This study was conducted in a curricula required, undergraduate course in Organizational Behavior—a course directed at the study of basic process (McGregor, Maslow, Herzberg, etc.), and content (Path-Goal, Vroom, etc.), motivational models, issues of leadership theories and current practices, etc. The primary course objectives were: "To enable each client to: …6.

Appreciate the diversity of relationships between individuals, employer organizations, and general society" (Maxwell, 2010, p. 1).

To acquire a sense of feelings and attitudes toward issues of diversity and how class members individually felt toward these issues, including those on both a personal level and a national consciousness, a group of undergraduate business students (juniors and seniors) was asked to respond to four questions. The class was made up of 21 students; membership included 7 international students. The subject of diversity, in the workplace specifically and society in general, had been addressed through a combination of assigned readings and activities covering two class sessions.

One conclusion derived from our classroom discussions focused on the idea the United States, and indeed the civilized world, has much to do to resolve issues of diversity and discrimination. A follow-up exercise was conducted by having each class member prepare an individual, documented response to the following questions.

1. Why should an appreciation of diversity be important to you?
2. What impact do you believe that the role of ethnic culture has on your view of diversity?
3. How can you improve your personal viewpoint and attitude toward members of different
    a. ethnic cultures?
    b. religious cultures?
4. Do you think that America still has a long road to travel before racial, ethnic, and religious differences are accepted by society in general?

With the unbelievable extent of change in world affairs and their potential impact upon our personal lives and future careers, an analysis of their responses has been directed at answering the following questions.

1. What may be concluded from the feelings and attitudes of these students?
2. Does their input support the institutional goal of enabling our students to acquire a greater depth of human sensitivities toward their fellow man?

A Summary of Responses

The results have been treated as a "qualitative analysis"; student inputs were analyzed employing the "Critical Incident Technique," and subsequently grouped into and reported as a series of "expressed attitudes."

Question #1: Why should an appreciation of diversity be important to you?
Expressed Attitudes
-   All people are unique
-   Cultural differences enrich the world
-   We should not be separated by our differences
-   Appreciate your background; it significantly affects one's attitude towards diversity

- Accepting diversity is self-enhancing
- Cultures can learn much from each other
- Inclusion helped build the American "melting pot"
- Appreciating diversity helps prevent discrimination
- Improving our economic productivity requires an appreciation of diversity.

Question# 2: What impact do you believe the role of ethnic culture has upon your view of diversity?
Expressed Attitudes

- Family culture is carried into our lives
- Diversity requires learning other's cultures and how to deal with the differences
- Valuing other ethnic/religious cultures requires having an open mind
- Appreciate and take advantage of the differences
- Appreciating cultural diversity in the work place helps our country develop its "melting pot" potential
- Don't judge others too quickly – learn to accept their humanness
- Media has created a false perception of many cultures
- Diversity may create a negative impact.

Question #3: How can you improve your personal viewpoint and attitude toward members of different ethnic/religious cultures?
Expressed Attitudes

- Learning to understand is required
- Accepting other cultures is the starting point
- Viewing individuals and groups as being unique
- Personal interaction with others is the key
- Do not pre-judge or criticize
- Our personal background may be an impediment.

Question #4: Do you think that America still has a long road to travel before racial, ethnic, and religious differences are accepted by society in general?
Expressed Attitudes

- Must show an appreciation for diversity
- Accept the "universality "of humanity
- Endeavor to reduce the extent of ignorance
- Breakdown a perception of negative attitudes
- De-bunking of stereotyping concepts/practices
- A belief that attitudes will change over time
  It is the responsibility of the current generation to initiate the necessary forces for social change.

Analysis of Responses

It was of great interest to compare the previously cited definitions of attitudes and feelings with the study's findings. Each of the elements identified were contained in student inputs.

- Attitudes are formed throughout our lives…
  Responses identified in Question #1 and #2 enforced this concept.
- The three components of attitude: *emotional, informational, and behavioral…*
  Responses reported for each of the four questions supported this definition.
- Only the *behavioral* component can be directly observed…
  This concept was supported in the responses that were about their feelings and ideas. Only time will tell if these concepts and values will be incorporated in their future behavior.
- An attitude is a pre-disposition to act…

Student responses to Questions #3 and #4 directly support this concept.

A summary of those "Expressed Attitudes" dominant in student responses follows.

Question #1 …diversity be important to you…
- We should not be separated by our background
- Accepting diversity is self-enhancing
- Cultures can learn much from each other
- All people are unique
- Cultural differences enrich the world.

Question#2 …the impact of role of ethnic culture…
- Valuing other ethnic/religious cultures requires having an open mind
- Family culture is carried into our lives
- Diversity requires learning other's cultures and how to deal with the differences
- Appreciate and take advantage of the differences
- Don't judge others too quickly–learn to accept their humanness.

Question #3 …how can you improve your personal viewpoint…
- Personal interaction with others is the key
- Learning to understand is required
- Do not pre-judge or criticize
- Viewing individuals and groups as being unique
- Accepting other cultures is the starting point.

Question# 4 …Do you think America still has a long road to go…
- Endeavor to reduce the extent of ignorance
- Breakdown a perception of negative attitudes
- Accept the "universality" of humanity.

What have We Learned

Two questions are now raised:

1. What may be concluded from these expressed attitudes?

    - Students appear to possess an appreciation for diversity and see it as a contributor to self-growth, and may employ this appreciation to their advantage. Differences should not separate people; studying other cultures offers the opportunity to acquire much knowledge from others.
    - Having an open mind and understanding the importance of family culture serve as the beginning to creating a positive view of diversity.
    - Education, information (knowledge), and personal interaction with others are keys to creating successful relationships with members of diverse groups.
    - Acquiring and using knowledge of others to reduce ignorance will help break down negative attitudes and perceptions of diverse group members.

2. Does their input support the institutional goal of enabling our students to hold a broader view of human sensitivities for humanity?

    Analysis of member responses exceeded materials and ideas covered in our course discussions. One must conclude, thankfully, that knowledge and information acquired in other courses, other classrooms, and their life experiences have made an impact upon diversity thinking, behavior, and attitudes of our students.

The ultimate value of these attitudes in today's globally competitive society is reflected in a recent review of a book entitled *Start-up Nation: The Story of Israel's Economic Miracle* (Senor & Singer, 2009). The reviewer writes how "...Israel has been besieged by adversity, isolation, and lack of resources" (Gringarten, 2010, 103). The reviewer goes on to identify a liberal immigration policy that has helped to bring people with diverse backgrounds and knowhow into the country. It would appear that already possessing a positive attitude toward diversity has enabled people from many countries and cultures to enjoy personal as well as professional success, while enabling them to make a significant contributions to the economic well-being of Israel. The results of our classroom exercise would indicate that we are helping our graduates to acquire, maintain, and practice acceptance attitudes towards diversity.

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Solo vs. Collaborative Research in the Social Sciences and Higher Education: Unraveling the Realities of Male-Female Research Publication Patterns in the Context of Gender Politics and Social Justice Issues

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Abstract

This study seeks to determine if female social scientists and higher education leaders are more likely to (1) collaborate when publishing scholarly research than their male counterparts, (2) collaborate with females than males, and (3) collaborate as larger groups than their male counterparts. Concomitantly it resonates well with themes related to gender politics and social justice issues.

Findings are based on an analysis of 7,352 articles drawn from 19 major professional journals in the social sciences and higher education. Authorship is divided into nine descriptors: (1) solo male, (2) solo female, (3) dual male, (4) dual female, (5) multiple males, (6) multiple females, (7) dual male-female, (8) multiple male-female, and (9) gender unknown. Results are expressed in absolute numbers, percentages, and ratios. Chi-square tests of significance of differences also are employed.

Interestingly, female social scientists and higher education leaders are less likely to publish collaboratively than their male counterparts. Secondly, when publishing collaboratively, females are more likely do so with a male than a female colleague. Lastly, articles by larger groups of male social scientists and higher education leaders collaborating without female participation are rare, but rarest of all is for large groups of female social scientists and higher education leaders to collaborate without male participation. Repercussions of these findings for careerist objectives such as tenure as well as social justice concerns including intellectual exploitation conclude the study.

Keywords

collaboration, gender, research, publication

Introduction

This study explores gender differences in the way males and females undertake scholarly research as reflected in professional journals. It seeks to determine if publications by females as compared to males are more likely to be collaborative, and, if so, are they more likely to reflect same gender collaborations or mixed gender collaborations. Inspiration for the study comes in part from an understanding that the scholar as lone-wolf roaming the dark corridors of the ivory tower in search of truth or bent over a microscope hoping to roll back our ignorance about the world through individual observation, experimentation, and reflection has given way. Replacing the traditionally autonomous and independent scholar is the scientific research team and joint venture research. Correspondingly, there is a growth in collaborative research publications. Numerous studies clearly demonstrate the eclipse of individually driven and published research findings and the ascendancy of collaborative research and joint-authorship. This has been true in the biomedical sciences (Epstein, 1993; Norris, 1993), counseling psychology (Gladding, 1984; Strahan, 1982; Zook, 1987), the informational sciences (Lipetz, 1999), economics (Hudson, 1996), psychology (Holaday & Yost, 1994), and social science (Endersby, 1996), among other disciplines.

This brings to the fore the question of whether collaborative research is somehow gendered. There are three major logical possibilities here: (1) scholarly publications by females are more likely to reflect collaborative research than those by males; (2) scholarly publications by males are more likely to reflect collaborative research than those by females; and (3) there is no significant difference between scholarly publications by females and males when it comes to reflecting collaborative research, i.e., scholarly publications by both males and females are equally likely to reflect collaborative research. An intimately related question concerns the gender composition of any observed patterns in collaborative research. Specifically, where scholarly publications are observed to be collaborative, are they more likely to be what Aldrich, Carter, and Ruef (2002) conceptualize as homophily, i.e., same sex partnerships, or are they more likely to constitute mixed gender partnerships? Further refining this query, where scholarly publications involve same sex teams, are they more likely to be female same sex teams or male same sex teams?

These are not simply academic questions. Rather, answers to these questions regarding collaborative scholarly research and gender could have important practical repercussions for certain vital social justice issues and related administrative concerns. Chief among these social justice issues is the problem of intellectual exploitation and abuse of intellectual property, especially by the principal investigator. A troublesome variation here is apportioning credit for a publication, including effecting an equitable decision regarding primary and subordinate authorship. Milking research findings by publishing them with little variation in several different journals, and overestimating student or junior faculty contributions by altruistic senior faculty who mentor and promote their colleagues to the point they significantly underestimate their own contributions are also engendered here (Mooney, 1991). Indeed, collaboration inevitably entails the exercise of power between and among the research partners, changing research roles, and equity issues. It may well be that developing equity in the power dimensions of collaborative research is a highly complicated fluid process, rather than a goal, existing in interactions and not the romanticized uncomplicated resultant between individuals who work together (Evans, 1999; Fox & Faver, 1984). A closely related concern when undertaking collaborative research is that

control over how the findings are used may be compromised. An additional concern for many scholars is that scholarly publication is related intimately to one's success as an academic. It affects hiring, the granting of tenure and related review process, promotion, and intra-generational socio-political mobility within the university setting. The growing phenomenon of multiple authorships presents numerous challenges for those having to assess the intellectual productivity of their colleagues and grant status in the university hierarchy. Central here is the need to identify the respective contributions of the various authors and reward merit accordingly. Where universities have difficulty doing this or when they judge such multi-authored collaborative efforts as inherently of lesser value, they negatively impact one's professional status, income, rank, and promotional potential. As Crafton (2004) notes, for many faculty members collaboration can be the kiss of death, unless they also enjoy a large repertoire of solo authored scholarly achievements. Alternatively, opportunities for collaboration and team learning have been correlated with employee commitment to business organizations, including willingness to exert effort, desire to maintain membership within the organization, and general satisfaction with one's place of employment (Tseng, 2011).

Related to such social justice issues are a number of administrative concerns necessitated by collaborative research in general. Relevant here is the difficulty of dividing the labor fairly and effectively so that it capitalizes upon individual strengths and transcends idiosyncratic limitations. Correspondingly, it requires mutual respect for time constraints, availability, and reliability, including a special esprit-de-suit on the part of all participants. In addition, collaboration by its nature requires strong administrative oversight. If exploitation is always a possibility, so too is its reciprocal, i.e., the presence of team members who fail to pull their weight in a project and thereby compromise the efforts of the whole. Another problem facing would-be collaborators is the need to conform to a unitary writing style and publication protocol such that the presentation becomes a seamless piece of scholarship (see Crafton, 2004).

Admittedly, all of these potentially negative consequences of collaboration may hold for both males and females. Other negative consequences may be gender specific. For example, if females find themselves in smaller male dominated academic departments, a not unlikely scenario even today, they may suffer Hobson's choice when it comes to co-authoring research. If an "all boys network" is in operation and males either self-select to work together or otherwise discriminate against their female colleagues, female academics may have to publish solo, losing all the advantages of collaborative research. These include for example, allowing scholars from different disciplines and using diverse methods to focus on a common subject fostering unexpected insights, internal cross validation, and concomitantly building replication into the research project. Similarly, they also forfeit an important economic advantage: Collaborative research often appeals to funding agencies that increasingly look for, or require, cross insemination and diversity components. Alternatively, they may have the added social and administrative burdens of having to locate and create trusting, efficient relationships with fellow female scholars at geographically distant universities and research institutions. Or, equally disadvantageous, they may need to undertake the socio-political difficulties of cross-gender relationships with male colleagues while their male colleagues are spared such concerns (Welsh & Bremser, 2005). Indeed, even when male scholars have positive attitudes towards women research has shown that they are more likely to choose to work with male than female protégées since they can better identify with them (Ragins, 1989). Even with respect to mixed gender collaborations, traditional nurturing, passive roles of females may result in their being exploited

by having to take on more of the work as well as being relegated to clerical and librarian labors of the research enterprise, as compared to their male colleagues (see, for example, Bond, 2008).

Similarly, where females pursue scholarly publication, they often suffer the added disadvantage relative to their male counterparts of having to deal with the so-called "second shift," i.e., related household and childcare responsibilities. This, in turn, limits their available time for research. A major advantage of collaborative research is it provides for a division of labor, and, theoretically, the number of hours required of each participant is reduced proportionate to the absolute number of participants. When female scholars are disinclined to undertake collaborative research for whatever reason, including gender discrimination by male colleagues, and opt for solo productions, they are disadvantaged significantly in terms of the added time they must dedicate to any research project relative to their collaborating colleagues, male or female.

A third implication of gendered collaborative research publication is that female scholars entering into collaborative ventures with male colleagues may find themselves delegated with traditional and prejudicial role obligations such as shouldering more of the secretarial dimensions, narrative, and archival aspects of the publication enterprise. Alternatively, their involvement in and contributions to the more theoretical, quantitative, and analytic processes of the research may be blocked or not taken seriously.

In sum, where females are more inclined to undertake collaborative research than their male counterparts, this portends to exacerbate existing impediments to their careerist goals as academics. Moreover, where their collaborative publications involve joint authorship with males there arise significant administrative problems and ethical dilemmas that are compounded by those of gender politics and social justice concerns. To the extent that females undertake scholarly research publications, they may need to address these and related complications more so than their male colleagues.

Review of the Literature

Spurring this study forward is a robust literature triggered by Gilligan's (1982) research on the unique moral and psychological development of women, i.e., "In a Different Voice" as well by Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule's 1986 seminal work on the epistemology of women, i.e., "Women's Ways of Knowing." Much of this literature supports the position that females differ from males in their intellectual development and related emergent cognitive processes, especially with respect to how women learn and develop an understanding of the world in which they live. Women, for example, tend to value dialogue and high conceptual collaboration as they work together to devise concepts, ideas, themes, and analogies (Schrage, 1990). This is congruent with the fact that conversations for women play a strong role in the overall socialization of women. As Vera John-Steiner (1996, 2000) notes, girls often rely extensively on their "best friends" for their self-identity and self-knowledge. Shared conversation for them is thus a very comfortable medium of intellectual exchange and development (see also Rubin & Shenker, 1978). Women tend to mutually massage their ideas, proffering tentative reflections, rather than fully formed notions, and developing them in the course of their dialogue. Moreover, women often report taking pleasure in the sustained free flowing mutually trusting exploration of ideas. Correlatively, it has been observed that authority for some women rests not on power or status or certification but on commonality of experience (Belenky, et al., 1986). Additional

research suggests the role of dialogue plays a significantly more important role for women undertaking research than it does for their male counterparts (Tarule, 1992). Similarly, John-Steiner (1996, 2000) found women to be comfortable with interdependency when they address the subject of collaboration. They enjoy the enterprise of the co-construction of knowledge and the willingness to dialogue with others is palpable. Correspondingly, Hirokawa, Cathcart, Semovar, and Henman (2003) suggest females are more likely than males to emphasize relationships and to work within groups due to their nurturing role and their desire to be helpful to others. Even women who prefer working as solo researchers with a commitment to autonomy recognize the sustaining power of the nurturing collaborative model (John-Steiner, 1996, 2000).

Commitment to dialogue and a reflective community wherein knowledge is constructed through mutual interdependency, trust, respect, and collective thinking is not exclusive to women researchers, but it may be more prevalent among women. As Rehling (1996) observes, females tend to self-segregate. This, in turn, is explained at least partially by difficulties of females to develop cross-gender trusting relationships (McDowell & Smith, 1992; Ragins & Cotton, 1991; 1993). Some men have also demonstrated a commitment to an ideology of a working, caring community of scholars (John-Steiner, 1996, 2000). Correspondingly, women who prefer to collaborate in scholarly pursuit do not limit themselves to female partners. However, there may be special considerations in selecting such male co-authors, including only those who do not carry the baggage of traditional gender stereotypes. Vera John-Steiner (1996, 2000) also observes that a strong emphasis on mutuality which includes cognitive and affective elements is especially helpful to women who have experienced marginalization, worked in highly competitive environments, or who endured situations where male coworkers failed to hear their contributions or take them seriously beyond care-giving responsibilities.

Men on the other hand have been characterized as linear thinkers, emphasizing objectivity and analytical logic (Kerka, 1993). This reflects the fact that men are generally socialized for leadership roles and an authoritative style. They are also associated with individualism, being achievement oriented, competitive, and self-sufficient. Alternatively, women tend to be more subjective or inductive in their reasoning and by being forced to learn using a male vocabulary and logic may feel alienated in the learning environment (Gallos, 1992). Belenky et al. (1986) speak of women as "connected knowers," who comprehend reality by relating new information to experience in the context of relationships. Other research such as Caffarella (1992) discern the centrality of relationships, diverse and nonlinear life patterns, and intimacy and identity as three major themes that prevail in the literature on women's social and intellectual development.

The central thrust of these theoretical arguments and related empirical findings would suggest that publications by female scholars are more likely to reflect joint enterprise as compared to publications by their male counterparts. However, there is a significant body of literature much to the contrary. It supports the position that professional publications by male scholars are more likely to entail joint ventures as compared to those of their female colleagues. Prominent among this literature is a work by Sonnert and Holton (1995). Studying women in science and their career advancement Sonnert and Holton take exception to the general notion that women are more collaborative in their research style than men. Using survey data from 699 respondents supplemented by 200 face to face interviews of men and women who had received prestigious postdoctoral fellowships in the sciences Sonnert and Holton find that "women had a less collaborative working style than men...during and after the postdoctoral fellowship, even though

their working style was more collaborative before the fellowship" (as cited in Sonnert, 1995, p. 54). Furthermore, they observe that the consequences of collaboration differ by gender: a highly collaborative style during the postdoctoral fellowship correlated with excellent career outcomes for male but inferior career outcomes for female scientists. This leads them to conclude that "collaboration at early stages may in some cases constitute a surprising "collaboration trap" for women (Sonnert & Holton, 1995). In a related finding Sonnert and Holton observe that relative to men, women scientists were (1) less careerist oriented, (2) less self-promoting, (3) more perfectionist oriented, (4) more comprehensive, and (5) more synthetic in their work. In combination, these factors, they posit, may explain why women scientists in general were less prolific in the number of publications they generate relative to their male counterparts. It would also help to account for the fact that women were more likely to be cited in literature reviews, a possible instance of the hegemony of quality over quantity. Simply stated, women may produce fewer but more substantial articles than men. However, the awarding of promotions and tenure often is based more on the shear number of papers one has published or grant money mined than issues of quality. This, in itself may account for the so-called "trap of collaboration" and eclipse any interest or predilection for collaborative research on the part of women. Streuly and Maranto (1994) when examining scholarly productivity among accounting faculty also found that males are more likely than females to collaborate in research publications. McDowell and Smith (1992) make a similar finding with respect to publications by economics faculty. They further observe that where co-authorships did occur, they were most likely to be gender homophilic, i.e., same sex collaborations. If this is indeed true, it could reflect difficulties in establishing cross-gender relationships. This is especially problematic for female faculty in departments that are male dominated either by rank, reputation, or absolute numbers, even as the ratio of female to male faculty in the social sciences and elsewhere is increasing (Hill, Corbett, & St. Rose, 2010).

Still other researchers support the position that gender is unrelated to collaborative research productivity. Leahey, Crockett, and Hunter (2008) find no significant gender differences in rates of collaboration among sociologists; however, they do observe that quantitative research is more likely to be collaborative as are projects requiring data collection. It seems that the type of research required effects the likelihood of collaboration, with a propensity of women to employ qualitative methods or to triangulate qualitative and quantitative methods (Zawacki-Richter & Von Prummer, 2010). Leahey, Crockett, and Hunter (2008) also note that solo male authorship continues to be the most common form of publication in sociology. Similarly, according to Stack (2002) when it comes to scholarly productivity in the discipline of criminal justice gender is not significantly associated with either the number of articles published or their heuristic value as measured by frequency of citation in the general literature. Instead, faculty rank and year that the Ph.D. was earned were more predictive of collaborative publication. Welch and Jha (2009) focusing on the multiplicity of co-authorships find that females are less likely than males to participate in more than one collaborative activity thereby supporting the position taken by Ibarra (1992) that women enjoy fewer strong ties with other women.

Objectives of the Study

This study tests a number of interrelated hypotheses regarding collaborative research and gender in higher education and the social sciences. These include the following:

H_1 Females are more likely to publish collaboratively in professional higher education journals than their male counterparts.

H_2 Females are more likely to publish collaboratively in professional social science journals than their male counterparts.

H_3 Where females collaborate in professional higher education journal publications they are more likely than their male counterparts to collaborate within their own gender.

H_4 Where females collaborate in professional social science journal publications they are more likely than their male counterparts to collaborate within their own gender.

H_5 Subject areas that tend to be female dominated are significantly more likely to evidence females collaborating solely with females than those subject areas where there is a tradition of male hegemony.

H_6 Subject areas that tend to be male dominated are significantly more likely to evidence solo publications than those subject areas where there is a tradition of female hegemony.

H_7 Over time there has been a significant increase in the number of collaborative research publications over solo publications.

In addition, an effort is made to determine if size of the collaborative team is somehow gendered. In particular, are dyads involving two females significantly more common than dyads involving two males or dyads of mix gender? Similarly, are larger teams of three or more females significantly more commonly found in the professional literature than those consisting of three or more males or mixed gendered authorships?

More generally, this study (1) undertakes a seminal exploration for the influence of gender on research in the higher education; (2) updates previous research on authorship and gender in the social sciences; (3) compares and contrasts the influence of gender on research in higher education and the social sciences; and (4) probes for recent trends in gender and authorship. It also seeks to provide a descriptive profile of the proportion of various higher education and social science journals produced by single authors, dual authors, multiple authors of three or more, etc.

Methodology

Data for this study are based upon a census of the authorship of articles published in major professional journals drawn from the field of higher education and five disciplines in the social sciences, including sociology, political science, psychology, criminal justice, and social work. Each journal is chosen because it represents a major professional organization, enjoys a long history of publication, is widely cited, and boasts a national scope. Moreover, they combine to offer a panorama of the method, theory, and substantive interests that characterize higher

education as well as the social sciences. In addition, the journal collection includes representatives of the so-called pure sciences (e.g., *The American Sociological Review; American Journal of Psychology*) the applied sciences (e.g., Social Work; *Journal of the Marital and Family Therapy*) and the more narrative branches of the social sciences (e.g., *Foreign Affairs*). Yet another advantage is that our selections include journals often viewed as female dominated, such as Social Work, Women's Studies, and the Journal of Marital and Family Therapy as well as others which are often characterized as reflecting male hegemony, such as Law and Society Review and Public Affairs. A complete roster of the journals and the academic subject areas they represent is found in Table 1.

Table 1
Academic Subject Area and Representative Journals

Subject area	Representative journals
Criminology	Criminology Crime and Delinquency Law and Society Review
Higher Education	Journal of Higher Education Education Policy Research on Higher Education Educational Administrative Quarterly
Political Science	American Political Science Review Journal of Politics Political Research Quarterly
Psychology	American Journal of Psychology American Journal of Community Psychology Psychological Review
Social Work	Social Work Journal of Marital and Family Therapy Child Welfare
Sociology	American Sociological Review American Journal of Sociology Social Forces

In all, the authorship of 7,352 professional journal articles gleaned from 19 professional journals are plumbed, 4 from education and 3 from each of the 5 social sciences. Moreover, article authorship from each journal is examined over an eleven-year period, extending from 1996 through 2006. Only full-length professional articles are surveyed. Editorial pieces, book reviews, debates including responses and replies, methodological notes, and opinion pieces are excluded.

Each journal is surveyed year by year in seriatim. Authorship, in turn, is divided into nine descriptors: (1) solo male, (2) solo female, (3) dual male, (4) dual female, (5) multiple (three or more) males, (6) multiple (three or more) females, (7) dual male-female authorship, (8) multiple

male-female authorship, and (9) authorship unknown. Frequency distributions of each descriptor for each journal are noted annually, tallied for the eleven-year longitudinal frame, and compared. Proportional comparisons also are made in terms of the discipline of the journal. Subsequently, aggregate descriptor scores for the composite of the four higher education journals and for the composite of the three journals representing each of the social sciences also are calculated. Lastly, analysis of variance is conducted to determine the significance of any observed trends in authorship gender and related pattern of publication.

An author's gender is determined by name recognition. Where the name is not truly definitive in the traditional sense and always in the case of foreign names, Internet searches are conducted to ascertain the author's gender. A more conservative effort is made. Gender is never assumed from such sexually neutral names as Marian, Beverley, Shelley, and the like. They are always validated using Internet searches. In rare instances, gender could not be determined and these constitute a separate category, i.e., Gender Unknown.

Chi square tests are conducted to determine if males are significantly more likely than females to publish alone or to collaborate. Secondly, we sought to determine if males or females who do collaborate are significantly more likely to collaborate with members of their own sex or with members of the opposite sex. Thirdly, trends in publication patterns by males and females, including solo verses collaborative authorships over time, 1996 through 2006, are traced for any significant changes using analysis of variance. Additionally, cross discipline comparisons are made to determine if frequency patterns of male to female publications (solo versus collaborative) significantly differ between higher education and the social sciences in general and between education and any of the specified social sciences in particular, or between and among the various social sciences. Lastly, descriptive findings and related frequency comparisons are expressed in terms of absolute numbers, percentages, and ratios.

Findings and Analyses

Comparing patterns of variation in publication styles among those articles published in the different social sciences and the field of education reveals several interesting and informative findings. First, collaboration continues to be the method of choice when it comes to research publication in education and in all the social sciences studied here, with the exception of political science. Approximately 60% of all sociology, criminal justice, social work, and education articles and as much as 73% of psychology articles are the product of collaborative efforts. Collaboration appears to be the modus operandi in contemporary social science as well as higher education research and related publications. The prevalence of collaboration in professional article publications ranges from a high of 73% in psychology to a low of 55.2% in higher education. Only in the case of political science articles are the majority (70%) solo productions. These figures almost exactly replicate those of earlier research on collaboration by Endersby (1998). Importantly, it also means that the proportion of articles generated by collaborative enterprise has remained relatively constant rather than continuing to increase over the past ten years. Correspondingly, it suggests that despite the focus on the emergence of collaborative research as the favored mode of publication, its dominance may have peaked in the mid-1990s. It follows that with the singular exception of psychology, solo authorships continue to rival collaborative authorships at about the same 40% rate as it did ten years ago (see Table 2). Thus, regardless of the focal attention given to the growing popularity of collaborative authorship in professional

journals, it would be wrong to ignore the prevalence of the solo publication and its endurance in all fields studied. In addition, while males typically surpass females in solo publications, there are some important exceptions. In social work, for example, female solo publications generally outstrip those by males. Similarly, female solo publications in the *Journal of Education Administration Quarterly* exceed those for males. Moreover, with respect to the *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy*, they are on par with those of their male counterparts.

Table 2
The Percent of Articles Produced by Collaborative Efforts as it Varies
by Subject Discipline, 1996-2006

Subject area	Percent of articles collaboratively produced	Percent of articles solo produced
Sociology	57.2	42.8
Criminal Justice	60.8	39.2
Higher Education	55.2	44.8
Social Work	58.0	42.0
Psychology	73.0	27.0
Political Science	43.3	56.7

It is also observed that mixed gender publications and same sex collaborations occur with about equal frequency. They constitute 52.3% and 47.7% of collaborations respectively. For example, mixed gender publications make up 55% of the total collaborations in the representative education journals and the remaining 45% represent the work of same sex teams. Further subdividing same sex publications into those by males and those by females, reveals that in all the journals surveyed, large (three or more) same sex collaborations by either males or females are consistently rare. Moreover, where collaborations do occur, whether they involve dyads or three or more they are consistently more likely to involve mixed sex groups than same sex groups. The fact that large groups of mixed gender collaborations often dominate the publication scene has a number of interesting possible explanations and implications. One such explanation is that an especially productive synergy emerges when mixed sex groups engage in a mutual research project that is lacking in same-sex female or same-sex male collaborative undertakings. Another possibility is that large groups of mixed sex groups tend to produce more gender-neutral narratives and interpretations and can thereby muster greater favor in the major scientific journals. Regardless, if collaboration in research publications has become a modal pattern, with more than half of such joint publications involving male-female cooperative authorship, it would appear that marginalization of females by their male counterparts in academic circles is also on the decline. It also would suggest that research teams targeting publication as an objective might be better off soliciting members from both sexes when organizing a research project than being gender exclusive.

As surprising as some of these observations may be, it is when we focus our lens on same sex collaborations and probe a bit deeper that our most unanticipated discovery emerges. More specifically, approximately three times as many articles involve males collaborating in same sex teams as compared to females collaborating with females, 1592 vs. 530. While our research

design and related data do not allow us to conclude that males are more likely to collaborate with males than females are to collaborate with females, our findings are at least consistent with that possibility. Moreover, the proliferation of males in excess of females with respect to same sex collaboration in publication holds for both dyads and for collaborations by three or more authors. It also occurs in all subject fields studied, except social work where female teams are slightly more common than male teams. However, the extent of the dominance of male based collaborative co-authorship does range by subject field. For example, in political science male teams are ten times more frequent than female teams, while in higher education it is only about three times more common. With more articles in general being published by collaborations of males than by collaborations of females, there is support for the position that joint publication has found greater favor among males, while many females are still pressing on with the more traditional solo publications or mixed gender collaborations.

Indeed, despite occasional exceptions in a given volume or issue number, females working alone are generally more frequently evidenced in the table of contents of professional social science and education journals than females working as either small or large same sex teams. Moreover, with respect to social work, solo female productivity actually exceeds that of solo male productivity. At the same time, our data clearly support the position that male solo authorships exceed those by females in psychology, sociology, criminal justice, political science, and education, jointly and severally by a ratio of approximately three to one.

Furthermore, when females appear in publications as part of a small team of just two authors, they are more likely to publish with a male rather than a female colleague unlike males who more likely publish with a male colleague. It also means that females seeking one other colleague with whom to undertake research in anticipation of a publication may be at an advantage by choosing a male rather than a female colleague. However, the data in this area are limited. Since we do not know how many females vis-à-vis males were involved in the three or more categories we cannot claim that females in general are either more or less likely to collaborate than males.

One of the most consistent of our findings when comparing subject areas studied is that large groups made up of three or more females publishing together are extremely rare, especially relative to females publishing alone. Although more common than three or more females collaborating in a publication, large teams of three or more males co-operating to produce a publication is also somewhat rare, especially relative to males publishing alone. Instead, when it comes to multiples of three or more authors collaborating, the dominant publication pattern typically involves mixed gender authorship. Moreover, this pattern is frequently just as common if not more so than either males or females publishing alone. That teams involving large numbers of females publishing together, or even smaller dyads of two females working together rarely occur sometimes is explained by offering that females have difficulty finding other females with whom to work. This explanation fails when confronted by the reality that more females than males are earning their Ph.D.s annually in many social sciences including sociology, psychology, anthropology, and American studies (Fox, 2001, 2004). It also is contradicted by a growing feminization of such academic fields as psychology, sociology, higher education, and marriage and family therapy. For example, in 2008, more than 60% of the members of the American Psychological Association (APA, 2009) and more than 50% of the American Sociological Association (ASA, 2008) are reported to be female. Moreover, throughout the years of this

study, the sex ratio of memberships in these and other relevant professional organizations tends to be about equal or at least approach equality.

These findings also contradict much of the literature suggesting that females tend to be more collaborative than males. Explaining this is more difficult than evidencing it. One conjectured possibility is that females may see themselves as marginalized in their academic professions and understandably resent it. Consequently, they may view working solely with other females as fostering even further marginalization. Males, in turn, have no parallel concern and are therefore more open to collaborating with both males and females. Correspondingly, females may also be more sensitive to the need to produce solo publications as a route to tenure and career advancement while being wary of the numerous pitfalls associated with using collaborative research for that purpose. Males, on the other hand, being more secure in their career positions and their opportunities for advancement are less troubled by such demands and limitations. This explanation is also congruent with the reality that females are more likely to publish with males than with other females. Having a male co-author is less likely to precipitate in a feeling of being marginalized or not being taken seriously by male colleagues, another major complaint among female academics. Males, in turn, are confident in their being mainstreamed and unlikely to be troubled that female colleagues fail to take them seriously. Lastly, this explanation is also in keeping with our "deviant case," i.e., that social work journals reflect a greater proclivity of females to publish solely with other females than for males to publish solely with other males. Social work in general, unlike many of the other social sciences, enjoys a long and impressive history as a female developed and led profession. It follows that females publishing in social work journals would have little concern about issues related to marginalization or being taken seriously by male colleagues. That solo female publications dominate here even above the combined figure for all same sex female publications, is also in line with traditional regard for solo publications as a route to career advancement coupled with greater opportunities for that to happen in social work.

In sum, our findings indicate that: (1) articles by males publishing alone are more likely to be found in the professional journals than those by females publishing alone; (2) partnerships of one male with another male are more frequently found in the major professional journals than partnerships of two women collaborating; and (3) in jointly authored publications females are more likely to couple with a male than another female.

Next, for sociology, criminal justice, political science, and higher education dyadic collaborations are more common than collaboration among three or more authors. However, in psychology and social work publications by dyads and those by three or more collaborators occur with about equal frequency. Still, in no instance, do collaborations by three or more authors well outstrip those by smaller dyads. Generally speaking, smaller teams in most social sciences and education are more likely to find themselves named in the table of contents of major journals than larger teams. However, there are important exceptions with respect to psychology and social work.

Superimposing the bar graphs for psychology, sociology, criminal justice, and political science clearly shows that the "cityscape profile" for solo male and female authorship, dyads of all male, all female and mixed gender is quite similar. It differs, however, for higher education and social work. With social work, the heavy producers are females along with two-female dyads and this in the main accounts for variances with the other social science journals. With higher

education the variance is due to the presence of more females as solo authors which actually outstrip those by two male dyads.

Lastly, the cityscape profile for three or more collaborative productions in psychology, sociology, criminal justice and even political science are parallel. Only the one for social work evidences a slight variation, with articles by three or more females being more common than articles by three or more males. Dominating all, however, are articles produced by three or more of mixed gender.

Conclusion

After reviewing 7,352 published articles gleaned from 19 major journals over an 11-year period, 1996-2006, and representing five of the social sciences as well as the field of higher education no evidence is found to support the hypothesis that females produce more collaboratively-based research than their male counterparts. Indeed, where joint venture articles appear in the professional literature explored here they are more likely to involve males collaborating with males than females collaborating with females. Moreover, where articles are authored by more than one person, they are most likely to involve females collaborating with at least one male rather than solely with others of their own gender. Especially rare are same gender publications where three or more females are collaborating without males. Alternatively, pairs of males engaged in same gender research are more commonly found in the literature than pairs of females. And, more articles authored by large groups of three or more males are published than articles produced by large groups of collaborating females. This suggests that males are actually more likely to collaborate among themselves than females. Males appear to have discovered the many advantages of collaborative research and are capitalizing upon them. Correspondingly, they either are less concerned about its limitations or have transcended them. These developments may be a latent consequence of the growing feminization of academia and the related integration of females with mainstream scholarly productivity and dialogue. Regrettably, we did not control for the specific number of males and females in the three or more categories. This deficiency prevents us from making more definitive remarks that either males or females in general are more likely to collaborate. Rather, we can interpret our findings only in terms of successful publication patterns and the presence or absence of collective authorship and its implications about collaboration.

Secondly, since articles by females working with males are often modal, we have reason to propose that the marginalization of females in the academic areas reviewed in this research project may have been bridged significantly. This is supported further by the fact that published females are often as successfully competitive in boasting solo publications as their male colleagues. Academic departments appear to be facilitating a culture of collaboration among its protagonists, possibly abetted by an increasing emphasis on racial and ethnic diversity, the growth of interdisciplinary curricula, the general movement towards globalization, and, of course, the Internet.

Lastly, while collaborative research and publication has gained hegemony over solo publications for both males and females in social science and in education, solo publication continues to enjoy a significant presence in the literature. Furthermore, females are contributing a greater proportion of the titles here relative to males than they did a generation ago. This is due in part to more females having success in publishing alone and to the fact that more males are

publishing with females and with other males, rather than restricting themselves to solo authorship. At the same time, the movement towards collaborative research in the social sciences and education that began some thirty-plus years ago appears to have reached a plateau and abated. Given that males and females are publishing together routinely and that females are beginning to challenge male hegemony in producing solo publications, there is good reason to believe we are witnessing emergent gender equity in the academic marketplace of ideas.

Practical Implications

Given these findings, there is a need to standardize a system at the university level for evaluating the contributions of each of several authors to a given publication especially as such publication achievement contributes to advancement in rank and tenure. Equally, the growth of collaborative research provides further justification for sensitizing academics to the increasingly salient and disquieting issue of intellectual exploitation and its handmaidens of exaggerated scholarly contribution and the trivialization of publication through redundancy. On a somewhat broader level, it has important implications for intellectual property law and concerns about intellectual fraud, harassment, and equity.

Younger colleagues, in turn, especially, those more timid or reluctant to undertake independent research, may take courage in the normalization and institutionalization of collaborative research as reflected in the fact that the most prestigious journals in their respective disciplines are not shying away from publishing co-authored projects. A further practical implication of these research findings is that both males and females portend to foster diversity in methodological preferences, reasoning styles and perspectives through collaboration. However, whether this is happening is beyond the scope of this study.

Among the questions for further research raised by this study are the following:

1. Where articles involve mixed gender collaborations, what proportion are captained by females? How does it vary by discipline?
2. Are females more likely to be involved in large collaborative efforts than males?
3. Are males and females equally likely to help their neophyte colleagues to publish? Conversely, are they equally likely to intellectually exploit their junior colleagues and students?
4. Are males collaborating for the same reasons as females?
5. Does the fact that more females publish in a subject area or field affect its prestige? What is the direction of any observed affect? Similarly, what is the impact of more collaborative research in general on the prestige of given subjects or fields?

These and related questions go to the heart of the sociology of knowledge and issues central to the concept of intellectual property both on and off campus. Since they may also engender such concerns as intellectual exploitation, institutional bias, and delimited professional opportunities, they are also intimately related to the domain of social justice.

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Interpersonal Trust in Latin America: Analyzing Variations in Trust using Data from the *Latinobarómetro*

Giselle D. Jamison

Abstract

Current data from public opinion polls gathered in the last 20 years seem to confirm what experts have suspected all along: Latin Americans do not trust. They do not trust their public institutions, their congress, their politicians, their police, or the media. Moreover, when asked if they trust their fellow citizens, Latin Americans express high levels of distrust against each other. Interpersonal trust is very low in the region as a whole. According to the political culture perspective, low levels of interpersonal trust may hinder political and economic development. While many studies have attempted to explain the consequences of not trusting, few studies have tried to find out why trust is low. This preliminary study fills the vacuum by looking at intrinsic or structural (cultural, socio-economic) and extrinsic explanations (citizens' evaluations of performance) as reasons for distrust in Latin America. The main research method of this study is the statistical method supplemented with the comparative method when data are available. The database used is the *Latinobarómetro*.

Keywords

interpersonal trust, Latin America, political culture, *Latinobarómetro*

Introduction

Is Latin America still the "Continent of Hope?" The World Bank, the Inter-American Development Bank, and other international financial institutions seem to think so. After all, Latin America has transitioned successfully from "lost decades" of military dictatorships, gross human rights violations, and substandard economic performance to democratic regimes in which some countries have achieved high levels of economic growth (e.g., Brazil). However, while a majority of the countries in the region are now democratic (with the exception of Cuba and, some argue, Venezuela), democracy has not "delivered" for most of Latin Americans (Camp, 2001). According to the Human Development Report (Watkins, 2005) produced by the United

Nations Development Programme (UNDP), Latin America has the largest gap in the world between those who are rich and those who are poor (Table 1), corruption is very high by international standards as reported by Transparency International (2010), and a majority of the citizens believe that political and economic development is lacking (Latinobarómetro, 2009).

Table 1
Income Inequalities by Regions of the World

Region	Income of the highest 10% Income of the bottom 10%
Europe and Eurasia	7
United States	8
Asia and Near East	9
Africa	18
Latin America and Caribbean	35

In addition, a "syndrome of low trust" permeates all levels of society. Latin Americans have difficulty trusting the media, the political regime, the politicians, the political institutions, and particularly they do not trust their fellow citizens or neighbors (Latinobarómetro, 2009; Power & Jamison, 2005). According to data from the World Value Survey and European Value Survey (1999-2001), trust in fellow citizens, also known as "interpersonal trust," is lower in Latin America than in any other region of the world with barely 20 percent of Latin Americans trusting their neighbor (Figure 1). Why is trust so low? This paper attempts to provide some answers.

Figure 1. Interpersonal trust by regions of the world.
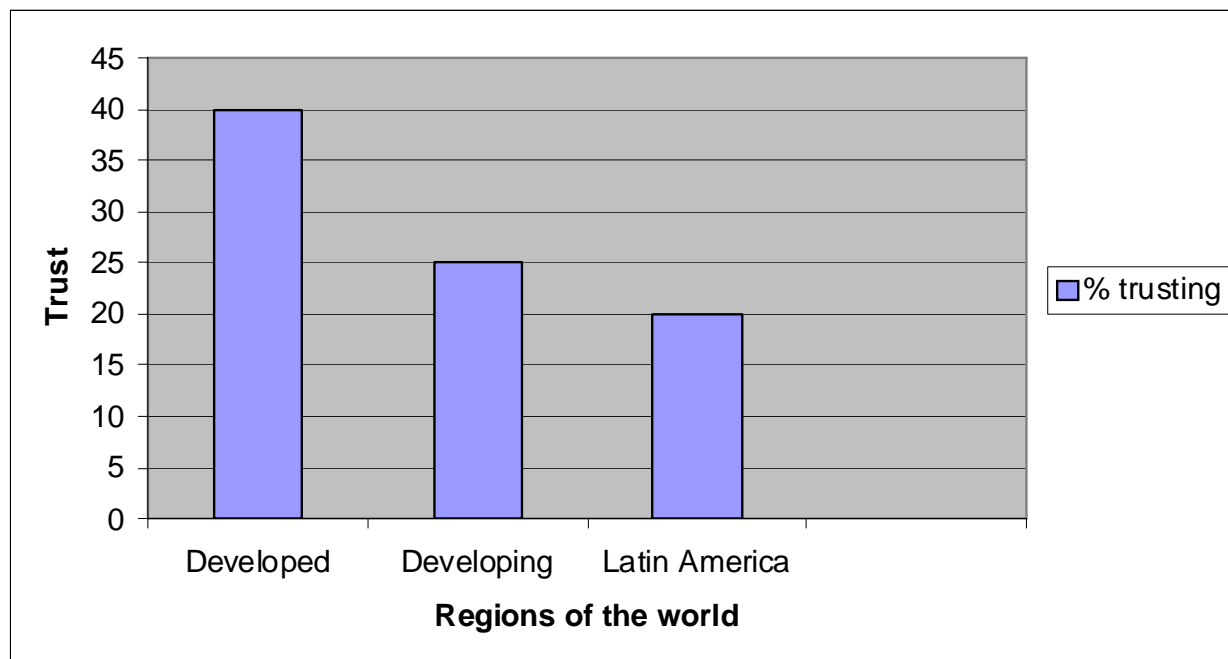
Note. N=101,503. Countries were selected based on data availability. Developed countries include Austria, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Island, Ireland, Netherlands, Spain, and Sweden. Developing countries include Albania, Bangladesh, Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Japan, Jordan, Republic of Korea, Morocco, Nigeria, Russian Federation, Slovenia, and Ukraine. Latin American countries include Argentina, Chile, Mexico, Peru, and Venezuela. Individuals were asked the following question: "Generally speaking, would you say that you can trust most people, or that you can never be too careful when dealing with others?" 0=trust-1=not trust.

According to the political culture literature, countries with individuals who distrust their fellow citizens may delay economic and political development by damaging the reservoir of social capital needed in a society for democratic regimes to survive (Almond & Verba, 1963/1989; Fukuyama, 1992; Hoogue & Stolle, 2003; Inglehart, 1997, 1999; Norris, 1999; Putnam, 2000; Wiarda 1992). Social capital facilitates collective action, increases tolerance and reciprocity, and helps to generate confidence in the markets and the political regime—all definitional elements of capitalism and democracy (Hooghe & Stolle, 2003; Putnam, 1993). At the national level, trust translates into support for political institutions and the acceptance of a "loyal opposition," enhancing the legitimacy of established democracies and giving new political systems time to mature (Hooghe & Stolle, 2003; Inglehart, 1997, 1999; Power & Clark, 2001). Interpersonal trust, years of democracy, and economic development are highly correlated (Hooghe & Stolle, 2003; Inglehart, 1997; Power & Clark 2001).

If, as the literature suggests (Brehm & Rahn, 1997; Inglehart, 1988, 1997; Newton & Norris 2000), high levels of trust are instrumental for countries to develop politically and economically, could low levels of trust be a contributing factor to a lack of full political and economic development in Latin America? Although this is a question worth exploring, first we need to understand what causes people to distrust.

Low levels of economic and political performances of democracies may be not only a consequence but also a cause of distrust. Low levels of trust also may respond to more intrinsic causes, such as culture. Either trust is part of a legacy from the past and shaped by societal arrangements, hence more intrinsic in nature, or trust responds to external reasons, such as how well political institutions and economic policies "deliver" for a majority of the citizens (Brehm & Rahn, 1997; Hooghe & Stolle, 2003; Jamison, 2005; Muller & Seligson, 1994, Power & Clark 2001; Stolle, 2003; Uslaner, 2003). This article tests both hypotheses using data from the Latinobarómetro (LB). The LB is one of the largest public opinion polls done in Latin America for the last 20 years. The LB is a survey carried out every year in 18 Latin American countries with representative samples representing a population of 400 million people (Latinobarómetro, 2009). Almost every country in the hemisphere has been surveyed, with the exception of Cuba. As the Latinobarómetro (2009) Website indicates, "The survey measures public opinions, attitudes and behaviors on topics covering: economics and international trade; integration and trade agreements; democracy; politics and institutions; civic culture and participation; social capital; environment: and gender and gender discrimination." Researchers working with this database need to exercise care when coding and merging the dataset.

In the next section, I review the literature on causes of trust and the importance for Latin America. Then, I explain the hypotheses tested in this study, the methodology, and the database used. Finally, I use statistics as a tool to test these hypotheses. In the conclusion, I give suggestions for future research.

The Causes of Trust and the Importance for Latin America

Most comparativists in the Political Science or Sociology fields have looked at whether interpersonal trust was present in a particular society or country, and then used trust as an independent variable to explain political and societal outcomes at the aggregate level of analysis, looking at a country as a whole (Almond & Verba, 1963/1989; Banfield, 1958; Fukuyama, 1995; Putnam, 1993, 1995). The underlying assumption was that trust is a necessary condition for political and economic development, and only societies that have trust become advanced societies (Putnam, 1993, 1995). At the aggregate level, these studies found strong correlations between trust, political, and economic outcomes (Putnam, 1993, 1995).

Alternatively, others have questioned the directionality between trust, political, and economic outcomes (Brehm & Rahn, 1997; Inglehart, 1988, 1997; Newton & Norris, 2000). Inglehart (1997) argues that although interpersonal trust, political outcomes, and economic performance are correlated, their directionality is inconclusive. He concludes that interpersonal trust impacts political outcomes, but political institutions and economic growth impact the development of trust as well (Inglehart, 1988, 1997).

Fewer researchers have isolated trust as a dependent variable. By looking at trust as a dependent variable, researchers can attempt to explain the factors that contribute to the formation of interpersonal trust. This, in turn, may explain the formation of social capital at the individual and aggregate level of analysis (Hooghe & Stolle, 2003; Muller & Seligson, 1994; Power, 2002; Power & Clark, 2001). In this study, I look at trust as a dependent variable to understand what causes trust. As noted earlier, trust may be due to intrinsic factors, whether cultural or societal, or trust may respond to external factors, such as political and economic performance of the regime. Issues of trust generally are studied within the political culture literature. Almond and Verba (1963/1989) defined political culture as "the political system as internalized in the cognitions, feelings, and evaluations of its population" (p. 4). Consequently, issues related to values, attitudes, or behavior of people toward a political system are part of the political culture literature.

Political culture studies originated with the path-breaking work of Almond and Verba (1963/1989) during the 1960s. Authors who followed this school of thought suggested interpersonal trust was determined culturally (Almond & Verba, 1963/1989; Banfield, 1958; Fukuyama, 1995; Putnam, 1993, 1995). Moreover, researchers from this group argued that advanced or developed nations had cultures with high levels of trust, which allowed them to support democratic and economic development. On the other side, they argued the least developed nations had cultures with low levels of trust. Consequently, no democracy or development could ever be completely achieved (Wiarda, 1992). For these studies, trust was embedded in the culture of a country, determining political outcomes. If a culture such as the Hispanic culture lacked interpersonal trust among its citizens, they argued, nothing could be done to increase trust because the legacy of authoritarianism present in these societies impedes the development of any type of values or attitudes conducive to economic or political development.

Authors like Samuel Huntington (1971), Howard Wiarda (1992), and Alberto Montaner (2001) perpetuated this perception about Latin America. For these writers, Latin America's political culture "has been [historically] absolutist, elitist, hierarchical, corporatist, and authoritarian" (Wiarda, 1992, p. 52). According to this group, the lack of cultural values such as

interpersonal trust or tolerance conducive to democracy is traced to the Spanish colonization dating back to the 16th century. The antidemocratic culture of Latin America deepened during the processes of independence and nation building in the 18th century, guided by authoritarian "caudillos." Finally, the rigidity of the Hispanic culture surfaced again in the many interruptions to democracies by military dictators during the 20th century. These studies, however, lacked the analytical tools to operationalize their assumptions about culture. Cultural analyses soon were dismissed in the 1970s as they appeared ethnocentric and tautological. Authors who challenged this line of reasoning argued that if culture explained culture then culture explained nothing at all (Turner, 1995).

Political culture studies, however, experienced a "renaissance" in the late 1980s (Inglehart, 1988). Inglehart (1988) disputed the deterministic claim using worldwide quantitative data. He claimed that, "far from being static, interpersonal trust can and is modified by social and economic change, social and civic mobilization, institutional practice, historical experience, and international diffusion" (Inglehart, 1988, p. 32). To understand values and attitudes such as trust, interpersonal trust "needs to be placed in a particular socio-economic historical context" (Inglehart, 1988, p. 33). Arguing from a qualitative perspective, Martha Lagos (1997) expanded on this assumption.

Lagos (1997) combined historical, institutional, and social factors to explain distrust in Latin America. She argues the erosion of trust in Latin America was not exclusive to the region because interpersonal trust and trust in institutions have been declining worldwide, so it is not a cultural Hispanic phenomenon. Moreover, she says, trust has been declining worldwide due to a process of modernization that has deepened in the 20th century (Lagos, 1997). However, Lagos (1997) admits, Latin American's sharp decline in trust can be explained to a unique set of external factors that affected only this region. While eroding trust in advanced countries was quickly replaced by associations that helped keep the levels of interpersonal trust alive, the erosion of interpersonal trust in Latin America has not been replaced. So, as societies modernize and industrialize, close networks such as families and friends disband. The dissolution of family and friends networks leaves an "unfilled" space (Lagos, 1997). With the liberalization of the markets and the implementation of economic and political policies that do not provide for a safety network for displaced individuals, individuals feel isolated and unable to trust, feeding a never ending cycle of distrust in the region (Lagos, 1997).

Scholars working from an institutional-centered approach focus on the external reasons to explain trust (Hooghe & Stolle, 2003; Lagos, 1997). These researchers have looked at how policies that favor economic inequality negatively affect trust (Cordova, 2008; Uslaner, 2003), how endemic corruption impacts trust (Della Porta, 2000; Rothstein & Stolle, 2003), and how poor democratic performance lowers levels of interpersonal trust (Levi, 1996; Muller & Seligson, 1987). Uslaner (2003) argued it is difficult to trust "when some groups feel left out of the society and believe that others control the resources" (p. 172). Individuals who perceive the regime is not performing may distrust society and fellow citizens more than individual who perceive the system is working (Uslaner, 2003; Zovato, 2002). Countries with the lowest levels of trust seem to be those with the most unequal distributions of wealth, such as the ones in Latin America. Researchers who want to test extrinsic explanations of trust should look at "long-established institutional patterns and policies" behind the formation of trust because institutional forces do not act quickly (Hooghe & Stolle, 2003, p. 11). Consequently, if extrinsic variables are to be included in a model of trust, long term data is needed.

In contrast, socio-demographic variables may capture the intrinsic and diverse elements of a culture within a country (Inglehart, 1997; Power & Clark, 2001; Putnam, 2000). According to Inglehart (1997), since cultures are not monolithic, variations within a particular culture may be due to variations between individuals that belong to that particular culture. If researchers want to test alternative explanations, they first need to control for these variations at the individual level of analysis (Hooghe & Stolle, 2003; Inglehart, 1997; Power & Clark, 2001; Putnam, 2000). The most common controls include: income, gender, age, and education. Researchers seem to agree that trusting individuals are more educated, older, and wealthier than non-trusting individuals (Inglehart, 1997; Lipset, 1959, 1967; Power & Clark, 2001). Among these socio-demographic variables, education seems to outperform income or age (Power & Clark, 2001). As Power argued, "The greater an individual's level of education, the more likely he or she is to trust others, to support norms of civic behavior in interpersonal relations, and to support democracy" (Power & Clark, 2001, p. 69). Formal education is one of the greatest socialization agents that help shape values and attitudes such as the ones supportive of democracy and capitalism (Power & Clark, 2001).

To capture the "cumulative weight of history," traditions, and myths that form the cultural fabric of a society, researchers suggest controlling for the "country effect" when analyzing trust in a comparative country perspective (Muller & Seligson, 1994; Power & Clark, 2001, p. 68). These controls should be done in addition to the standard demographic factors suggested above (Muller & Seligson, 1994). Differences in levels of trust between countries may be due not only to socio-demographic differences but also to differences inside each country. An individual in Brazil has a different context of reference than an individual from Argentina or Chile, and this difference may impact interpersonal trust (Muller & Seligson, 1994). Individual historical contexts may help us understand these differences.

In sum, intrinsic or societal explanations, and external or institutional ones, are the main explanations to understand trust at the individual level of analysis. I use statistics to test both hypotheses with data from the LB.

Method

I used data from the LB to answer why Latin Americans distrust their fellow citizens. I also wanted to test what generates trust. The LB is the first major comprehensive public opinion poll measuring political, cultural, and socio-economic issues in Latin American countries. The LB has been modeled after the well established Eurobarometer. The LB has measured public opinion in the region since 1995.

Although using survey instruments like the LB have restrictions, the benefits, particularly for preliminary studies on political culture, outweigh its limitations (Jamison, 2005). The LB allows researchers, who could not afford to survey countries as a whole, to do preliminary analysis of values, attitudes, and behavior of individuals from these countries (Norris, 1999). Since some questions have been asked more than once since 1995, the LB also allows for longitudinal comparative analysis, which increases the validity and reliability of the questions asked (Backstrom & Hursh-Cesar, 1981). Finally, many of the questions asked in the LB are standardized questions that have been used in other major surveys, such as the Eurobarometer, and the well-known World Values Survey. Researchers who use major databases like the LB can follow up their studies with focus groups to increase the validity of the results.

The question used in the LB to gauge interpersonal trust is a straightforward question that has been used not only by the LB but also by many other major survey enterprises. The World Values Survey (WVS), the Eurobarometer (EB), and the General Social Survey (GSS) have asked the same question for decades. The LB question that measures interpersonal trust is:

> "Generally speaking, would you say that you can trust most people, or that you can never be too careful when dealing with others?" Answers are coded 0 for trust and 1 for not trust.

Since 1996, an average of only 20 percent of Latin Americans answered they trust their fellow citizens (Figure 2). Figure 2 tabulates the answer to this question from 1996 to 2005.

Figure 2. Interpersonal trust by year in Latin America.
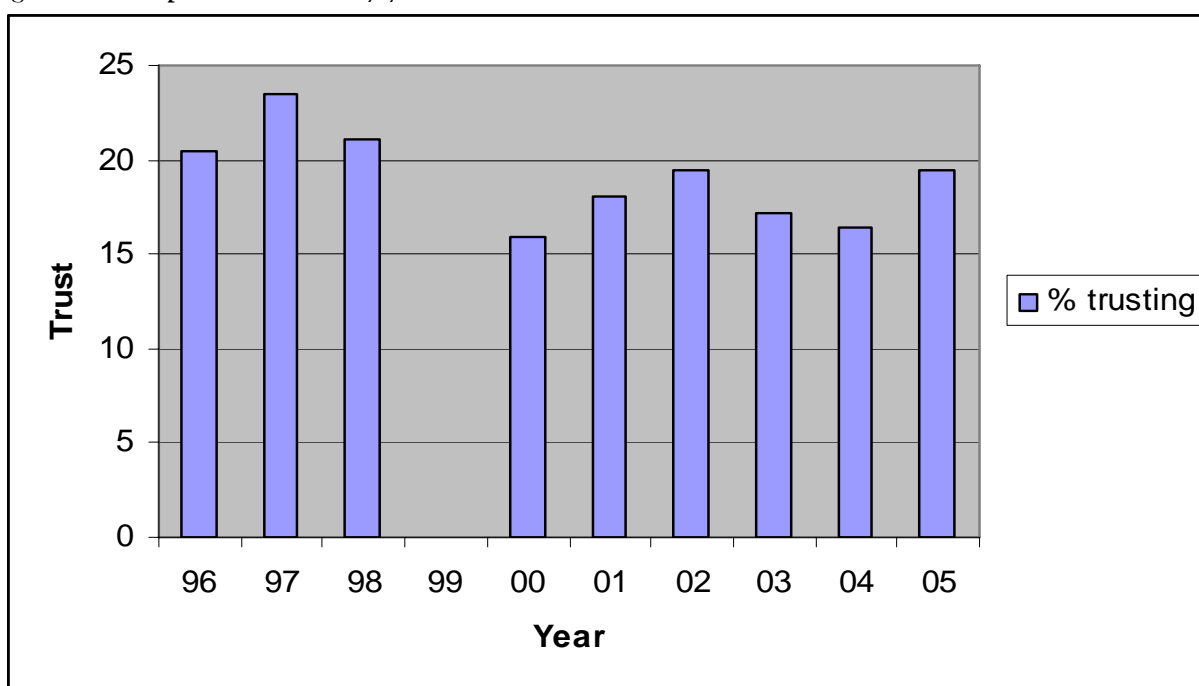
Note. N>148,499. X2=48.01 *** p<.001.

As suggested, democracies have not benefited a majority of Latin America's population. The gap between the wealthy and the poor continues to widen. So, it is reasonable to suspect the broader political and economic environment may be impacting interpersonal trust negatively (Camp, 2001; Diamond, 1993). To test this instrumental hypothesis, I included variables that measure performance of the regime (Jamison, 2005; Mishler & Rose, 1999). Aware of the need to have a parsimonious model and based on the availability of the data, I included two different questions to measure perception of economic and political performance. These questions have been asked every year since 1995 in 17 Latin American countries. A total of 148,499 individuals answered the questions. I used only full cases while pooling the data from 1995 to the present. For this study, I used the following questions:

"In general, how would you describe the country's present economic situation?" Answers are coded in a scale from 1 to 5:1=very bad-5=very good, and "In general, would you say that you are very satisfied, fairly satisfied, not very satisfied or not at all satisfied with the way democracy works in your country?" Answers are coded in the same way 1=very bad-5=very good.

When citizens were asked if democracy has performed during the last decade, two-thirds answered that democracy has not performed and barely eight percent said that economic performance was good (Latinobarómetro, 2005). Citizens believe that democracy has not improved their quality of life and that it has exacerbated inequality and poverty (Camp, 2001; Cordova, 2008).

I also controlled for the suggested socio-economic indicators at the individual level of analysis: education, income, age, and gender (Power & Jamison, 2005). Since there is no reason to suspect that citizens in Latin Americans behave differently from individuals from other countries of the world, I hypothesized that higher levels of education and income would increase trust. Also, older individuals should trust more than younger individuals because younger people in general tend to question society more, trusting less. Following Power and Clark's (2001) and Booth and Seligson's (1993a, 1993b) suggestions, I controlled for the country effect and year of the survey. Because my dependent variable was a dichotomous categorical variable, I used chi-squares and then developed a logistic regression model to test the impact of the independent variables on my dependent variable: interpersonal trust.

Results

As expected, individuals who believed the regime was performing in political and economic terms trusted more than individuals who believed the regime was not performing (Figure 3 and Figure 4). Answers were grouped in two categories of economic and political performance. The first one was "very good," which included individuals who answered they believed the economic and political performance was either good or very good. The second category was "very bad," which included individuals who answered they believed the economic and political situation in their countries was either bad or very bad.

Figure 3. Trust by economic performance in Latin America.

Trust by Economic Performance
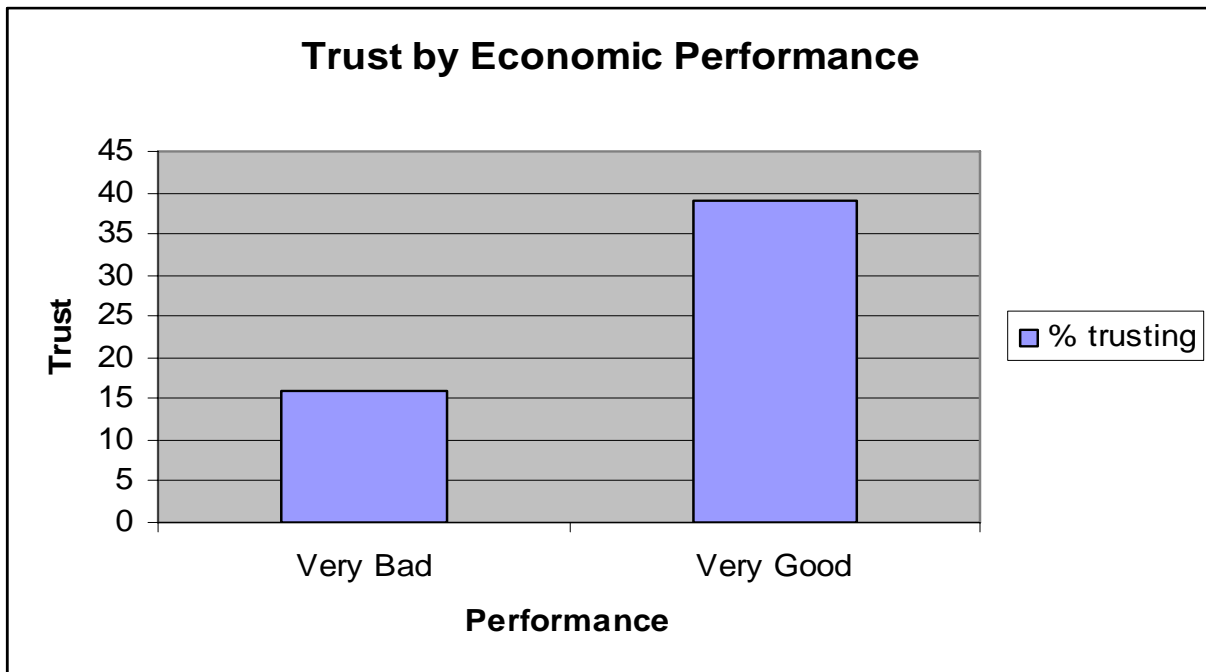
Note. N=148,499. X2=1.120E3***. p<001.

Figure 4. Trust by political performance in Latin America.

Trust by Democratic Performance
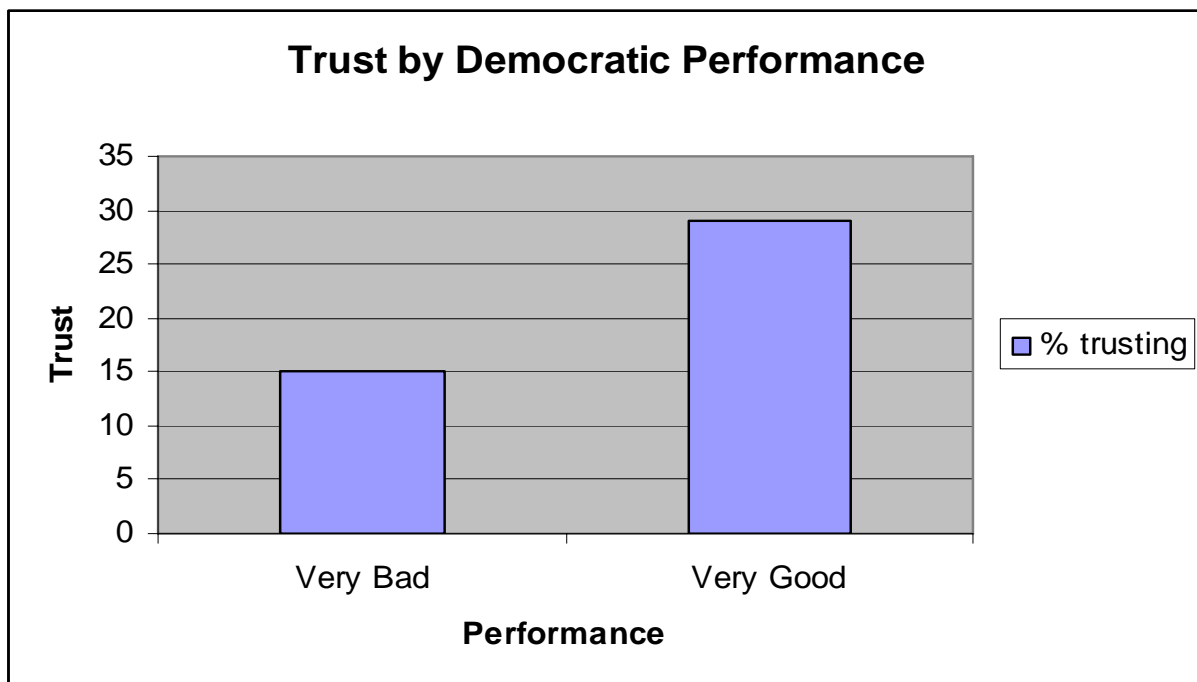
Note. N=148,499. X2=1.120E3***. p<001.

Consistent with the literature on trust in the more advanced countries of the world (Inglehart, 1988, 1997, 1999; Norris, 1999), individuals with higher income and higher levels of education trusted more than individuals with lower income and lower levels of education (Figure 5). Older individuals trusted more than younger individuals. Men trusted more than women.

Figure 5. Trust by age, gender, income, and education in Latin America.
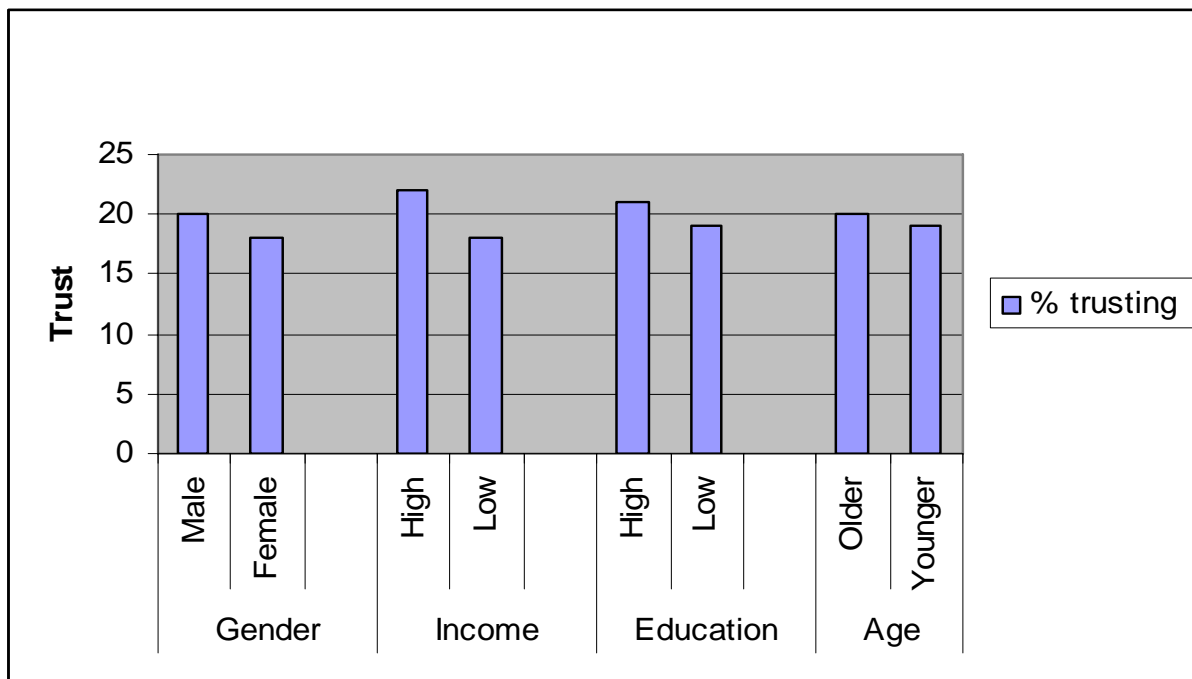
Note. N=148,499. The chi-square for all variables were significant at p<001. For age, young includes 45 and under. For education, high includes high school and more. For income, it is based on a self-identification scale that goes from low to high.

Aggregating data through cross tabs was an initial step in understanding what variables were related to the dependent variable. However, correlation does not imply causation (Backstrom & Hursh-Cesar, 1981). So, I tested the variables in a multivariable model to provide additional evidence as to how these independent variables were significantly impacting interpersonal trust.

The logistic regression supported our hypotheses that interpersonal trust was significantly dependent on economic and political performance after controlling for education, gender, income, age, year of the survey, and country (Table 2). The model was significant, X^2 (30, N=145,957) = 6039.90, p<.001, Nagelkerke R Square = .065.

Table 2
Logistic Regression Predicting Trust in Latin America

| Independent variables	*B*	Odds ratio
1. Structural		
Gender	-.109*	0.873
Education	.029**	1.021
Age	.005***	1.004
Income	.053**	1.037
2. Performance		
Economic	.150**	1.143
Democratic	.260**	1.276

Note. N=148,499.

Interpreting logistic regression is more challenging than interpreting multiple regressions because the model is based on ratios. We observed that people who believed the economy was good trusted more than people who believed the economy was bad, after controlling for all the above variables. The question that asked about economic performance had a scale from 1-5, where (1) meant that the economy was very bad, (2) bad, (3) average, (4) good, and (5) very good. For a one unit increase in the belief that the economy was performing better, people were 1.16 times more likely to trust than not trust, 95% CI (1.14, 1.18).

We also observed that people who believed the democratic regime or political performance of the regime was good trusted more than people who believed the political performance of the regime was bad. The questions about political performance were answered on a scale from 1-5: (1) the political performance was very bad, (2) bad, (3) average, (4) good, and (5) very good. For every unit increase in the belief that the democratic regime was performing better, people were 1.30 times more likely to trust than not trust, 95% CI (1.28, 1.32).

In this model, Brazil was used as the reference category since it was the country in Latin America that consistently had the lowest levels of trust. Mexico and Uruguay had the highest levels of trust, compared to Brazil (Figure 6). For example, Mexicans were 7.26 times more likely to trust than not trust, than Brazilians. The reference year used for comparison was 2005 because it was the latest year I had information on. All of the other variables behaved as predicted: As people moved up in their education, income, and age scale, the likelihood of trusting others increased.

Figure 6. Trust by countries in Latin America.
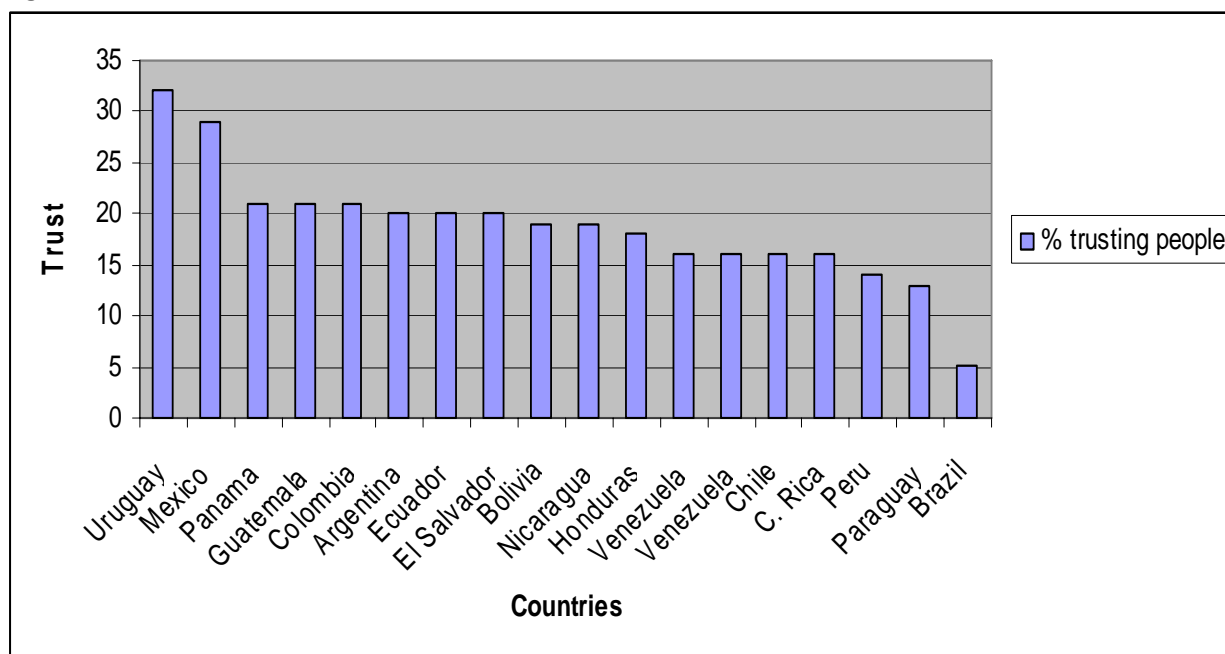
Note. N=148,499. Chi-square=3.345E3***, p<.001.

Discussion

In this study, albeit preliminary, we tested hypotheses combining institutional and societal explanations. As Martha Lagos (2001) pointed out, "a culture of mistrust pervades Latin America" at the institutional and societal levels, and interpersonal trust is a component of these very low levels of trust (p. 137; Power & Jamison, 2005). Isolating interpersonal trust allowed us to provide evidence that distrust responded to external factors and not just to a historical culture of authoritarianism. Not surprisingly, poor political and economic performances of the democratic regimes were significant contributors to trust.

Also, at the individual levels of analysis, interpersonal trust followed patterns observed in more advanced countries. Education, income, and age all positively impacted trust. Knowing this has practical implications for Latin American leaders still attempting to consolidate democracy and generate equitable economic growth. While improving income may be difficult to achieve in the short term, as Power and Clark (2001) argued, making education more accessible may be a more feasible option in the short run. Improving levels of education may have a more rapid effect on trust, particularly in the younger generations, as civic values and democratic values can be taught and learned at school.

Also, this study contributes to the literature on interpersonal trust in Latin America, which is still very limited (Cordova, 2008; Muller & Seligson, 2002; Power, 2002; Power & Clark, 2001). While a majority of the studies deal with trust as an independent variable, few studies deal with trust as a dependent variable, particularly in Latin America. This study used data from one of the largest public opinions polls in the region to test hypotheses to explain trust at the individual level. Using quantitative methods to study political culture in Latin America is relatively new (Jamison, 2005; Turner, 1995). Reliable data from public opinion polls were almost

non-existent during the decades of military dictatorship in the region. So, current data are still incomplete and do not go back in time. While public opinion polls and surveys are common in the United States, systematic public opinion polls in Latin America are relatively new and started with the processes of democratization in the 1980s (Jamison, 2005). Some studies have shown a relationship at the aggregate level; few have done so at the individual level of analysis (Newton & Norris, 2000; Power, 2002).

Finally, this model also provides evidence that trust in individual countries cannot be completely explained with general models that look at Latin America as a whole. For example, why are Brazilian's levels of trust so low when compared to the other countries in the region? How could countries with similar histories have such disparities in their levels of trust? This finding provides justifications to keep case studies alive. Researchers must continue to look at the particular intrinsic and extrinsic factors within a historical and cultural context in each country to more completely understand the variations of trust between countries of this region. This study did not explain why Brazil had the lowest levels of trust of all Latin American countries or why Mexico had the highest. This study provided stepping stones toward more studies on political values in general and interpersonal trust in particular finding some explanations that apply to the region as a whole.

We started this essay with a question: Is Latin American still the continent of hope? Although a lot of progress has been made at the macro level since democracy was restored in the 1980s in many countries in the region, Latin America will not achieve success unless a majority of the citizens feel beneficiaries of these processes. Increasing levels of trust among fellow citizens may be a good starting point toward a democracy truly responsive to citizens' needs. If citizens perceive they are part and beneficiaries of the economic and political processes, they may grant trust to politicians and institutions to implement necessary reforms and work toward a better democracy. What new democracies may need is time, and trust may be the way to gain the time for reforms to work.

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The Challenges of Sustainability Education

Donovan A. McFarlane and Agueda G. Ogazon

Abstract

Sustainability has become a growing imperative in higher education in the United States of America (Calder & Dautremont-Smith, 2009). This paper examines sustainability education as it continues to emerge in the global competitive economy, and traditional and borderless classrooms of the 21st century via educational institutions and public awareness. The authors examine the challenges to sustainability education by looking at how education and institutions have treated and are responding to the challenges of modern global society as related to issues of global justice, environment, survival, human rights, and citizenship that constitute the bedrock ideals from which the rationale for education for sustainability (EFS) emerges. The authors see the problem of defining sustainability and sustainability education as the primary challenge to sustainability education based on the assertion in the literature that there are no agreed upon definitions and this leads to fragmented understanding and diverse practices. Furthermore, secondary challenges to sustainability education are examined to include national-cultural disposition toward sustainability, science literacy, and understanding of the philosophy of science (POS), nature of science (NOS), nature of technology (NOT), and awareness of science and sustainability (AOSS). The authors explore sustainability issues and challenges in higher education, initiatives, and programs in sustainability, and present several examples of colleges and universities as well as social and environmental professional and education organizations involved in and promoting sustainability. The authors describe the design and implementation of sustainability education through "sustainability across the curriculum" construct and the alternative of colleges and universities developing full-fledge degree and other curriculum-related programs in sustainable business and sustainable practices. Finally, the authors provide some recommendations for universities and colleges or institutions of higher education to become truly sustainable communities by using the three guiding pillars of sustainability: flourishing environment, vibrant community, and equitable economy to avoid diminishing resources and enhance sustainability.

Keywords

philosophy of science (POS), nature of science (NOS), nature of technology (NOT), awareness of science and sustainability (AOSS), education for sustainability (EFS), human value management (HVM), sustainability in education (SIE)

Introduction

Clugston and Calder (1999) contend that a concern for sustainability arose in the early seventies as growing numbers of people realized the degradation of the environment would seriously undermine our ability to ensure expanding prosperity and economic justice. However, efforts dedicated to what we exclusively call sustainability today were minimal and embraced by only few private citizens and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs). The value decade of the 1990s brought about more definitive and superior understanding of what constitutes value across several platforms and sectors of human life, society, and activities. A common understanding of value most predominantly attached to economics and marketing is expanded to include human value and organizational value considerations along the line of people and the various approaches developed in meeting our needs and wants as well as an understanding of value concept in services that have dominated the global economy for the past two and a half decades in the form of human value management (Fit-Enz, 1990), value driven management (Pohlman & Gardiner, 2000), and superior customer value (Johnson & Weinstein, 2004).

These models conceptualized across organizational leadership and managerial roles provided a platform for the reorientation of the interdependency-model approach to creative activities and decision making that brought more clarity to the increasing relationship between people and their environment and the resources that go into the productive processes we engage in for survival. Scarcity generalized in economic theory was given a more viable value-orientation linked to human actions and behaviors that facilitate our ability to impact our own productive and consumptive limitations based on the idea that we have more influence on perpetuating scarcity than we originally were able to understand. Thus, the idea of sustainability re-emerged with a broader definition than simply caring for the environment and conserving natural resources, essentially becoming an umbrella philosophy encompassing the economy, social life, culture, politics, and social order through educational awareness and the ability to effectively manage and plan for sustainable change.

The quest to increase human value through human value management (HVM), via effectiveness and efficiency through value driven management (VDM) of services and goods to customers by designing and delivering superior customer value (SCV) created the mindset needed to revisit the idea of sustainability to continue growth and prosperity in all areas of modern development. Additionally, experiences over the last two decades (1990-2010) have been rather traumatic in terms of environmentally related disasters, which brought about a resurgence of a realization of the interdependence of humankind and its environment through our choices and decisions. The sheer impact of our actions on climate, environmental pollution, deforestation, and other environmentally unfriendly practices that certainly in many cases, and potentially in others, have decreased and affected our abilities and opportunities to produce and provide more for an even greater human population. Environmental activism has created a Green Revolution that has become not only a new ideological movement for entrepreneurs but also a

new frontier on which those challenging contemporary society and its systems of governance, economy, and social order can launch their platforms in a justifiable and universally-oriented fashion based on the ideal of common good and categorical imperative bound in the need to secure our planet's future for the survival of all living things.

The perspective expressed by the authors above is supported by Yanarella, Levine, and Lancaster (2009) as they agree that "In an age of mounting finite resource scarcities, rapid climate change, and continuing global population growth, combined with the growing clamor for Western-style economic development, the sustainability movement is not going to go away" (p. 296). In fact, the sustainability movement is gaining momentum as our production possibilities frontiers or transformation margins narrow with declining resources and increasing constraints from factors other than scarcity. We must now, more than ever before, become educated and aware of our surroundings and the interrelatedness of our environment and socioeconomic activities as they affect our ability to progress and survive as a species—providing for our contemporary needs and wants while not destroying the prospects for future generations. Recognizing the collective impact of our individual and community actions and activities on our ability to sustain and improve current living standards, economic growth, and development, while conserving resources for the future and decreasing depletion rates, sustainability education is highly needed and is emerging prominent among colleges and universities as part of their curriculums, especially as tied to business and science. While there are many examples of sustainability education in terms of programs and approaches present in educational and social institutions across society, some primary and secondary challenges make sustainability education philosophy and operationalization difficult in general, and specifically, for some institutions more than others. Furthermore, despite the current and ongoing preoccupation with sustainability, "most college and university students still receive little or no exposure to sustainability within their academic coursework, and there are few rewards for faculty who integrate sustainability themes into their teaching" (Calder & Dautremont-Smith, 2009, p. 95).

Understanding Current Challenges to Sustainability Education

Some educators and layperson citizens are only recently beginning to think about sustainability as it pertains to our relationship with our environment, our resources, and our overall well-being, progress, and survival. Nevertheless, sustainability education occupies a small part of overall educational pedagogy across fields and spectrum of knowledge, thought, and learning. Most poignant to this claim is the recognition that among ordinary citizens, sustainability has little or no meaning. Thus, it becomes imperative that education for sustainability (EFS) and sustainability in education (SIE) become part of our regular public school systems, and even become part of the general education curriculums of colleges and universities. Learning about sustainability is essential in changing our current mindset that endangers our survival and that of our planet. It seems there is a race against time to perhaps preserve what has not been damaged already and to repair what can be repaired as far as environmental damages are concerned in order to ensure their sustainability. While sustainability generally is focused on environmental issues, human life and the economy are much a part of sustainability as we grapple with problems and challenges that threaten our quality of life, ability to feed and clothe a growing population, respond to natural and human-made disasters, and prevent and treat diseases and related problems.

The challenges to sustainability education are both natural and socially-imposed because of our nature as individuals and groups, our social, cultural, economic, and political-legal systems, and our differing perspectives arising out of these factors coupled with our unique individual views. On a collective or societal level, we are hampered by political economy and governmental policies and actions, and in some cases inaction, especially in democratic and command systems in which free will depends on majority vote and minority power. On an individual level, we often feel overwhelmed enough with the difficulties of our own lives, and this leaves us helpless when we think about the possibility of taking on problems at the global level (Andrzejewski & Alessio, 1999). Education and culture are two major factors that affect our inclination toward sustainability as individuals and society. Our education system has not necessarily been designed to embrace the sustainability challenge, but rather to address economic and wealth issues, and education generally has been subordinate in its function to the power and desire of those who are the major benefactors of resource overexploitation, excess consumption, and mass production that affect our environment. Culture, in many cases, praises the superiority of humankind over the natural and wild life worlds, and this has been contradictory to sustainable practices and worldviews.

Our understanding of sustainability also depends on our appreciation of science and our knowledge of science, scientific and technological literacy, understanding of the nature of science (NOS) and awareness of science (AOS), nature of technology (NOT), and economy and politics. We are living in a highly technological society, and our appreciation for and understanding of technology surpasses that of any previously recorded civilizations and generations insofar as we know. This same technological-orientation blinds us to the natural relationship and interaction we previously enjoyed with nature before we became technology's children. Additionally, while science literacy, or scientific literacy, has led to further and deeper understanding of nature and its processes, it also has contributed to a mechanistic worldview in many senses and has desensitized many to the social side of science and the true ideology of cyclical interdependence existing and defining all living and non-living things as related.

Defining Sustainability and Sustainability Education: The Primary Challenge

Sustainability practices depend firmly on understanding what sustainability entails and on what constitutes education for sustainability and sustainability education. In any field of study, it is important to understand the meaning and purpose or rationale for that field, and sustainability regarded as an emerging field of study is no different from others when it comes to this fundamental prerequisite. Those embracing sustainability as an ideology or worldview, and those teaching sustainable practices as educators, must comprehend what it entails as well as the theoretical and practical frameworks for espousing sustainability. Sustainability can mean many different things to different people; therefore, it is extremely important to understand the concept in its many perspectives and scope. Some individuals and institutions pursue sustainability as a narrow concept focused on growing green, while others see sustainability in the way it is best pursued: as an all-encompassing concept, a perspective which the authors of this paper embrace.

What We Mean by Sustainability

The primary challenge in positing and implementing a sustainability perspective or approach to value creation in organizations lies in appropriately defining sustainability, as this affects the underlying philosophy that organizations use to achieve sustainability mission and goals. Practitioners define sustainability both narrowly as the long-term protection and health of the natural environment, and broadly as the triple bottom line of environmental health, economic viability, and social well-being (Calder & Dautremont-Smith, 2009, p. 93). The major challenge in defining sustainability stems from a lack of agreement in the literature, and the fact that sustainability is a broad and far-reaching, even all-encompassing concept that fosters a variety of views and perspectives. Yanarella, Levine, and Lancaster (2009) agree with this as they relate: "The sustainability movement from the grassroots to the global level has been both enriched and hobbled by the many different versions of sustainability articulated in scholarly and popular writings, town hall forums, and international conferences" (p. 296). As a result, the first determination in making sustainability education a focus or reality in educational and social institutions is to communicate adequately an understanding of sustainability specific to organizational mission and vision, or general enough to encompass sustainability in all contexts.

Sustainability is much deeper than environmentalism or "greening," despite the tendency to examine it in these terms (Cloud, 2010). Sustainability can be defined as a process that organizes human activity so society, its members, and its economies are able to meet their needs and express their greatest potential in the present as well as the future (West Chester University of Pennsylvania, 2011a).

According to the World Commission on Environment and Development (1987), sustainability means meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. William McDonough & Partners (1992) state that the concept of sustainability has been introduced to combine concern for the well-being of the planet with continued growth and human development, and was originally defined from the human point of view. However, in order to embrace the idea of a global ecology with intrinsic value (the value models described above should come back to mind), the meaning of sustainability has to be expanded to allow all parts of nature to meet their own needs now and in the future (William McDonough & Partners, 1992). Sustainability means going green, engaging more actively in environmental and wildlife conservation, using more environmentally friendly resources, and being more socially responsible toward the environment and communities in which we operate, among other things.

There are several other important definitions of sustainability. The Association for the Advancement of Sustainability in Higher Education (2011) defines sustainability in an inclusive way, encompassing human and ecological health, social justice, secure livelihoods, and a better world for all generations. Miller (2007) defines sustainability as the ability of earth's various systems, including human cultural systems and economies, to survive and adapt to changing environmental conditions indefinitely. Sustainability also can be defined scientifically as a dynamic state in which global ecological and social systems are not systematically undermined (Second Nature, 2011c). According to the Izaak Walton League of America (2011), sustainability means "Thriving people in a livable world; people everywhere being able to live a quality life without sacrificing the natural resources that future generations will depend on" (p. 1).

Sustainability Education and Education for Sustainability

One of the major challenges to sustainability is education. This stems from the fact that education rarely challenges the prevailing paradigms and interests of national governments, wealthy elites, or dominant groups, or corresponding economic or political systems. Andrzejewski and Alessio (1999) believe there might be an inherent conflict between education for social responsibility that leads to practices such as sustainability and education for economic purposes such as jobs and marketability. This is indeed part of the problem, as we have not been educated and are not educating for sustainability, but for economic growth and wealth accumulation. Because of this longstanding approach to education without concern for sustainability and the lack of a sustainability cultural-basis or orientation, we now are challenged to address problems that could have been prevented.

According to West Chester University (2011c), our planet faces unprecedented environmental, social, and economic crises, and we all are being challenged to make dramatic changes not only in our knowledge and values but also in our culture and institutions, and Education for Sustainability is a major approach in responding to this challenge. West Chester University (2011c) defines EFS in the following way.

> Education for sustainability (EFS) is a rapidly emerging field that is guided by a vision of a sustainable society and rooted in a simple truth: we learn what we live. EFS practitioners are trained professionals who understand the challenge of sustainability and who have been prepared to teach others, to catalyze institutional and cultural change, and to model sustainable ways of living (p. 1).

EFS engenders a new ideology of caring, not only for the environment or nature but also for the people around us and our own well-being in terms of the quality of life, our modes of production and consumption, and how the decisions we make and activities we engage in affect these. According to the Cloud Institute for Sustainability Education (2010), EFS is defined as a transformative learning process that equips students, teachers, and school systems with new knowledge and ways of thinking needed to achieve economic prosperity and responsible citizenship while restoring the health of the living systems upon which our lives depend.

EFS prepares individuals to recognize the important challenge of attaining sustainability as an economic and social imperative and how to become active participants who embrace sustainable practices and teach others how to become sustainability advocates and citizens. This relates highly to the concepts of organizational and global citizenship behaviors emerging mainly from the idea of an integrated and global society where overlapping concerns for business and environment lead to efforts in adapting to change. These involve engaging in behaviors and actions that are essentially altruistic and inclusive in their impacts on our own survival and progress and those of others, through a collective effort typical of team citizenship behavior (TCB) present in many organizations today. Team citizenship behavior (TCB) can be defined as behavior within an organization or institution and team setting characterizing how individuals adapt and utilize their behaviors as well as group-oriented considerations in being a good member of a team or essentially a citizen of a "country" called a team within the organizational world. Team citizenship behavior then, describes behaviors that exhibit good citizenship within team or

among members working in a team and consists of the following behaviors among others: (a) altruism, (b) civic virtue, (c) conscientiousness, (d) courtesy, (e) teamwork, and (f) team mindedness (Pearce & Herbik, 2004, p. 293).

The five categories of global citizens identified by Falk (1994)—global reformers, elite global business people, global environmental managers, politically conscious regionalists, and trans-national activists—are active agents in promoting sustainability as a global new perspective in business and education, the authors main concerns. According to the Institute for Global Citizenship at Macalester College (2011), global citizenship provides a framework for addressing several problems and challenges in the 21st century. This stems from three important or core elements embedded in the concept.

> First, it is based on an ethical claim that all human beings are ultimately members of a single moral community and that, as such, they have certain rights, responsibilities and duties. Second, it involves a judgment that this community faces a number of challenges that are increasingly global in character (including, but not limited to, environmental degradation, human rights violations, migration, poverty, social exclusion, economic exploitation, political violence, disease, humanitarian emergencies, and various "democratic deficits"), but that manifest themselves in distinctive ways in specific national/local contexts. Finally, it entails a conviction that addressing these challenges will ultimately require both an acceptance of our global ethical responsibilities and the development of institutional structures through which these responsibilities can be exercised at the transnational, national and local levels (p. 1).

Sustainability education requires institutions, both academic and non-academic, to engage in the process of educating and informing their members and organizational citizens about the challenge of sustainability as one of the major challenges of the global 21st century (Lagos, 2011; Andrzejewski, 1996).

From an educational perspective "Sustainability implies that the critical activities of a higher education institution are ecologically sound, socially just and economically viable, and that they will continue to be so for future generations" (Association of University Leaders for a Sustainable Future, 2011, p. 1). Many institutions lack the factors and resources conducive to active engagement with nature and must solely rely on practicing sustainable intellect by imparting theoretical knowledge and conducting academic research. By factors and resources conducive to promoting sustainability, we mean natural environment, funding, expert and knowledgeable faculty and administrators, and other incentives driving sustainability education, which is still in its early stage of development (Calder & Dautremont-Smith, 2009).

Secondary Challenges to Sustainability Education

While the primary challenge to sustainability education involves understanding and defining sustainability with regard to scope and perspective, other challenges emerge within the context of recognizing that sustainability not only can constitute a worldview but also can be affected by our sociocultural values and attitudes as well as how we view science and technology. While general literacy means we are able to read, write, and think logically and rationally, this does not mean we have acquired the prerequisites for understanding the sustainability challenge

in order to develop practices that can be characterized as sustainability-driven. Other factors such as cultural disposition, science literacy, understanding of the philosophy of science (POS), nature of science (NOS), nature of technology (NOT), and awareness of science and sustainability (AOSS) matter. These are described below.

National-Cultural Disposition toward Sustainability

One of the fundamental prerequisites for making education an effective vehicle for sustainability is what the authors call *national-cultural disposition toward sustainability*. When we think of sustainability, at its roots there is recognition that culture, in terms of the values and attitudes of a people influencing their behaviors and actions in economic and social activities, in part will determine to what degree we will collectively value and embrace sustainability as fundamental to the quality of present and future generations. U.S. culture, on a whole, can be characterized as a high mass consumption, mass-production culture with excessive spending and high wastage of resources. This has been the disposition after the country's extravagant economic growth following the Second World War and the further development of technology and manufacturing. Culturally, people in the U.S. are used to bigger, but not necessarily better, products and production methods, and processes have in the past adapted themselves to producing and manufacturing the bulk or excess that unfortunately defines success and the American Dream for a majority. Thus, it is culturally difficult to adapt sustainability practices and foster sustainability education on a prominent national level, especially when levels of education or literacy are already low across some groups and communities.

It could be argued that the U.S., more than most countries, is highly engaged in bettering environment practices, researching, discovering, and applying new and cleaner energy sources, and promoting programs and policies related to sustainability as an umbrella concept. While this is true in many ways, it must not be forgotten that people in the U.S. consume far greater resources than most of the world's nations and produce far more waste including environmental pollutants and mechanical industrial wastes. Thus, the role of the nation should be significantly greater than many of its counterparts in the sustainability movement and promotion of sustainability education as a vitally important matter to the nation's ongoing progress and future well-being. When sustainability is tied to cultural patterns, it becomes a natural practice that people engage in throughout their daily and progressive lives. Thus, cultural disposition toward sustainability requires a culture that values the environment, and decisively focuses on integrating and emphasizing the interdependent relationship between humankind and nature through customs, stories, folklores, legends, and the like. A *culture of sustainability* or *sustainability culture* is one that reveres and values nature. In fact, the first and early Americans or American Indians represented one of the world's greatest examples of sustainability cultures as they not only worshipped nature but also saw themselves as an intimate and small part of what constituted life as nature interacting in and of itself to create the life processes and numerous cycles that define our planet. The arrival of the Europeans was the first great factor in the disruption of this sustainability culture, which was changed forever because they misunderstood the natives' relationship with and reverence of nature as well as its occurrences as paganism and religious animism. They failed to see this as wisdom displayed in understanding the interrelationship and interdependence of living and non-living systems, which unfortunately evaded their value system concept of a civilized culture.

Andrzejewski and Alessio (1999) feel that teachers are not prepared to help their students develop the global consciousness needed to support human rights and ecological sustainability in our modern global society. This is a problem not only in U.S. society but also across the globe. Specific to the authors' foregone claim of people in the U.S. not being culturally disposed toward sustainability practices and education, support is provided by Andrzejewski and Alessio (1999) who argue the following.

> Our educational experiences did not provide us with the information and tools to understand what is happening in the world, how it affects our lives, the lives of others and the planet itself. We were not taught how we, as ordinary (non-rich) people, might live our lives and actively participate in creating a safer, more humane, sustainable world (p. 1).

The U.S. experience indeed has been one built heavily on industrial and political-economic dominance, rather than close identification and relationship with and to nature and its maintenance. This has been true especially of the post-World War II generations who were introduced to rapidly evolving industrial and manufacturing technology that had little regard and consideration for environmentalism and efficient resource usage. Only recently, as much as a decade ago, have sustainability and environmentalism regained importance in U.S. society as scarcity of some resources became more pressing and apparent.

As a nation, the United States of America is challenged by an underperforming education system that has been undergoing various types of reforms since the 1980s and with little success. What is needed is a complete cultural revolution that will redesign the philosophy and sociology of education. This will make sustainability as well as other important collective endeavors part of our knowledge systems including the skills we develop to address societal problems and challenges. UNESCO (2011), for example, proposes a restructuring of educational systems to accomplish this cultural change: "Rethinking and revising education from nursery school through university to include a clear focus on the development of knowledge, skills, perspectives and values related to sustainability is important to current and future societies" (p. 1). While the education systems of nations seem to hold the key to sustainability education and the success of sustainability initiatives, Benit, Bernstein, Cipolla, and Norcio (2010) argue that "countries have distinctive legal, cultural, and ethical codes that impact what a saleable product can contribute" (p. 31), and sustainability seen from this transactional perspective will be only as successful and well-embraced as the contributions it potentially can make to metrics such as standard of living, economic growth, wealth, gross domestic product, gross national product, and overall national well-being.

Science Literacy: The Philosophy of Science (POS) and Nature of Science (NOS)

Science literacy or scientific literacy has preoccupied a great part of our modern knowledge and education. Through science, we have developed our modern societies into robust technological systems that are able to exert greater influence over nature and life. The philosophy of science and nature of science have become lenses through which we can more clearly see and understand our world and the systems, processes, and people around us. A firm understanding of the philosophy of science, the contexts in which the theories and concepts of

science are analyzed and clarified (Losee, 2001), becomes essential in understanding sustainability in terms of its rationale, its underlying theoretical framework, and its disposition and role in modern society. However, only relatively few among even the most educated in today's society understand the philosophy of science. Thus, the philosophy of science, as it affects debates and acceptance of issues and problems in science, affects the degree to which sustainability is embraced and practiced by different stakeholders.

While the philosophy of science deals with the contexts in which the concepts and theories of science are analyzed and clarified, an appreciable understanding of the nature of science affects perspectives and acceptance of sustainability and the green revolution. The nature of science refers to the way in which science and scientific knowledge lend themselves to our understanding and recognition of basic concepts, constructs, and processes in nature. The nature of science is such that it lends itself to only so much and so many of our opinions, views, and perspectives, ideologies, and disposition to understand the challenges we face in terms of their origins and cause, and most definitively, how we approach resolving them. The nature of science is difficult to comprehend, especially for those lacking knowledge about the scientific method and for those who have come to understand science only as a mechanistic discipline. This lack of understanding can lead to an under-appreciation of the sustainability challenges we face, the kind of support we receive in embracing sustainability as essential to our quality of life, standard of living, and progress and survival for us and future generations.

The level of science literacy in a society affects understanding and appreciation of the philosophy of science and nature of science (Hodson, 2011). This, in turn, helps to determine how well individuals are prepared to practice and support sustainability. Sustainability requires first and foremost being able to learn about science, even if an individual does not learn science. When individuals learn about science and its usefulness, they are better able to see where issues fit into their schema of experience and how they can access the appropriate channels of resources to address these (Hodson, 2011, 2003).

Nature of Technology (NOT)

The nature of technology is such that it requires us to understand the nature of science as together they function to affect our science and environmental literacy levels and responses. According to Hodson (2011), in modern society, the understanding of the nature of technology is as deficient as the understanding of the nature of science. Hodson (2011) believes that students, for example, often see technology solely in terms of computers, televisions and mobile phones, and emphasize the products of technology to the virtual exclusion of technology as a creative and socially embedded practice, and see technology primarily as applied science. As a result, many are unaware of the relationship between science and technology as they create challenges that we face in meeting our needs and wants; sustainability being one of these challenges.

The nature of technology depends highly on cultural attachments to mechanistic and automated ways of doing things and this can affect the degree to which technological embrace act as a barrier to fully appreciating the social interrelationships of natural things; that is, nature and the various cyclical and socially interdependent relationships between people, processes, systems and the ideological perspectives that drive them. Essentially, mechanism and automation affect inclination and orientation toward sustainability. The machine children of contemporary and future societies may lack the aesthetics to appreciate fully the intimate relationships required

to foster a reasonable, sensible, and meaningful understanding of sustainability. Given this potential obstacle to sustainability practices and endorsement, it becomes very essential for colleges and universities to design curriculums and strategies to enhance or change students' views of technology, and Hodson (2011) agrees that students' views of technology can be changed quite substantially by curriculum interventions that are not focused on the nature of technology alone.

Awareness of Science and Sustainability (AOSS)

Students and citizens do not necessarily need to understand the nature of science, philosophy of science, science literacy, and nature of technology to appreciate the sustainability concept and challenge even though such knowledge leads to broader understanding and ability to engage sustainable practices. According to UNESCO (2011), sustainable development requires widespread community education and a responsible media committed to encouraging an informed and active citizenry. Those who are not involved formally in education are able to learn about our global, international, regional, and national environmental, economic, and social challenges through various media including radio and television. Additionally, discussion by fellow citizens and daily events and lifestyles are factors from which individuals can become aware about sustainability.

In today's emerging Green Economy, we are using and are being introduced to new and emerging products based on sustainability concepts, constructs, and design practices. For example, biodiesel fuel, and electric and hybrid cars are some of our current products that are changing our individual attitudes and bringing us directly and indirectly into the sustainability realm. Without specific knowledge and understanding of science or its methods, many of us are already aware of the relationship between humankind and the environment. Therefore, our common sense experiences can act as stimuli for learning about sustainability. Oppositely, there are many who lack the fundamental awareness of science and sustainability required to even begin understanding what "going green" is about and why we must "go green" and care for nature and the environment that are neither alive in the sense that we are, or will perish as we do because of our mortality. To many who are unaware of science and sustainability as active concepts in our daily and ongoing lives, sustainability is neither a concern nor a matter to become preoccupied with, especially given our daily personal struggles and problems.

Role of Business Schools and Colleges in Sustainability Education

Sustainability seems more naturally related to natural science disciplines given their understanding of nature and its processes and the fact that they predominantly study and affect life processes and nature through their theories, experiments and inventions. However, sustainability falls equally within the domain of business and economics and the responsibility of business schools and colleges as the major creators of the productive and consumptive leadership, management and operational ideas and processes that act as stressors to survival, progress, and the ability to maintain economic growth and development while preserving and conserving natural and human resources for posterity. Business schools and colleges have a major responsibility in creating leaders for 21st century global business organizations (Mujtaba, Cavico, & McFarlane, 2010) because business schools and colleges are a major force both as globalizing

influences and trend setters in value and industry practices (McFarlane, Mujtaba, & Cavico, 2009). As such, business schools shape our economy, the practices, and the processes we pursue for survival. These efforts at survival ultimately affect our environment, quality of life, and resources usages that constitute sustainability challenges, by virtue of the various decisions made by entrepreneurs and consumers.

Business schools and colleges currently are not doing enough, while some simply are not doing anything to promote sustainability education as part of their curricula. Amazingly, some of the most well-known and largest business schools and colleges in the United States are yet to consider integrating sustainability concepts in teaching business. Business, management, financial and economic education underpins the many transactions or exchanges we engage in to satisfy needs and wants, and it is these very exchanges that affect resource bottom line and availability, usage and distribution. Thus, teaching the future entrepreneur and corporate leader how to effectively and efficiency manage and control business processes and activities requires teaching business sustainability. Calder and Dautremont-Smith (2009) contend that apart from the field of law, the most promising trends are seen in business and business schools because an increasing number of business programs are offering courses related to ethics, corporate social responsibility, sustainability, or business and society.

Examples of Sustainability Education in Action

We are only now becoming aware that "…education needs to focus on sharing knowledge, skills, values and perspectives throughout a lifetime of learning in such a way that it encourages sustainable livelihoods and supports citizens to live sustainable lives" (UNESCO, 2011, p. 1). Sustainability has become an important concern for several major stakeholders across public and private sector organizations. Many institutions including private business organizations, colleges and universities, and social and professional membership organizations are becoming active in promoting and teaching sustainability as a wise and sensible approach to managing and using resources effectively and efficiently. As sustainability education and awareness increase, even more people and organizations will find it mandatory to consider this issue and to embrace its new movement.

While the trend toward sustainability seem to be on the rise, some writers are concerned that the hype does not represent fairly the number of people who truly are aware of and are willing to embrace the sustainability perspective as necessary to begin attitudinal changes leading to actions and behaviors that make the needed differences in our quality of life, progress, and the health of our planet. Andrzejewski and Alessio (1999), for example, argue that global issues can seem immensely depressing and insurmountable, thereby leading people to believe we can have little or no influence on them. This attitude prevailing among many people leads to differing perspectives on contemporary global sustainability challenges such as industrial pollution, deforestation, and other critical issues affecting a sustainable balance of life on our planet.

Examples of College and Universities: Higher Education

Many colleges and universities are becoming major players in the sustainability movement and promotion of sustainability education. The Association for the Advancement of Sustainability in Higher Education (2011c) believes higher education plays a vital role in

ensuring people have an understanding of the interdependencies between environmental, social, and economic forces, and the skills and abilities to meet sustainability challenges. The rationale for sustainability in higher education is best expressed by the Association of University Leaders for a Sustainable Future (2011a):

> Higher education is beginning to recognize the need to reflect the reality that humanity is affecting the environment in ways which are historically unprecedented and which are potentially devastating for both natural ecosystems and ourselves. Since colleges and universities are an integral part of the global economy and since they prepare most of the professionals who develop, manage and teach in society's public, private and non-governmental institutions, they are uniquely positioned to influence the direction we choose to take as a society. As major contributors to the values, health and well being of society, higher education has a fundamental responsibility to teach, train and do research for sustainability. We believe that the success of higher education in the twenty-first century will be judged by our ability to put forward a bold agenda that makes sustainability and the environment a cornerstone of academic practice (p. 1).

The quest for sustainability has become a major force driving practices and philosophies in many higher educational institutions. Calder and Dautremont-Smith (2009) believe colleges and universities across the United States increasingly are practicing sustainability in campus operations by using energy conservation, renewable energy, recycling, and other projects to promote and address sustainability. This is demonstrated in the activities and programs of several institutions listed below. While there is a great increase in the number of colleges and universities embracing sustainability and sustainability education, several have emerged as very strong trendsetters in this new pedagogy and philosophy.

Northland College: Northland College is known and recognized nationally for its exceptional dedication to sustainability, especially in the areas of environmentalism, energy, and conservation and has been cited in science texts and literature for its role in promoting sustainability in education. Miller (2007) cites Northland College as an example of educational-academic institutions engaging sustainability as a way of life. In fact, the college styles itself as "The Environmental Liberal Arts College," and its strategic location provides the most conducive physical and natural environment for sustainability programs and engagements. Northland College has a broad perspective on sustainability. According to Northland College (2011), sustainability is all about people, and the College adheres to the belief that environmental change requires more than technical knowledge of renewable energy, ecosystems, and sustainable business practices; it demands an exploration of human nature, an exploration of ourselves. Thus, Northland makes a focus on environmental leadership throughout the student experience and education an essential part of its curriculum.

Northland College easily can be referred to as a sustainability institution because its dedication and initiatives on sustainability are exceptional and encompass all aspects of the College's endeavors and mission. Some examples of sustainability initiatives at Northland include green and energy buildings such as the College's Dexter Library, The McLean Environmental Living and Learning Center, and the Strawbale Energy Demonstration Lab. Other activities in which Northland engages the sustainability vision and ideal include food systems and

composting, conservation and recycling, sustainable landscaping, and purchasing and transportation (Northland College, 2011). Northland makes sustainability education an encompassing part of the college's curriculum and offers courses such as Sustainable Business, Introduction to Environmental Studies, Sustainable Agriculture, a Physics course in Renewable Energy, and Natural Resources (Northland College, 2011). Northland is a member and partner of several sustainability and environmental organizations and initiatives, and its Environmental Council engages both students and community in embracing sustainability as a way of life.

University of Wisconsin Oshkosh: The University of Wisconsin Oshkosh (UWO) is one of several state universities embracing sustainability and making it a priority education matter, and it has been engaged in sustainability initiatives for a decade since 2002. UWO's innovations in sustainability and renewable energy, such as reducing consumption and waste, instituting green building, and purchasing 100 percent recycled products have been integrated throughout the University's campus and the community as part of its dedication to sustainability (University of Wisconsin Oshkosh, 2011). The University is considered a national leader in sustainability because of environmental stewardship, teaching, outreach, research and assessment activities and programs in the field.

At the University of Wisconsin Oshkosh, green building has become part of its sustainability initiative with several projects constructed in accordance with Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED) standards. LEED is a certification system developed along with other standards by the U.S. Green Building Council. Green buildings at UWO include the Student Recreation and Wellness Center, South Campus Parking Ramp, Student Success Center, and Sage Hall (University of Wisconsin Oshkosh, 2011). One of the pioneering works in sustainability at UWO is the implementing of a dry fermentation anaerobic biodigester system, as part of UWO's quest to create a better environment for the campus and local communities. The plant functions to lengthen the lifespan of landfills, increase capacity at compost sites, and decrease energy consumption and cost of moving waste (University of Wisconsin Oshkosh, 2011). The university has received several awards and recognition for its sustainability efforts and programs.

Like Northland College, the University of Wisconsin Oshkosh has an environment in which it can readily engage sustainability practices. UWO's 171-acre campus is located along Wisconsin's Fox River and a few blocks away from Lake Winnebago, the largest body of water in the state. These provide opportunities for projects related to water consumption, fresh water conservation, and the reduction of solid and other wastes that contaminate water supply and affect wildlife and fisheries. UWO has introduced measures that reduce the amount of energy consumption, reducing solid waste through recycling, researching, and implementing alternative fuels, and purchasing green materials in all dining facilities (University of Wisconsin Oshkosh, 2011). The university also rigorously pursues efforts dedicated to conserving use of electricity through solar initiatives.

West Chester University of Pennsylvania: West Chester University of Pennsylvania (WCU) is an example of a state university institution seriously embracing and promoting sustainability as a vital part of university function. According to West Chester University of Pennsylvania (2011b) "West Chester University recognizes that one of the most significant challenges facing humanity is achieving a sustainable society" (p. 1). The university believes that accomplishing a

sustainable society requires depends on our ability to organize human activity so that society, its members and its economies are able to meet their needs and express their greatest potential in the present as well as the future. As such, WCU believes it, along with other higher educational institutions in the United States and across the globe, must play a vital role in reducing the ecological impact of human social and economic activities, and it must promote research and service that foster regional and global sustainability.

West Chester University's major goal is to achieve national and global recognition as a leader in the implementation of green technologies, sustainable energy, and the reduction of our carbon footprint (West Chester University, 2011b). WCU seeks to be identified as a leading university in which the environmental theme permeates all of the university's operations in relation to curriculum as well as everyday actions. Some examples of programs and activities at WCU to meet its sustainability commitments and ambitions include the application of renewable energy, incorporating significant energy-saving features in both new and renovated facilities, transitioning much of the campus from heating and cooling with coal and oil to using geothermal energy, and ensuring graduates, regardless of majors, have an understanding of sustainability. This is an excellent approach, and many colleges and universities should emulate this as part of the broad-spectrum need for sustainability education in our global society.

West Chester University administers and leads its sustainability efforts through its advisory arm, The Sustainability Advisory Council, formerly the Environmental Council, which promotes and provides oversight for sustainability issues at WCU (West Chester University, 2011b). The Sustainability Advisory Council at WCU has a five-fold function: (1) providing campus-based research and teaching opportunities; (2) promoting sustainability in the academic curriculum; (c) advocating for environmentally friendly facilities and procurement initiatives; (d) enhancing campus aesthetics in an ecologically sound manner; and (e) sharing data and engaging the community (p. 1). Sustainability has been integrated into a number of courses offered at WCU, and certificate programs are offered across several departments and disciplines. For example, biology, chemistry, environmental health, geography and planning, ecology, geology, astronomy and physics, and political science as well as education are some departments at WCU that embrace and teach the concept of sustainability. Among these, the most prominent is the Education for Sustainability program.

Bainbridge Graduate Institute (BGI): The Bainbridge Graduate Institute is located in Seattle, Washington, and represents one of few emerging business schools and colleges focused on sustainability education and practices. According to Bainbridge Graduate Institute (2011), major companies and entrepreneurial ventures are more than ever before securing competitive advantage and success by embracing sustainability through environmental and social responsibility as a core business strategy. Bainbridge Graduate Institute offers Master of Business Administration (MBA) and Certificate programs that focus on sustainability. According to Bainbridge Graduate Institute (2011), "The Green Economy now represents more than $230 billion annually in sales of socially and environmentally responsible products and $2.2 trillion in investments" (p. 1). This provides great incentives for not only business organizations but also educational institutions, especially business schools and colleges to embrace this new economy concept and its resulting opportunities by designing, developing, and implementing programs that focus on sustainability practices or that capitalize on the "green movement."

McFarlane, Mujtaba, and Cavico (2009) have emphasized the importance of 21st century business schools and colleges taking new outlook toward the future, and leading effectively by adapting to changes, and one of the most prolific changes that will affect their curricula and instructional practices is the "Green Economy" represented in the sustainability movement. BGI's industry-guiding curriculum integrates sustainability into all the courses offered and prepares students to create positive change through innovation and entrepreneurship (Bainbridge Graduate Institute, 2011). This approach can be called "Sustainability across the Curriculum," which the authors further discuss below. BGI's MBA program strives to provide students with the attributes, knowledge, and competencies required of leaders transforming present economic system toward sustainability, and BGI also offers a Certificate in Sustainable Business.

Examples of Educational and Social Organizations for Sustainability

There are many organizations involved in promoting sustainability across the natural physical environment and human communities, and social and economic activities. The majority of these organizations are traditional environmental conservationist and activist organizations, while the newest types are those dedicated to sustainability education and the advocacy of new energy sources, solutions, and systems. According to Cloud (2010), Education for Sustainability was born officially in 1992 in Chapter 36 of Agenda 21, the international agreement to move toward sustainability signed by every country in the world at a United Nations (UN) Summit in Rio de Janeiro. Since then, it has emerged as a cause championed by numerous educational and social organizations. To these organizations, Educating for Sustainability is not just a theoretical construct; it is a search for practical-mandatory solutions to maintain as well as improve the quality of life and standard of living with a balanced respect for nature, all living systems, natural cycles, and the future.

Association for the Advancement of Sustainability in Higher Education (AASHE): The Association for the Advancement of Sustainability in Higher Education's mission is to empower higher education to lead the sustainability transformation. The AASHE is a member-driven, independent 501(c)(3) organization that provides support and strategic resources to help create more opportunities for all by advancing sustainability in higher education. The AASHE strives to create a diverse community engaged in sharing ideas and promising practices and provides administrators, faculty, staff, and students, as well as the business organizations that serve them, with thought leadership and essential knowledge resources, opportunities for professional development, and a unique framework for demonstrating the value and competitive edge created by sustainability initiatives (Association for the Advancement of Sustainability in Higher Education, 2011a).

The goals of the AASHE are to (1) deliver services that increase its value to a growing and diverse membership and will increase its impact on sustainability in higher education; (2) convene experts and collect, evaluate, and disseminate information and tools to increase the understanding of sustainability and its relevance to higher education stakeholders; (3) support and enable higher education to reduce greenhouse gas emissions and to adapt to the impacts of global climate disruption; (4) lead the transformation of educational practices (including the curriculum) to ensure that all students acquire the knowledge, skills, and dispositions to meet sustainability challenges; and (5) lead the assessment and reporting of metrics of sustainably in

higher education for the purpose of driving improvements in sustainable practices and education through its Sustainability Tracking, Assessment, and Rating System (STARS) (Association for the Advancement of Sustainability in Higher Education, 2011c).

The AASHE has six ways of implementing its activities to accomplish its goal in higher education. These include (1) making sustainable practices the norm within higher education; (2) facilitating institutional efforts to integrate sustainability into teaching, research, operations, and public engagement; (3) disseminating knowledge and best practices and promote resource sharing; (4) supporting all sectors of campus in achieving sustainability goals; (5) increasing collaboration among individuals, institutions, and external partners to speed the adoption of sustainability practices; and (6) influencing education policy so that sustainability is a focus at local, state and national levels. These are exemplary ideals that institutions can personally use to gauge their sustainability initiatives and programs (Association for the Advancement of Sustainability in Higher Education, 2011c). The AASHE's work is recognized by the United States Government, and on November 13, 2009, the AASHE was awarded the U. S. Green Building Council (USGBC) Leadership in Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) Sector Award (Association for the Advancement of Sustainability in Higher Education, 2011a).

The Sustainability Tracking, Assessment & Rating System (STARS): The Sustainability Tracking, Assessment & Rating System is a transparent, self-reporting framework for colleges and universities to gauge relative progress toward sustainability. STARS was developed by the AASHE with participation from the higher education community, and it has several goals or functions: (1) provide a framework for understanding sustainability in all sectors of higher education, (2) enable meaningful comparisons over time and across institutions using a common set of measurements developed with broad participation from the campus sustainability community, (3) create incentives for continual improvement toward sustainability, (4) facilitate information sharing about higher education sustainability practices and performance, and (5) build a stronger, more diverse campus sustainability community (Association for the Advancement of Sustainability in Higher Education, 2011b).

According to the Association for the Advancement of Sustainability in Higher Education (2011b), the STARS framework is intended to engage and recognize the full spectrum of colleges and universities in the United States and Canada—from community colleges to research universities, and from institutions just starting their sustainability programs to long-time campus sustainability leaders. STARS encompasses long-term sustainability goals for already high-achieving institutions as well as entry points of recognition for institutions that are taking first steps toward sustainability.

Association of University Leaders for a Sustainable Future (ULSF): The Association of University Leaders for a Sustainable Future states its mission as supporting sustainability as a critical focus of teaching, research, operations, and outreach at colleges and universities worldwide through publications, research, and assessment (Association of University Leaders for a Sustainable Future, 2011). Similar to the AASHE, the ULSF promotes sustainability in higher education. The ULSF consists of senior fellows, a director, and colleagues who are actively engaged in ongoing projects, research, and consulting in support of sustainability in higher education as well as primary and secondary education. The organization focuses its current works in six areas: (1) research and consulting on effective strategies for "greening" institutional

practices, policies, and teaching; (2) organizational change and social learning for sustainability; (3) implementation of the Talloires Declaration and other institutional commitments to green the campus and cut greenhouse gas emissions; (4) campus sustainability assessment; (5) implementation of humane and sustainable food systems; and (6) research and consulting on implementing the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable, and Development and creating and evaluating UN Regional Centers of Excellence (Association of University Leaders for a Sustainable Future, 2011).

The U.S. Partnership for Education for Sustainable Development: The U.S. Partnership for Education for Sustainable Development (called the U.S. Partnership for short) consists of individuals, organizations, and institutions in the United States dedicated to education for sustainable development (ESD). The partnership acts as a convener, catalyst, and communicator working across all sectors of U.S. society to promote sustainable development (U.S. Partnership for Education for Sustainable Development, 2011). The vision of U.S. Partnership is to fully integrate sustainable development into education and learning in the United States. Its mission is to leverage the UN Decade to foster education for sustainable development in the United States.

The UN Decade refers to the Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2005-2014) and works to contribute to enabling citizens to face the challenges of the present and future and leaders to make relevant decisions for a viable world (UNESCO, 2005). The UN Decade of Sustainable Development is designed to educate so as to create actors or individuals who will (1) have acquired various skills (critical and creative thinking, communication, conflict management and problem solving strategies, project assessment) to take an active part in and contribute to the life of society, (2) be respectful of the Earth and life in all its diversity, and (3) be committed to promoting democracy in a society without exclusion and where peace prevails (UNESCO, 2011, p. 1). Accomplishing this requires three major considerations: (1) taking into account education in sustainable development plans, (2) creating public awareness of the importance of sustainable development, and (3) having regular and substantial coverage of sustainable development issues in the media (UNESCO, 2011, p. 1).

Second Nature (Education for Sustainability): Second Nature is a Commonwealth of Massachusetts nonprofit public benefit corporation, and a tax-exempt charitable organization whose mission is to create a sustainable society by transforming higher education. We accelerate movement toward a sustainable future by serving and supporting senior college and university leaders in making healthy, just, and sustainable living the foundation of all learning and practice in higher education (Second Nature, 2011a). Second Nature's vision is one of envisioning and creating a world where all members of humankind are healthy, live in socially vibrant and culturally diverse communities, have personal and economic security, and fully participate in governance of society, and where the world's life support system is biologically diverse and sustainable (Second Nature, 2011b).

Second Nature engages several strategies and partnership institutions to accomplish its mission and live up to its utopian vision. The organization works to promote a learning environment that provides the awareness, knowledge, skills, and values to achieve this vision and to create a future where current and future generations achieve good health, economic security, social fairness, and stability, while restoring and sustaining the Earth's life support systems (Second Nature, 2011b, p. 1). Second Nature has been working with thousands of faculty

members and administrators at more than 500 colleges and universities for the last two decades to help make the principles of sustainability fundamental to every aspect of higher education (Second Nature, 2011b). The organization describes its work with colleges and universities or in higher education arena to accomplish its vision as follows:

> Our work toward this vision embraces interdisciplinary learning and includes the community as a whole. By reinforcing the concept that the educational experience of all students must be aligned with the principles of sustainability, we help ensure that the content of learning embraces interdisciplinary systems thinking to address environmentally sustainable action on local, regional and global scales over short-, medium- and inter-generational time periods. Through this way of learning, education comes to have the same "lateral rigor" across the disciplines as it has "vertical rigor" within the disciplines (p. 1).

Second Nature strongly believes that in order for society to move in a sustainable direction, higher education must develop a new framework in which the sector and individual institutions operate as a fully integrated communities that teach, research, and model social and ecological sustainability (Second Nature, 2011b).

Designing and Implementing Sustainability Education and Programs

Educational institutions should prepare students to become knowledgeable citizens, and this cannot occur without teaching them about the interdependence of people and environment, and how our actions and activities affect our survival and progress as related to sustainability issues. In fact, one purpose of education throughout U.S. history from Jefferson to Dewey and beyond has been the creation of knowledgeable citizens in the broadest sense of the world (Andrzejewski & Alessio, 1999). This is agreed on by Calder and Dautremont-Smith (2009), as they argue that fostering a more sustainable world is the most logical outcome of the higher education endeavor.

From the perspective of U.S. educational challenge, Andrzejewski and Alessio (1999) have speculated on the reasons for lack of sustainability and citizenship education issues:

> Issues of global justice, environment, survival, human rights and citizenship are, for the most part, not major components of the curriculum in PK-12 schools and are still given short shrift in higher education institutions. They are rarely addressed by administrators, school boards or trustees, teacher or faculty unions, state legislators, proposals for educational reform, nor even the Congress of the United States, at least in relation to education. Where global issues are addressed, they are often approached through the biased perspectives of ethnocentrism, national chauvinism, and global economic dominance (p. 1).

The authors believe there are two major approaches that colleges and universities as well as other educational institutions can take in embracing and implementing sustainability as part of their curricula. These approaches are not new in terms of instructional and pedagogical methods or strategies to new or emerging program design and implementation. They are the "Across the

Curriculum" and the "Full-Program" approaches, which are described in the recommendations below.

Higher educational institutions can have the greatest impact on sustainability and sustainability education by building sustainable culture and philosophy. They must fully embrace and practice sustainability to influence effectively the university community and broader community in making a difference. According to the Association of University Leaders for a Sustainable Future (2011):

> A truly sustainable college or university would emphasize these concepts in its curriculum and research, preparing students to contribute as working citizens to an environmentally healthy and equitable society. The institution would function as a sustainable community, embodying responsible consumption of energy, water, and food, and supporting sustainable development in its local community and region (p. 1).

Calder and Dautremont-Smith (2009) agree with this by arguing that "A university fully committed to sustainability emphasizes an interdisciplinary and holistic approach to fostering the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to build a more sustainable world for present and future generations" (p. 93). Truly sustainable colleges and universities fully understand the importance of sustainability to individual and societal well-being as well as to environmental health and prosperity and make it their social responsibility to teach sustainability as an indispensable philosophy for living, progress, and survival. The ULSF's vision above represents the need for existing university communities to transform and transition themselves into sustainable communities.

Sustainability across the Curriculum

Sustainability across the Curriculum is an effort similar to Ethics across the Curriculum, which many colleges and universities adapted during the rapidly deteriorating corporate ethics of two decades, 1990-2000 and 2000-2010, in which 'Corporate America' and the rest of the world experienced some of the greatest corporate scandals, executive misconducts, and collapses in organizational social responsibility and trust. Ethics across the Curriculum is used by many institutions to ensure students from differing and separate majors all acquire some understanding and knowledge of ethics, morality, and social responsibility, especially as related to application in their fields of study or professional pursuits.

Similarly, sustainability can be implemented and adapted into existing college and university curricula by becoming a mandated requirement across academic schools and their majors. For example, universities and colleges recognizing the importance of sustainability can mandate that all degree-seeking students take at least one or two courses on sustainability. Perhaps a foundation course called "Sustainability Practices and Principles" could be taught across academic schools and curriculum majors. The objectives of Sustainability Practices and Principles (SPP) would include the following: (1) providing students with basic understanding of the concept of sustainability; (2) understanding sustainability and its importance to human and environment; (3) describing and explaining examples of sustainable practices in operations management across various industries, and business in general; (4) citing examples of sustainability practices in personal and community settings; (5) developing an appreciation of the

challenges and rewards of sustainability and sustainability education; and (6) understanding the history and development of sustainable practices. West Chester University of Pennsylvania is an example of an institution that offers more than two dozen courses related to sustainability across several programs and departments.

Having a sustainability course across the curriculum and majors in a college and university will ensure students and graduates are exposed to the basic idea of sustainability, and this can make a big difference in the minds and hearts of students. Sustainability is a naturally interesting subject, and when taught as an active and concurrent evolving philosophy, it engages students' sense of social responsibility and broadens their understanding of their roles in nature and society. The benefits of teaching Sustainability across the Curriculum are enormous for colleges and universities. Apart from generating additional income, it will lead to the production of better graduates with broader and more significant understanding of global trends and an awareness of the interdependent nature of things as they venture out into the world to become leaders and followers in various industries. Additionally, new ideas for research and scholarship can emerge that promote the reputation and well-being of institutions and increase their relationships with stakeholders in the community. They also can discover opportunities for partnership and access grants dedicated to sustainability and environmental awareness. The most significant benefit will be transforming the learning experiences of students as they become more aware of the importance of sustainability as related to long term survival.

Full Programs: Sustainability Programs

Many colleges and universities now are offering full-fledged sustainability programs including degrees and certificates. Some examples were provided above, including Bainbridge Graduate Institute (BGI), which offers an MBA as well as graduate and undergraduate certificates in Sustainable Business. West Chester University of Pennsylvania offers both a graduate and undergraduate certificate in Education for Sustainability as part of the professional and secondary education curriculum in its College of Education. Arizona State University (ASU) has a full-fledged School of Sustainability and Global Institute of Sustainability offering both undergraduate and graduate degrees in Sustainability. Perhaps, ASU's degrees in Sustainability can be regarded as the most complete in the entire nation as it offers five degrees, two at the undergraduate level: a Bachelor of Arts (B.A.) in Sustainability, and a Bachelor of Science (B.S.) in Sustainability; and three degrees at the graduate level: a Master of Arts (M.A.) in Sustainability, a Master of Science (M.S.) in Sustainability, and a Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in Sustainability (Arizona State University, 2011). Additionally, ASU offers a Graduate Certificate in Sustainable Leadership. Only few schools go as far as offering Sustainability up to the doctoral level of studies. Thus, ASU can be considered way ahead of many colleges and schools in making sustainability a part of higher education curriculum as most universities and colleges offer only a bachelor's degree in Sustainability (a comprehensive list of these institutions can be found on the Association for the Advancement of Sustainability in Higher Education's Website).

Offering a full program in Sustainability not only adds diversity to the college or university curriculum but also meets an educational need existing in the global market as well as personal professional aspirations of students looking to work in the field. According to Berman (2009), college students now are flocking to sustainability degrees and careers. This is mainly

because sustainability through the Green Economy is producing new and emerging financial and professional opportunities in a saturated labor market. Berman (2009) also notes students interested in pursuing a job in sustainability now can choose from a variety of "green" degree programs—evidenced by the numerous institutions offering programs in sustainability as demonstrated by a comprehensive list of almost 50 institutions offering bachelor's degree seen on AASHE's Website (Association for the Advancement of Sustainability in Higher Education, 2011d). Programs in sustainability studies and related programs in sustainable design, sustainable agriculture, sustainability education, and sustainable business are emerging at several schools around the country (Calder & Dautremont-Smith, 2009). These programs are contributing rapidly to the changing perspective and knowledge of sustainability that will bring about changes in businesses and communities.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The sustainability movement is relatively new and represents a leap forward in our understanding of our relationship with each other and our environment. Sustainability can be defined narrowly or broadly (Calder & Dautremont-Smith, 2009; Yanarella, Levine, & Lancaster, 2009), and encompasses a variety of programs, activities, and perspectives. Our differing perspectives on sustainability represents a small part of the challenges to sustainability education, while sustainability education itself represents a major obstacle in achieving sustainability as we either are ineffectively using available channels or are culturally resistant to sustainability education. Whatever the case may be, we have an imperative to promote sustainability not only because "a sustainable practice enhances the health of the systems upon which it depends by creating favorable conditions for it to thrive indefinitely" (Cloud, 2010, p. 168) but also because educating for sustainability is the right thing to do; it is ethical and a good business practice.

One important approach that today's colleges and universities can take in adapting sustainability philosophy into their culture and philosophy of education is to subscribe to and implement the Talloires Declaration, which was developed in 1990 at the international conference on sustainability in Talloires, France. The Talloires Declaration is the first official statement made by university administrators of a commitment to environmental sustainability in higher education (Association of University Leaders for a Sustainable Future, 2011b). According to the Association of University Leaders for a Sustainable Future (2011b):

> The Talloires Declaration (TD) is a ten-point action plan for incorporating sustainability and environmental literacy in teaching, research, operations and outreach at colleges and universities. It has been signed by over 350 university presidents and chancellors in over 40 countries (p. 1).

The process of becoming a Talloires Declaration member is simple and requires colleges and universities to begin by proposing to an existing "Green Campus Committee" or "Sustainability Task Force" that officially pursues this goal, developing articles and related publications, and having the president of the college or university sign the Declaration. Committees formulated for developing sustainability goals for subscribing to the Talloires Declaration must consist of at least three of the following institutional member groups: students, faculty, administration, and staff. Examples of institutions that have implemented successfully the

Talloires Declaration's action plan for sustainability include Bowling Green State University, Ball State University, and the Australian National University. Table 1 shows the ten steps and the actions, activities, and programs that institutions pledging to and practicing sustainability under the Talloires Declaration must implement and adapt.

Table 1
The Talloires Declaration Action Plan: Activities and Programs

Action steps	Activities and programs
1. Increase awareness of environmentally sustainable development	Raise public, government, industry, foundation, and university awareness; openly address urgent need to move toward an environmentally sustainable future.
2. Create an institutional culture of sustainability	Encourage all universities to engage in education, research, policy formation, and information exchange on population, environment, and development to move toward global sustainability.
3. Educate for environmentally responsible citizenship	Establish programs to produce expertise in environmental management, sustainable economic development, population, and related fields.
4. Foster environmental literacy for all	Create programs to develop the capability of university faculty to teach environmental literacy to all undergraduate, graduate, and professional students.
5. Practice institutional ecology	Set an example of environmental responsibility by establishing institutional ecology policies and practices of resource conservation, recycling, waste reduction, and environmentally sound operations.
6. Involve all stakeholders	Encourage involvement of government, foundations, and industry in supporting interdisciplinary research, education, policy formation, and information exchange in environmentally sustainable development; Expand work with community and nongovernmental organizations to assist in finding solutions to environmental problems.
7. Collaborate for interdisciplinary approaches	Develop interdisciplinary approaches to curricula, research initiatives, operations, and outreach activities that support an environmentally sustainable future.
8. Enhance capacity of primary and secondary schools	Establish partnerships with primary and secondary schools to help develop the capacity for interdisciplinary teaching about population, environment, and sustainable development.
9. Broaden service and outreach nationally and internationally	Work with national and international organizations to promote a worldwide university effort toward a sustainable future.
10. Maintain the movement	Establish a Secretariat and a steering committee to continue this momentum, and to inform and support each other's efforts in carrying out this declaration.

Source: Association of University Leaders for a Sustainable Future (2011).

Achieving sustainability is not easy for institutions, and it is certainly even more difficult for government as other problems of politics and economics affect the amount of resources governments and nations can devote to sustainability initiatives and education. Institutions seeking to embrace and foster sustainable development must have strong platforms or foundations on which to base sustainability plans and programs. Michigan Energy Options (2011) provides three guiding pillars of sustainability: flourishing environment, vibrant community, and equitable economy. These three pillars can be the foundation as well as performance measurement variables that educational and other organizations use to guide their sustainability programs and progress. A flourishing environment demands paying attention to the physical and natural environment of living and nonliving things, and this requires a vibrant or actively involved and highly engaging and participative community of people who play their roles in promoting sustainability and can directly point to the personal and collective benefits and responsibilities. An equitable economy is created when all individuals in the flourishing environment and vibrant community are able to reap equitable benefits and advantages that are important to their survival and well-being while providing for the future.

Colleges and universities should see themselves as the most vital links and agents in promoting and advocating sustainability and in making education for sustainability and sustainability education part of their cultures. As micro-societies, they should seek to become true sustainable communities. In these settings, students can experience the great benefits intended for our planet as they become wiser and more caring with regard to their actions that affect living standards, quality of life, wildlife, the environment, peoples, and cultures. They should strive to become truly sustainable communities as described by the Center for Ecoliteracy (2011):

> A truly sustainable community is alive — fresh, vital, evolving, diverse, dynamic. It supports the health and quality of life of present and future generations while living within the limits of its social and natural systems. It recognizes the need for justice, and for physical, emotional, intellectual, cultural, and spiritual sustenance (p. 1).

These ideals practiced within educational-institutional settings provide the models for better choices, actions, and decisions in wider society, where our greater collective efforts have more far-reaching impact on the health and sustenance of our planet as well as contemporary and future well-being.

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The Branding of an Academic Journal: How Marketing, Intrapreneurship, Information Technology, and Teamwork Created a Successful Research Journal

Hagai Gringarten, Lisa J. Knowles, Raúl Fernández-Calienes, and Nicole Grandmont-Gariboldi

Abstract

In today's fierce competitive market with increased options available to consumers, cultivating intrapreneurship in a not-for-profit university setting, fast growing a generic journal represents a remarkable branding achievement—especially for academia.

Keywords

academia, branding, electronic publishing, entrepreneurship, information technology, intrapreneurship, journal publishing, marketing, not-for-profit, publishing, research, teamwork, university

Introduction[2]

Publishing a research journal has many advantages and benefits for a university—from enhancing academic reputation to all involved to increased institutional brand equity. The idea of creating a journal circulated through St. Thomas University for quite some time, and following a directive from St. Thomas University Faculty Forum, an ad-hoc committee was established to investigate the possibilities of establishing a research journal. After several years of ad-hoc committee work, Professor Hagai Gringarten joined the effort in 2009. With determination and resolve, Professor Gringarten cofounded the exploratory journal, and later founded the *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research* (JMR).

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[2] This article is based on a paper first presented to the Annual International Conference on Innovation and Entrepreneurship held in Singapore in July of 2011.

Gringarten assembled a great editorial team (deputy editor Dr. Raúl Fernández-Calienes, and associate editors Dr. Lisa J. Knowles and Dr. Nicole Grandmont-Gariboldi), and within a year, and as a result of unique branding strategies, the journal achieved relatively solid brand awareness and credibility in the academic world. Currently, the journal publishes three issues per year (spring, summer, and fall), each consisting of an average of five or six articles, a student article, a "Life Forward" section, and two book reviews.

Background

The organization that serves as the backdrop for this case study is a small regional private university located in the southeastern United States. The university has its roots in the exile Cuban community starting in 1961 and currently has a student body of about 4,000 students in undergraduate and graduate programs combined. The university underwent several changes, both structurally and philosophically, over the past 50 years and has settled on a mission statement that derives from a religious base serving a strong, diverse population of students with the explicit objective of preparing students for future leadership roles.

Academic Journals in the U.S.A. and around the World

Quantity

Today, academic publishing exists in a very competitive market. There are literally thousands of academic journals around the world. In mid-November of 2011, for example, the Directory of Open Access Journals listed 7,297 scientific and scholarly journals from 117 countries, including 1,349 in the United States, 653 in Brazil, and 529 in the United Kingdom (Directory of Open Access Journals, 2011). From the corporate world, several examples give additional perspective. Thomson Reuters produces Journal Citation Reports, which cover "more than 9,100 journals from over 2,200 publishers in approximately 230 disciplines from 78 countries" (Thomson Reuters, 2010). ProQuest produces "periodical databases comprising the output of more than 9,000 titles and spanning more than 500 years" (ProQuest, 2011). Gale produces a database that covers "nearly 13,000 titles, including more than 7,300 peer-reviewed journals and more than 5,000 in full-text" (Academic OneFile, 2011). Finally, the JournalSeek database "contains 97,694 journals from 5,171 different publishers" (JournalSeek, 2011).

Publishers can turn out an individual journal for a single organization, as is the case with the JMR. They also can produce multiple journals for multiple entities. Cambridge University Press (CUP), for instance, is "the oldest Press in the world and has printed and published continuously since 1584" (Cambridge University Press, 2011). Every year, this single publisher produces more than 240 journals "for the global market" (Academic Publishing, 2011). The CUP is affiliated directly with the University of Cambridge and indirectly with many of the top academic institutions in the world. Similarly, another single journal publisher, Oxford University Press, produces "more than 90 journals" (Oxford Journals, 2011).

The sheer number of journals can be overwhelming for both scholars and students. This also is true for authors, editors, and publishers—especially as they consider establishment, or development and growth, of academic journals.

Quality

Many academic journals use—and even seek out—evaluation methods to improve and to promote their publications. "Ranking systems," for example, assess the quality of publications using a variety of elements such as distribution volume, number of articles cited, and cost. Garfield (1994) combined several such elements into what he called a journal's "impact factor" (cf., Thomson Reuters, 2008), a 'metric' that has been in use for decades (Tempest, 2008). Calculated based on a three-year period, journal impact factor usually measures the "frequency with which the 'average article' in a journal has been cited in a given period of time" (Sciencegateway.org, 2011, p. 1). In the field of law, for example, the Washington & Lee University School of Law maintains a comprehensive ranking system that attempts to evaluate every law review in print (Washington & Lee, 2011). Its methodology includes 'impact-factor' (which "shows the average number of annual citations to articles in each journal (rounded to two decimal places)") and 'currency factor' (which "aims to compare journals on how rapidly their articles become cited") (Washington & Lee, 2011, pp. 9-10). In the field of business, the University of Texas at Dallas Naveen Jindal School of Management produces The UTD Top 100 Business School Research Rankings™, which it describes as "a ranking of the top 100 schools in North America and worldwide based on publications" in "24 leading journals in major business disciplines" (University of Texas at Dallas, 2011a, p. 1; University of Texas at Dallas, 2011b, p. 1). In the field of information systems, the Association for Information Systems (2011) offers an MIS Journal Rankings page on its Website that evaluates more than 100 specialized publications and describes that "the rankings of journals in your discipline often serve as surrogate measures of quality" (p. 1).

Despite publicly known systemic flaws with such metrics (e.g., in general and scientific literature, for example, see Thomson Reuters 2008; in legal literature, for example, see Perry, 2006), authors, editors, and journals themselves use these kinds of ranking system to work toward improving the quality of both their submissions and their overall publications. Educational organizations use rankings to promote the quality of their students, faculty members, and research.

Another approach organizations use is to encourage editorial staff to gain professional or academic qualifications. For example, the Oxford International Centre for Publishing Studies (2011a, 2011b) at Oxford Brookes University in the United Kingdom offers a Certificate in Journals Publishing as well as a Bachelor of Arts degree in Publishing, a Postgraduate Certificate in Publishing, a Postgraduate Diploma in Publishing, and six Master's degrees in Publishing (including a European Master in Publishing degree with educational partners in France, Germany, and Slovenia).

Ranking systems contribute to reputation, and both affect a journal that uses non-traditional publishing methods. Reputation can take years to develop, especially for open access journals. Zimmermann (2009) writes of editors moving away from print to online publishing and then having to "start the reputation cycle" (p. 50). Nevertheless, in today's technologically savvy environment, many online journals are willing to do the extra work (to gain, or maintain, reputation), to use ranking systems, and to focus on quality (despite occasionally involving high cost).

The knowledge of both quantity and quality factors of a journal's impact as well as the pursuit of increasing overall publication value led members of the Editorial Team to reflect upon

the following kinds of questions: How can the JMR compete with a journal produced by any number of behemoth worldwide publishers like CUP? What market does the JMR seek? What makes the JMR unique? What factors will increase the brand equity and impact factor, and the JMR's visibility? How do we make JMR a 'better' journal?

Growth and Expansion

The Editorial Team considered how the JMR could succeed in this context. Team members began to look at all the standard topics a publisher needs to consider including copyright, permissions, royalties, format (i.e., printed versus electronic versions), distribution (e.g., traditional, e-publishing), production costs, marketing and publicity (e.g., traditional, electronic, social media), subscriptions, and the future of the publishing market itself (e.g., ongoing decrease in paper products and continuing increase in digital products). The Editorial Team next established goals for the JMR. It determined one of the goals would be growth and expansion. This included quantitative, qualitative, and branding aspects. On the quantitative side, this meant working toward receiving an increased number of general articles, student corner articles, and reviews submitted for consideration. It also meant pursuing a goal of having enough material to produce additional issues—for example, increasing from two to three issues per year—and receiving articles and reviews from (1) a much larger pool of authors, (2) an increased number of universities, research centers, institutes, and other organizations, and (3) an increased number of nations and geographic regions around the world. On the qualitative side, this meant increasing JMR brand equity from secondary brand association by recruiting reviewers and soliciting submissions from branded universities (top 300 in the world) in order to benefit and leverage secondary brand associations as much as possible. It also meant seeking, and signing agreements with, major academic search engines such as ProQuest and EBSCO. This secondary brand association would help create tremendous brand equity.

The question was how to achieve these goals (cf., Armstrong, 2004). On the branding side, this meant recognizing the importance of global ranking by the leading ranking agencies, increasing the journal's impact factor, creating or sponsoring an annual conference, and reproducing the journal business model as a franchise.

Then, the Editorial Team looked at several methods for attaining these goals. An initial strategy was to increase the 'visibility' of the journal—an element of "impact factor." Thus, the team began to collect thousands of e-mail addresses of faculty in institutions all across the state of Florida, the United States, and the world. A "Call for Papers" and a "Call for Reviewers" were sent to the thousands of e-mail addresses in the JMR database. Another strategy was to increase the 'searchability' of the journal. Another Editorial Team member worked for months to get the JMR indexed by some of the world's top content providers, aggregators, search engines, information distributors, and platforms. Over the course of a year, the JMR began to establish relationships—and sign contracts—with major companies in the U.S. and Europe, including industry leaders ProQuest, EBSCO, and de Gruyter. This expanded the JMR reach to organizations that offer literally billions of searchable Web pages to readers all around the globe.

Intrapreneurship

Institutions of higher education exist solely to prepare members of society enrolled in them with knowledge and skills necessary to meet the demands of the present and emerging workforce, societal needs in both services and public domains, government realms as service providers, and technological and scientific endeavors. "Today's corporate managers, leaders and academic scholars are in search of discovering innovative methods of encouraging individuals and teams to become creative and, thus, make their organizations more competitive" (Kenny & Mujtaba, 2007, p. 73). Innovation is the key to new ideas; however, the intrapreneurial process is complete only with the successful implementation of the new product or service. Pinchot and Pellman (1999) asserted that the real challenge is turning ideas into profitable realities.

Although it may appear that "Academia has been especially reticent to embrace entrepreneurial initiatives" (Grant, 1998, as cited in Kenny & Mujtaba, 2007, p. 79), the university in and of itself becomes a breeding ground for entrepreneurship, many times being generated from within. This corporate entrepreneurial perspective may be defined more accurately as intrapreneurship (Hanan, 1976; Peterson & Berger, 1972; Rodrigues, 2010) and most notably developed by Pinchot (1985).

The concept of intrapreneurship is "entrepreneurship within an existing organization, referring to emergent behavioral intentions and behaviors of an organization that are related to departures from the customary" (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2003, p. 9). Although it may be customary for faculty to participate regularly in active research, developing a refereed journal is not always pursued. When entrepreneurial activities generated in institutions of higher education begin with research and develop into a refereed journal, they usually evolve into design conferences, institutes, and other endeavors that yield national, international, and global brand recognition. Another widespread area of intrapreneurial activity in academia is the creation of new and innovative academic programs, be it specific courses, curricula, or entire disciplines to meet the challenges of the constantly changing external environment and societal needs. An example of this is the development of specializations within academic major areas of discipline.

But what happens if the intrapreneurial act creates a branding avenue different than the institutional brand? Should the team seek to form an independent brand identity?

Intrapreneurship often begins with employees using their creative talents to develop new products or services, or both, to enhance their organization. Developing a "team" competency, as described by Hellriegel and Slocum (2007), "involves the ability to develop, support, facilitate, and lead groups to achieve organizational goals" (p. 23). Hence, this intrapreneurial team succeeds because "team competency yields the greatest productivity and smoothest sailing situations" (Knowles, 2010, p. 11), especially in an intrapreneurial endeavor, which may surpass the original organizational goals. Research suggests three focal areas: the individual entrepreneur, new venture creation within the organization, and the nature of the organization itself, which lends itself to entrepreneurship (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2003). Examples in the corporate world range from the success of 3M to small and medium sized organizations gleaning from successful intrapreneurial endeavors (Johnson, 2001). The Post-it Note is perhaps one of the most widely used products that came from an intrapreneurial endeavor at 3M. Furthermore, Pfizer, France Telecom, and even Speedpass® were the result of intrapreneurial initiatives (Johnson, 2001; Thornberry, 2003; Kenny & Mujtaba, 2007).

Pfizer invested in internal studies to determine lost talent time to menial tasks. Instead, Pfizer talent, addressing global health issues, became an intrapreneurial act ensuring greater organizational effectiveness (Pfizer, 2011). France Telecom adopted an innovation strategy that encouraged entrepreneurship with strong organizational support. Its Talents Programmes was designed for high potential managers to aspire with innovative and value creation supported by the organization using high complex, multicultural, and cross-functional environments (EML Executive Development, 2011). As a result of adopting this intrapreneurial strategy, France Telecom created its single brand, "Orange," for all of its telecommunications including internet, television, and mobile services throughout France and several other European countries (Cranfield University, n.d.). Exxon Mobile adapted Speedpass®, a contactless payment system, as a quick and easy way for its customers to pay at the pump using a radio frequency identification (RFID) keytag.

Likewise, institutions of higher education experience and often witness the success of intrapreneurial activities. One of the most famous intrapreneurial products originating from an institution of higher education was the creation of Gatorade at the University of Florida, to optimize the performance of their "Gators" athletic teams during athletic events. Some institutes as well as research and development centers grow from institutions of higher education. In a sense, those faculty who become most revered are those who develop research and publication activities in such a way as to create their own "branding" of themselves, which is aligned with the subject matter as they enter into the realm of expert power due to their many research activities. This leads to the creation of actual publications of peer-reviewed journals, as in this case, drawing out the intrapreneurial act into an open arena.

Information Knowledge

Oudan (2010) highlights major strategies for information age businesses. They include deploying and integrating IT platforms and designing an organization for knowledge leverage. One example is Bombardier Inc., one of the largest manufacturing companies in Canada. Many consider the Bombardier Manufacturing System (BMS) as the firm's main area of leverage. At the core of its strategic positioning, the BMS allowed the firm to expand its operations from manufacturing Ski-Doos to trains and ultimately airplanes. Bombardier Aerospace is a division of Bombardier Inc., and is the third largest aircraft company in the world in terms of yearly delivery of commercial airplanes (Bombardier Aerospace, 2011). In addition, moving toward the downstream side of the value chain, the firm managed to get closer to the customer by creating not only a Service Group but also a Knowledge- and Service-Based Group with more explicit emphasis on the "Knowledge" content. More recently, using a computer modeling concept at its Belfast manufacturing plan,

> Bombardier can tell very quickly whether it can in fact build and/or assemble a part before it builds the factory or production line to make it. This also allows the teams to experiment with different layouts and material flows to optimise production for both time and money. (Grant, 2008, p. 79)

Other possible practical implications of information-knowledge as an asset include information technology-based financial derivatives risk management solutions, software applications for financial portfolio construction and management, interactive expert systems for enhanced customer value, timely decision-making, and continuous strategic repositioning by virtual corporations. One can view a virtual corporation as a network of entities stripped to their core competencies using IT, leadership, human resources, and the synergy from strategic alliances, partnerships, and teams for creating stakeholders added value.

Oudan (2010) notes several companies such as General Electric, Cisco, and Oracle have transferred most of their procurement activities to the Internet resulting in significant transaction and service cost reductions.

Since information knowledge can be a major asset, it does not come as a surprise that the current literature covers the topic of knowledge management (KM) widely. Among others, Ajmal, Helo, and Kekala (2010), and Alok, Geeta, and Renu (2010) discussed several KM strategies to support any organization in achieving competitive advantage.

"Information-knowledge as an asset" (Grandmont-Gariboldi, 2005) can be as a fluid concept. Figure 1 shows all stakeholders can capture it as a 'gold currency' (valued asset) through an institution's culture, using information technology to permeate the information-intensive business process. The probable outcomes include empowered participants, a downstream move on the value chain, and an information-laden product, or service, or both. This is precisely what is happening with the JMR.
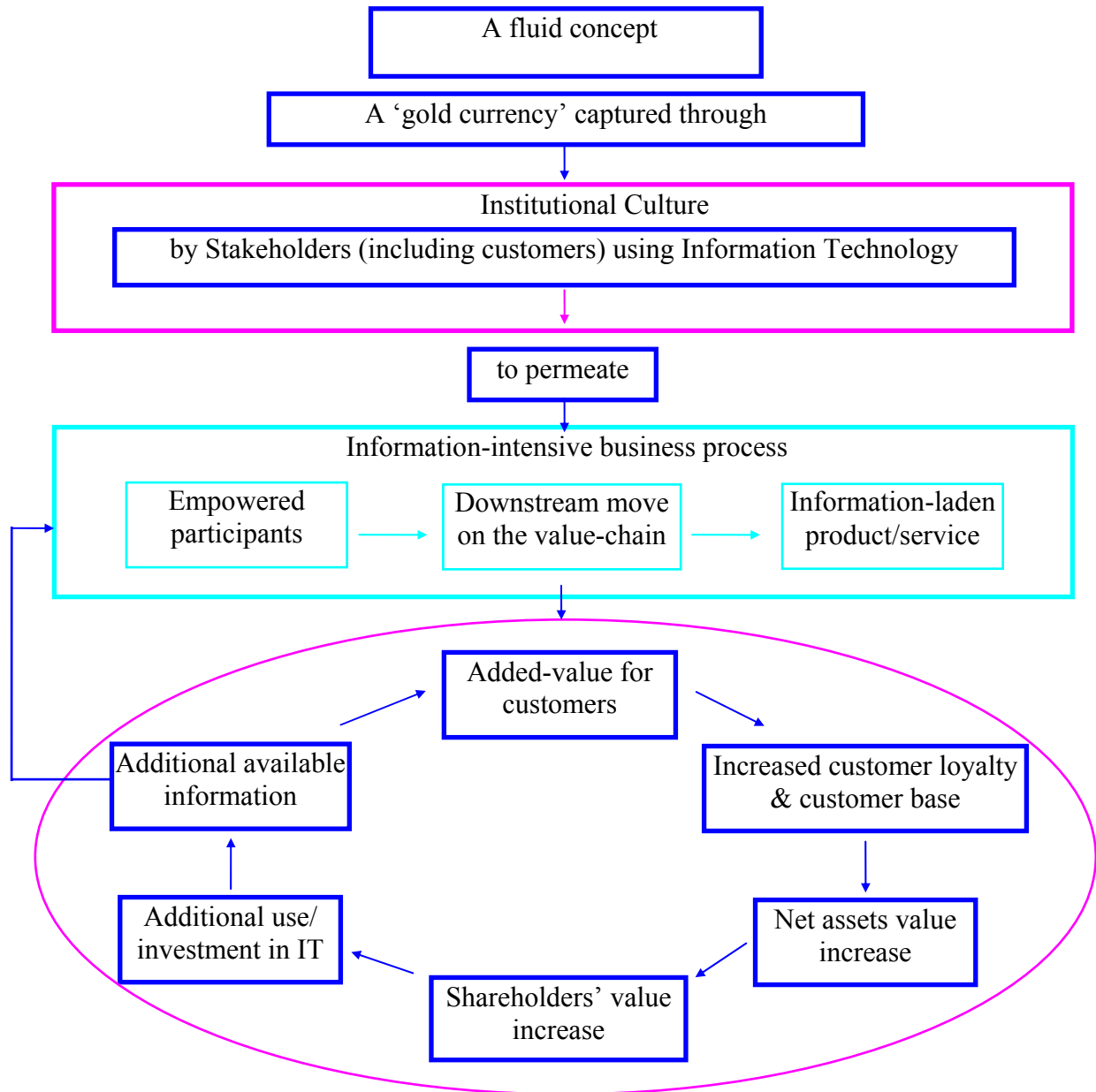
Branding Strategy

Due to the complexity and the new marketing environment of the 21st century, developing, competing, and achieving sustainable advantage is becoming more challenging than ever before. No matter how strong brands are, it is getting harder to sustain brand equity, maintain points of differentiation, and sustain competitive advantage (Aaker, 2003). More and more firms realize that branding is one of the most valuable intangible assets that firms have. Keller (2000) wrote that successful brand performance is critical to the overall success of a business. To realize how important and intangible brand equity is to corporations, one should note the prevalence of intangibility of brands. For example, Interbrand calculated that 96% of the market capitalization value of Coca Cola is intangible, as well as 97% for Kellogg, and 84% for American Express (Jimena, 2006). Jones (2005) pointed out that in a survey of the top 3,500 companies in the United States, "Intangible assets accounted for 72 per cent of market value, compared with only 5 per cent in 1978" (p. 13).

Developing and competing successfully in the world of academic publishing is very challenging. As we previously noted, there are thousands of academic journals around the world, most of them published in the United States. The editorial team recognized the following branding challenges facing the emerging journal.

- Savvy customers - Academic journal "customers" are usually professors with terminal degrees, highly successful practitioners, or students of higher education—usually Ph.D. students. In short, they are savvy and experienced people who will seek the best venue for their academic research and professional development.

Figure 1. A Perspective of "Information-Knowledge as an Asset."

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│            A fluid concept            │
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    │   A 'gold currency' captured through  │
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│              Institutional Culture                 │
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│  │ by Stakeholders (including customers) using   │ │
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│  │participants│ │on the value-chain│ │laden      │ │
│  └──────────┘   └──────────────┘   │product/service│
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         Added-value for customers
  Additional available information
  Increased customer loyalty & customer base
  Additional use/ investment in IT
  Net assets value increase
  Shareholders' value increase
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- Brand proliferation - Thousands of academic journals are published around the world, many of them published under the auspices of a branded institution.
- Increased competition - Thousands of academic journals are published, and more academic conferences are offered than ever before.
- Increased costs - Communications, printing, and promotional costs are ever increasing.
- The Journal, under the auspices of a regional university, has global brand awareness and secondary brand association challenges.

Initially, the following points of parity with other journals were identified.

- Double-blind peer-reviewed academic journal.
- Available in print and online.
- Feature articles authored by professors.

In order to develop a viable research journal, a strategic brand management process was initiated by the editor, to create, build, manage, and sustain the JMR's brand equity. The idea was to identify and establish brand positioning, plan and implement brand marketing programs, and grow and sustain the JMR's brand equity. The following strategies were implemented.

- Create a database of thousands of academic e-mails from hundreds of universities from around the world.
- Use the journal's own database to solicit submissions and peer reviewers for the journal, and disseminate news releases to create brand awareness and position the journal as a viable research journal.
- Disseminate additional news releases through traditional media and to universities, staff, faculty, and alumni to create brand awareness, garner support, and position the journal as a credible research journal.
- Create unique, strong, and favorable brand associations and increase JMR brand equity from secondary brand association by recruiting reviewers and soliciting submissions from branded universities (top 300 in the world) in order to benefit and leverage secondary brand associations as much as possible (National University Rankings, 2011).
- Seek, and sign agreements with, major academic search engines such as ProQuest and EBSCO. This secondary brand association will help create a great brand equity.
- Create a unique set of article offering combinations, featuring articles by branded universities, together with student articles, and book reviews. We also introduced a "Life Forward" section, featuring high achievers.
- Design the journal in a way to create, physically and visually, a stand-alone brand. The journal is printed in color, and uses 12-point font to make it reader friendly and visually appealing.
- Use technology to enable color print to order, which decreases printing costs and increases impact.

- Create a separate Website to help create a brand identity for the journal.
- Utilize the latest information technology to create and sustain competitive advantage.

Immediate Results

As a result of these branding strategies, the following Points of Parity (POPs) and Points of Difference (PODs) were achieved in less than a year, which represents an remarkable achievement for a generic journal.

Points of Parity:

- Double-blind peer-reviewed academic journal.
- Indexed and licensed by academic search engines.
- Available in print and online.
- Includes feature articles authored by professors from well known universities.
- Accessible via a dedicated Website (http://www.jmrpublication.org)

Points of Difference:

- Indexed and licensed by the world's leading academic search engines such as ProQuest, EBSCO, de Gruyter, IBR, and IBZ.
- Features articles by professors from top 100 universities (National University Rankings, 2011).
- Includes unique sections such as the book reviews, student corner, and "Life Forward."
- Has stand-alone JMR recognition.
- Is printed in color and in 12-point font.

While some may consider it to be a hybrid, real and virtual enterprise, it is by embracing virtuality that it succeeded in implementing its effective market penetration and branding strategy. Such an accomplishment would have been impossible without the intensive use of Internet communications for reaching out to potential authors and reviewers. Through the Internet, the JMR team effectively used IT to acquire knowledge of its market participants, and in that sense, it created its own IT knowledge-based asset: an increasing market base and a continuous quality improvement through an incessant knowledge attainment. Now, it is well positioned to generate a virtuous circle likely to evolve as follows: added value for customers (authors, readers, etc.), increased customer loyalty and customer base, increase in net asset, increase in brand equity and stakeholders' value, additional resources for investment in IT, and additional available information, which in turn will result in added value for customers at the beginning of a new cycle. Unquestionably included in the journal's customers is St. Thomas University, which initiated the need for a journal. The JMR exemplifies a branding asset for the institution, thus representing a value-added resource emanating from an information-intensive process, leadership, and teamwork.

Yeo (2010) argues economic growth in leading world economies is based increasingly on knowledge, which is valued as a key factor in production. Ongoing advancements in technologies and the increasing possibilities for Internet access led to the rapidly evolving e-commerce as a business platform. New opportunities are continuously emerging for enterprises that can adapt their strategies, and take most advantage of the available information and assimilate it in their business processes. The information knowledge then will permeate the enterprise and become a most valuable asset for reconfiguring and optimizing its value chain activities. An appealing feature of Porter's (1986) value chain theory is it is amenable to such modifications. A firm's success will depend on its ability to manage its information asset for securing a competitive advantage. The ability of the journal's team members to acquire, manage, and disseminate relevant information led in good measure to the successful implementation of the JMR strategic brand management.

Conclusion

The creation of the *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research* was the result of a directive of the St. Thomas University Faculty Forum and the consistent determination of the founding editor, Professor Hagai Gringarten. He assembled a great team of associate editors and within less than a year, and as a result of unique branding strategies, the journal achieved relatively solid brand awareness and credibility. The team now must face the difficult questions as to what strategic branding direction it should employ to increase brand equity. Future implications also must address leveraging secondary brand association while minimizing anything that would hinder the continued development of the journal's brand equity. The team must decide strategic direction careful to enhance the forward potential of the journal's quest for a strong branding stance. In today's fierce competitive market and increased options available to consumers, cultivating intrapreneurship at not-for-profit university settings, fast growing a generic journal without supporting staff or budget, represents a remarkable branding achievement—especially for academia.

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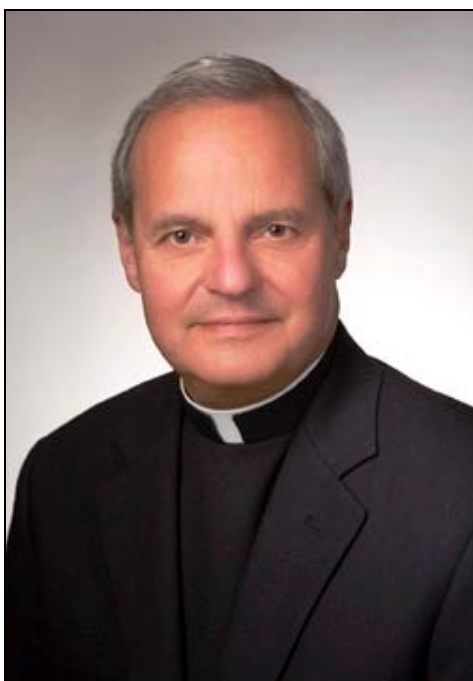
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Life Forward

Reverend Monsignor Franklyn Casale
President, St. Thomas University

Interviewed by Hagai Gringarten, Editor-in-Chief

When you became president, in 1994, what was your top priority?

In 1994, St. Thomas University was suffering severe financial problems. The first order of business was to stabilize the fiscal situation of the University. In addition, our law school had reached its final year of provisional accreditation. It appeared the ABA would not give final accreditation to the law school because of the shaky financial condition of the University. I worked with our Chief Financial Officer and the banks to complete the renegotiation of our bonds, saving us money in our annual operating budget. At the same time, we looked at the budget to find how we could better use the resources of the University. The law school received final accreditation nine months later. The new bonds also gave us $500,000 in cash to invest in a capital project. I had received quite a bit of advice from people about what the University

needed. One professor wrote a memo to me and said we needed to initiate a plan for technology on campus. He was the only professor who had a computer on his desk in the faculty suite, and he purchased it himself! I took his advice, and we immediately hired a national company to bring us up to speed. We have maintained state-of-the-art technology ever since.

What were some of the problems and opportunities you saw?

The opportunity I saw was that St. Thomas University had a wonderful faculty. I saw a lot of dedication and professionalism in our faculty, even in these very difficult times. I would say that if it were not for the deep commitment our faculty had to students then, we might not be celebrating our 50th anniversary today. Students receive a great education from a great faculty. The faculty is the heart and core of an institution. No matter how highly motivated students are they need professors to bring out the best in them. We have continuously maintained a caring and dedicated faculty through the years.

I knew the areas that we were very good at and we had the opportunity to grow in. Although early on I made the decision to emphasize undergraduate science, we did not have many science majors and our facilities were extremely poor. The decision was based on my understanding that there was a need for more minority scientists and opportunities for us to fund development in this area. Our effort in science has turned out to be very successful. We attracted government appropriations, foundation funding and private philanthropy. We built our new Carnival Cruise Lines Science and Technology building. Research dollars have come in and we have assembled outstanding faculty. Our undergraduate program now has a great reputation. Our science majors have hands on research experience with our professors.

I also saw that the law school had enormous potential to grow in its reputation. The law school was founded on the notion that we would provide ethical lawyers who are sensitive and educated in the social and ethical needs of the profession. We have developed many programs in the law school which support the original foundation. Our Center for Intercultural Human Rights, the Human Rights Institute, and the many clinics that we have all make enormous contributions.

A good number of our graduates from the law school stay in Miami. Many of our lawyers go into public service after graduation. Many of our graduates are making a difference globally supporting justice and the rights of people. We have a number of lawyers now on the bench and in high-level positions in law firms. Jobs for our future graduates will result from these successes. Shortly, we will build a center at the law school to house the many justice-oriented programs we developed and attract international scholars to do research with us.

What does it take to be a great university president?

I believe to be great in any type of leadership you need to have a respect for the human person. For me, respecting individuals and treating them well is a requisite characteristic of leadership. I also believe that a leader has to have a wide vision about what is important for an institution. In institutions of higher learning, so many people believe that just about everything is important. Prioritizing is a key. With so many competing interests in academics it is important for the university president to focus on what works, try to improve what is not working well, and move along to a better place. Another quality that I think is necessary is persistence. Progress never happens overnight and only happens if you stick to the program, not letting difficulties

become permanent setbacks. Many times progress is only measured in retrospect by a long line of modest but intentional incremental steps.

How are we doing so far and where do you see the university in five years?

St. Thomas University is doing very well. At the moment we have a stable enrollment base, stable financial picture, and ever-growing reputation for academic quality. We enjoy one of the most beautiful well appointed campuses in Florida. We have a great infrastructure and are able to compete well on many different levels with other institutions including our athletic program. In five years I see the addition of another building for our law school, housing our programs for global justice. I see a renovated library that will be more like a technology learning commons, supporting both distance education and our on campus education. We will undoubtedly see increasing numbers of programs online and improvements to our sports facilities. There will be additional opportunities for leadership development through internships, second language competencies, honors programs, and global leadership training. I see us as a leader in international business and entrepreneurship. Our unique programs in ministry will continue to grow. Our annual headcount is now 5,000 and will be more than 6,000 students. In other words, I see our strategic plan becoming a reality. All of this is going to be supported by our capital campaign.

What advice would you give our graduating students?

I would tell our graduating seniors that they have the capacity to be great leaders and they should use the talent, the skill and the knowledge that were developed here at St. Thomas University to create better lives for themselves and for the world around them. They are following a long list of leaders among our alumni who are doing well for themselves and well for society. I would also tell our students to maintain a moral and ethical standard. This is at the heart of a Catholic university education.

What was your proudest moment at STU?

I have two proud moments every year, our two graduations. As I stand on the stage handing out diplomas to so many students and shaking their hands, I think to myself, "my God, isn't this marvelous, we have changed the lives of these people and we have changed the lives of everyone that they will come in contact with after they leave St. Thomas University." This is a tremendous privilege that all of us at St. Thomas University are involved in. We change lives and create leaders for life.

How does the *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research* contribute to the academic profile of the university?

The *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research* highlights the academic achievement of our faculty and other members of the academy. Any time someone thinks deeply through an issue and puts those thoughts into a scholarly publication, they are making a great contribution. This journal becomes a vehicle for the development of that kind of thought and a reference site for scholarly work.

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Student Corner

The Politics of Food: Did *You* Really Choose What's on Your Plate?

Jacqueline Llorente

Abstract

The study of food politics deals with the interaction and influences the food industry has on society and corporations. This multibillion-dollar industry has shaped today's society influencing us in an often unconscious, but very real way. Food politics affects people in the United States in virtually every aspect of their lives, whether debating which cereal to purchase at the grocery store or watching food-related commercials tucked in between a 30-minute television show. The politics of food taps into the subconscious of the U.S. consumer, often making society's way of thinking about food automatic. This article depicts some of the intricacies in an often overlooked, yet highly influential topic.

Keywords

food politics, marketing, obesity, advertising, commercials, children, McDonald's, United States Department of Agriculture, Food and Drug Administration, food packaging, grocery store, consumption

Introduction

The study of food politics deals with the interaction and influences the food industry has on society and corporations both nationally and internationally. The politics of food are evident in various forms, from our culture and society, to laboratory experiments, and the corporate world in the development of the fast food industry. All forms, although different, have an impact on the way we think and eat. Many themes seem obvious—once the subject is brought up. They are topics that nearly everyone can relate to, yet so few people outwardly recognize or talk about. The food industry has made society's way of thinking about food so mechanical and automatic that few people realize the impact such an industry has on the great majority of the world, and in

particular, people in the United States of America.

The United States Department of Agriculture (U.S.D.A.) was established in 1862, and in 1894, it published the first *Farmers' Bulletin* advocating the diet Americans should follow (Davis & Saltos, 1999). The bulletin encouraged mindful eating and moderation. Its author emphasized the importance of a balanced diet to avoid "the evils of overeating [which] may not be felt at once, but sooner or later…are sure to appear" (Atwater, cited in Davis & Saltos, 1999, p. 34). Twenty-two years later, a nutritionist (Davis & Saltos, 1999) developed the first U.S.D.A. food guide designed specifically for children, the next year a guide suitable for adults was published, and then one for families in 1921 (Davis & Saltos, 1999). Throughout its evolution, the U.S.D.A. adapted the guide, at times trying to accommodate families depending on the household size and other times developing a guide to aid families of various income levels when they went grocery shopping.

The Great Depression spawned new political changes for the food industry. In 1933, the United States (U.S.) Congress passed the *Agricultural Adjustment Act* to aid farmers and compensated them to prevent certain crops from entering the market (Fite, 2007). It was this same year that the U.S.D.A. categorized foods into 12 groups, designed to satisfy weekly consumption (Davis & Saltos, 1999). Calorie and nutrient specific recommendations, however, were not specified until 1941 when President Franklin Roosevelt, initiated a national conference (Davis & Saltos, 1999). Two years later, overseas wartime conflict necessitated the change of the 1933 recommendations, and a circle with seven categories was put in its place (Smith, 2011). Interestingly, a poster from the time indicates, "In addition to the Basic 7…eat any other foods you want" (Smith, 2011), something that is not necessarily advised today. Over the course of the 20th century food guidelines, essentially what the government thought Americans should purchase and subsequently consume continued to evolve—at times taking a more general approach and other times a more specific one.

More recently, the U.S.D.A., along with the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (USDA News Release, 2011), released the seventh edition of the *Dietary Guidelines for Americans,* which, ironically or not, seems to repeat what was recommended almost 100 years ago: Eat in moderation, drink water, and do not neglect your vegetables. Indicative of the influence politics has on food, the U.S.D.A. completely overhauled the iconic food pyramid, replacing it instead with two circles (Neuman, 2011b). The ultimate goal is to curb the obesity epidemic by encouraging half of your plate to be fruits and vegetables. Health aside, the U.S.D.A. invested two million dollars for the new circles and the information they contain (Neuman, 2011b).

Only time will tell whether the two-million dollar circles is a good investment. Laboratory research reveals that people eat according to their environment (Schlosser & Wilson, 2006) as well as their thoughts (Morewedge, Huh & Vosgerau, 2010). The influence that labels have on food—both on the names and origins of a food, and the impact that an ambiance and mood give to the flavor of food—all affect consumption. Portion sizes also influence the amount of food a person eats. Large portion sizes have led to a departure from the norm of what people think is an "appropriate" amount of food. Those with a skewed perception, when served a larger portion, tend to increase their consumption (Steenhuis & Vermeer, 2009). Portion size also has had an impact on people's purchasing decisions at the grocery store where people are trying to get a good deal with limited means (Steenhuis & Vermeer, 2009). So, despite the investment, consumers experience a diversity of variables when making selections about food.

Still, there might be some hope for those seeking to control their portions. Researchers from Carnegie Mellon University (Morewedge, Huh & Vosgerau, 2010) reported findings that suggest imagining consuming food might help you eat less of that food once it is presented to you. Initially, it was thought that merely visualizing consumables increased one's waistline; that is because people ate more of the food they were thinking of. In the study, however, participants who imagined consuming 30 M&M's ate fewer of them than the participants who were told to imagine eating only 3 (Morewedge, Huh & Vosgerau, 2010). Researchers concluded the imaginary repetition of consuming a greater amount of a specific food caused a decrease in both motivation and desire to consume the specific food when it was presented for consumption. Thinking about the food was not enough to reduce one's actual consumption of it; rather, thinking about consuming a specific food is what led to a decrease in its actual consumption.

Cultural influences also have an impact on our decisions (Rappoport, 2003) in choosing a Big Mac over vegetables, for instance, and childhood behavior eating habits have lasting effects translating into adulthood. Psychology, whether we like it or not, influences the very being of who we are. The psychology of food has much to do with the food industry and the way it has shaped today's society by influencing us in an often unconscious, but very real, way. For example, ethnocentric attitudes of foods bring to reality the way people define themselves, or a group of people, based on the foods of a particular region. In relation to the influence a region has on a person's consumption of food, the reality is the globalization of 'regional' food has an impact on politics (Rappoport, 2003). Rappoport suggests, for example, the circulation of products and companies such as Coca-Cola and McDonald's will bring local economies to an inferior position to that of the United States market because of the success that U.S. products such as these have on foreign markets thus influencing how people those markets eat (Rappoport, 2003). The fear herein lies that traditions and cultural attitudes abroad are going to be erased with the success and dominance of an 'Americanized' market.

Children too, are not shielded when it comes to the politics of food. An early example of food-related advertisements targeting children occurred in 1957 when McDonald's first mascot was conceptualized specifically to lure children to eat its burgers (Schlosser & Wilson, 2006). The mascot, however, was unsuccessful because it resembled a mascot that advertised an over-the-counter pill for an upset stomach. Despite the failure of its first mascot, McDonald's did not fare poorly when it came to selling hamburgers. By 1958, with less than 100 McDonald's restaurants open, 100 million hamburgers had been sold (Travel through Time, n.d.). Two years later, however, a McDonald's franchise owner stumbled across what would be one of the best marketing ploys for McDonald's when he sponsored a local circus show that included a child-friendly clown. Thanks to the clown, thousands of new patrons were drawn to the restaurant; the clown's appearances at the McDonald's proved a success (Schlosser & Wilson, 2006).

While McDonald's clown and golden arches were great advertising techniques in the middle half of the 20th century, billions of dollars are now spent on television commercials to advertise fast-food to minors (Fast-food chains, 2011). Over the years, children under the age of 18 have been exposed to an increasing number of fast-food advertisements (Powell & Chaloupka, 2010). It is then not surprising that in one year, in excess of 1,000 were viewed (Fast-food chains, 2011). This is especially concerning since overweight and obese children are particularly sensitive to fast-food advertisements (Andreyeva, Kelly, & Harris, 2011). Incidentally, watching television while eating has been linked to in increase in portion sizes and, in effect, calorie consumption, especially among children (Wiecha et al., 2006). For example, children ranging in age from 7 to

11 years old consumed more snacks when they watched cartoons with food commercials than children who watched commercials advertising entertainment products (Harris, Bargh, & Brownell, 2009). More specifically, the food commercials the children watched advocated empty calorie foods—different from the food they were presented with—in conjunction with a blithe atmosphere. Results were the same when children's ethnicities were taken into account (Harris, Bargh, & Brownell, 2009).

Further, children who eat while watching television have been shown to be more likely to eat foods similar to those advertised during commercials, causing an increase of about 167 calories per hour of television watched (Wiecha et al., 2006). With about 64 percent of young people 8 to 18 years old watching television during meal times (Rideout, Foehr, & Roberts, 2010), their waistlines are sure to increase. Even though some food related advertising to children previously had been reduced (Powell & Chaloupka, 2010), almost 17 percent of all youth in the U.S. are obese, a statistic that has nearly tripled in three decades (Ogden & Carroll, 2010). The numbers, however, are greater when broken down. Almost 20 percent of children aged 6 through 11 years old and about 18 percent of 12 to 19 year olds are obese (Ogden & Carroll, 2010). Still, young people in the U.S. might be at a disadvantage since billions of dollars are spent each year marketing foods and beverages to the youngest sector of the nation. This is not to suggest marketing is solely to blame for the rising childhood obesity; it is just one of many variables that influence children's food decisions.

Outside the home, food politics affects people in the U.S. at the grocery store. The first self-service grocery store opened in 1916 (Piggly Wiggly, n.d.); recall, this was the same year that the U.S.D.A. published the food guide for children. Just 14 years later, in 1930, the first supermarket was unveiled (King Kullen, n.d.); again, this was around the same time the government was making its food recommendations. Now, the grocery industry has grown into a multibillion-dollar industry, with supermarket sales exceeding $562 billion in 2010 (Supermarket Facts, 2010), an increase from approximately $350 billion in 2005 (Nestle, 2006). Further, among the top 10 largest privately held companies in the United States sits a wholesale grocery distributor (C&S Wholesale Grocers, n.d.).

What many people might not realize is that grocery stores are designed and laid out specifically to lure customers to purchase certain products. If your goal is to be healthy, and you find yourself in an aisle, then look up and down because the food at your eye-level (and subsequently easier to *reach*) is usually not the one you should be eating . In-aisle healthier foods can be found purposely located either above or below eye-level, which—depending on your height—will require climbing shelves or squatting. In fact, the food company whose brand sits in front of you probably just purchased the coveted spot (Nestle, 2006), which now stares you squarely in the face. Alternatively, in a multibillion-dollar industry, it could just be that the product sells well.

Snack companies also have a profound impact on the food industry; with nearly $15 billion in snack sales in the United States alone (Esterl, 2011). Food manufacturers are not necessarily wholly independent in the manufacturing of its products, for example, experiencing pressure from government entities, manufacturers continually are being advised to cut salt from their foods (cf., Neuman, 2010). Acquiescing to government pressure and market research, Frito-Lay is one such company—which also just so happens to sell the more salty snacks than any other company in America—to revamp its products. Among its plans is to cut the sodium and artificial ingredients from its products (Esterl, 2011). Frito-Lay, however, does not plan to tell

consumers about the intended 25 percent sodium reduction. The company does intend on marketing its newly refurbished products sans artificial ingredients by embarking on the most prestigious marketing campaign the company has ever endeavored.

One prominent place a company's marketing efforts is noticed is on the packages of its products. Words like, 'natural,' 'heart healthy,' and 'better taste' are just some examples of terms companies use to entice consumers to purchase their product. In fact, part of Frito-Lay's extravagant marketing campaign includes marking its products with the words "all natural" (Esterl, 2011). Speaking of the term 'natural,' manufacturers of snack foods do not monitor the use of the term, so there is a high probability that the "natural ingredients" were produced from chemicals and did not actually come from a naturally occurring plant.

Food packaging is not insulated from politics either. It recently caused political controversy in 2010 when the Food and Drug Administration (F.D.A.) sought to redesign nutrition labels placed on the front of packages to "avoid the confusing and often deceptive wording that currently appears on package fronts" (Melnick, 2011). Initially, the Grocery Manufacturers Association and Food Marketing Institute intended to create a label together with the government (Neuman, 2011a). Tired of negotiating and preferring not to wait any longer for the F.D.A's guidelines—along with Mrs. Obama's speech encouraging labels to better educate consumers—the Association and Institute developed labels the two organizations named Nutrition Keys (Melnick, 2011). The new labels focus on the nutritional quality of the food, marking things like the caloric and sodium content of the food. Additionally, a maximum of two nutrients—of eight approved—are permitted a coveted spot to be showcased along with the standard four. One can only hope that Nutrition Keys will last longer than the Smart Choices program, which failed in large part to criticism received by the F.D.A., especially since $50 million is slated to be spent advertising the new initiative (Neuman, 2011a).

Conclusion

The multibillion-dollar food industry clearly has shaped today's society. Albeit concise, the forgoing description depicts only some of the intricacies in an often overlooked, yet highly influential topic. Food politics affects people in the U.S. in virtually every aspect of their lives, whether debating which cereal to purchase at the grocery store or watching food-related commercials tucked in between a 30-minute television show. The politics of food taps into the subconscious of the U.S. consumer.

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Student Corner

A Reflection on an Internship in China: Will the Losers of Yesterday be the Winners of Tomorrow?

Maria Beatrice Giovanardi

Abstract

Due to globalization trends, China is growing at a rapid rate and eventually will become the world's largest economy. The inspiration to write this article on China's economy and its branding came from the author's experiences while doing an internship for a brand consulting company in Shanghai, China. While there, her task as an international analyst for the branding consulting company was mainly to benchmark the competition while keeping focus on building a brand architecture strategy. China obviously has a long way to go before it can compete with the rest of the world—especially the global competition in branding. Thus, a well-established strategy would place China among the best in the world. For the developed countries to compete with China's rapid growth, they must emphasize new business strategies that are compatible with the innovative technology of our era, such as the Green Movement and global sustainability.

Keywords

internship, China, business, ethics, social responsibility

The Experience

Doing an internship in the summer of 2011 in China has given the author a solid view of China's global business strategy. Among the factors that captured her attention most is that China lacks a global business strategy focused on branding. Thus, the text that follows examines her personal views of China's economy and the problems it faces in attaining a leading role in the global economy. Furthermore, the author suggests different strategies developed countries should take in order to compete with China's rapid growth.

The author recently spent two months last summer working in Shanghai, China, as an intern for the Foresight Brand Consulting Company (Foresight). After arriving in the Far East in May of 2010, at the hiring interview, the managers of Foresight briefly asked the author to introduce herself, so she showed them her personal Website, which illustrates her skills, experiences, and goals in life. The Website made a really good impression on them; one could see the interest and enjoyment on their faces.

Afterwards, they spoke about the company, themselves, and their career achievements. At one point during the interview, the cofounder of the Foresight Brand Consulting Company said, "We believe we are better than international consulting firms because we have a deep understanding and local insight on the Chinese market, people, and needs" (Yusheng Li, 2011, n.p.). That one sentence motivated the author and made her eager to learn as much as possible about their peculiar competitive edge. Foresight currently is ranked number six in China for consulting, and the firm focuses on brand management strategy consulting. It was founded in 2000 by three of P & G's former consultants (Bloomberg BusinessWeek, 2011). Furthermore, the Foresight team in Shanghai is comprised exclusively of native Chinese. Indeed, throughout the author's whole stay, there were no other Westerners at the office.

Working in such an environment added a great deal to the author's learning opportunities. What also made the experience so important and meaningful is the fact that Foresight is a local company, rather than a large international firm. This provided her with a unique understanding of the Chinese reality. Additionally, because all those the author worked with were native Chinese, a much deeper understanding of the Chinese micro and macro environment together with a local insight and perspective was possible. Thus, Foresight has a major competitive advantage with respect to larger international firms.

While there, the author's task as the international analyst for Foresight was mainly to benchmark the competition while keeping the focus on the building of a brand architecture strategy. This field was completely new to the author, although she had completed a fantastic course in college about strategic brand management. From the very beginning of the internship, all coworkers were trusting and empowering—especially the firm's managers who never underestimated the author's capabilities. Satisfactorily, they always gave her extremely challenging work to do from her very first day on the job. Also, the office staff was surprisingly helpful, and that atmosphere helped a great deal, making her feel at home.

First thinking of going to spend a summer working in China came about because of the well-known financial crisis affecting the international economy and the export-driven economic boom that was happening in China, which is now the world's largest exporter (People's Daily, 2010). As Albert Einstein (n.d.) said, "You have to learn the rules of the game and then play better than anyone else" (p. 1). After only a few days living in the Far East, Einstein's quote really became clear and enlightening. China is so much different from the Western world making it a challenging yet extremely fascinating reality. Western culture is extremely confident due to all of our previous accomplishments, but we must realize there is a world outside the West, and, therefore, we must start to open our eyes and minds.

Now, more than ever before, the Western world must embrace change and open our hearts to this new era, or we eventually will be left behind. It was easily perceivable everyday how dynamic the current Chinese economy is and how China is growing faster than any other place in the world. Too many people in the USA and Europe have not yet realized the direction in which the world is heading. Yes, China has a long way to go before being ready to compete in some

fields, but the country certainly has the means, so the Western world must be very careful in developing economic policies that ensure sustainability. There are numerous opportunities for sustainable development, and like a desert full of water underground, the West's leadership should have the intelligence and willingness to plant a seed so growth will grow and flow naturally.

During the two months of the internship, the author was benchmarking two multi-billion dollar companies. As a result, two PowerPoint presentations were created along with one analysis report. Afterwards, presentations to the professional staff the author's work eventually would be used to develop ideas for Foresight's local Chinese clients who would put them into the conclusive brand strategy projects in Chinese. The author's role as an international analyst for Foresight was mainly to benchmark the competition while keeping the focus on building a brand architecture strategy. This aspect was tremendously provocative, yet stimulating, and, honestly, it would be difficult to think of a better and more useful experience. The most interesting key point absorbed from Foresight's professionals is that today China is only one step short of reaching the pinnacle of global economies by branding its products in the right way. This principle, which is explained in a book written by Martin Roll (2010), Foresight's international brand strategist, also highlights how there is "a paradigm shift Asian brands need to undertake to unleash their potential" (p. ?).

Globally, Chinese products are seen as mediocre quality for a cheap price. This generalization applied to Japanese products in the 1950s and 1960s is all about changing this image, and then the day that is taken care of, the Western world will be floating in "dark waters." The future depends on how well the Chinese people play this card. They do not have experience in global marketing, consulting, or strategy. Just consider that when Foresight (founded in 2000) opened, there was not even a "branding" field in the registration system at the local government office. So now, if we think of the next economic era, could the losers of yesterday be the winners of today, and vice versa?

Being only 20 years old, it would be a curse for the author to go ahead and answer that question because one never knows what tomorrow brings and no one really can foresee the future. However, if to this local insight is added a much longer Western marketing experience, then China eventually will take off. Of course, as in every flight, there is a landing to consider too and some turbulence of course, but how far will China go? Considering that "The world's 100 most valuable brands now include 12 Chinese companies, five more than last year," it is then expected that, within the next five years, many more will be entering the list (Global Times, 2011, p. 1). How can we even compare China with the rest of the world? It can produce almost all the goods the West does, but more rapidly and efficiently. So, should we start pretending less and accept that change is occurring, or should we just keep acting as if the West is unbeatable?

Now, with that said, another concern is how could a Communist country with more than 1,336,000,000 inhabitants take off? (Central Intelligence Agency, 2011). Is there enough room for everyone? Is Wen Jiabao the right pilot? And, if everyone boards on that plane then won't the passengers open their eyes, and at that point, will a Communist pilot still be capable of dealing with such a situation? Also, does the pilot comprehend the global dynamics well enough to lead the Chinese community in the right direction? One other aspect to consider is, if the plane takes off with gas, without considering any clean energy and not caring about polluting the rest of the world, is that realistic and doable considering we will run out of fuel? Oil?

At a time when global sustainable growth is morphing from being a simple idea to being seen as a necessary step, this fact must be taken into consideration. It is easy to build a castle in the sand, but we must be realistic and admit it is likely, if we do so, to be destroyed by a major wave.

Meanwhile, analyzing milestones for international brands, China is now where the West stood more than 50 years ago. The Chinese have something new to offer, which people need, as we did back then with oil. The situation is that, at that time, the quantity of energy (oil) seemed limitless, and we were able to make enormous profits thanks to this new "big thing" that, unfortunately, now is produced at a high cost because of increase in demand, search costs, and limited resources. So, if we are heading to a new green era, how soon is it going to start? Is China still in time for takeoff, or should it implement new Green rules to avoid the risk of being affected while "in the air" and then cause a terrible "emergency landing"? Most importantly, is the new young generation, ready and capable of taking such responsibility—to fly a plane going that fast?

In China, food price pressure recently has been rising at a 13.4% rate, nonfood inflation at 3%, and the producer price index is 7.3%, compared to 2010 (Wang & Qing, 2011). The author even noticed while in China how, in only two months, prices had a significant increase, starting with taxi fares and including supermarket and meat prices. Since the general level of prices for goods and services is rising, and, subsequently, purchasing power is falling for many Chinese, will the state controlled banks' attempt to mitigate severe inflation succeed at keeping the increase in prices to a minimum?

If China continues to grow into the world's largest manufacturer and creates a consumer economy at the same time, the population will get richer and richer, and then who is going to work for low wages to keep those low production costs? The U.S. economy does not want to accept and adapt to change, although it started moving much of its manufacturing to China, giving the "competition" all the work and leaving our own people unemployed. What's next? Does the Western world have to go bankrupt to stop China's take off? Furthermore, China is really good at copying, but is that relevant? Does China have more to offer than lower production costs? Considering many major discoveries and research have occurred in the West, does China represent just a lower cost, or can something actually revolutionary start from there?

Prices in the Western world are too high, and our companies are paying people in the Far East, and especially in China, much less for their benefit and lower prices for consumers. Should we not consider this unethical behavior and start building a better future with sustainable global businesses? Is the U.S. "plane" too old to keep flying? Should we finally land and reboot manufacturing, while making sure we take off in a Green plane as soon as possible?

It is a challenging time. In the West, we all need to start thinking about the next move in a serious way, and the author's generation, in particular, needs to make sure the right strategy will be implemented.

It is time for the world to move responsibly to address the global challenges of sustainability. We all need to cooperate and work with one another. Globalization is here. Let us face it the right way.

Process of Finding the Job

Finding the position was fairly easy. The author started looking online at various Websites six months in advance and found many available opportunities. Then, she began applying, and

within a few weeks after applying, she received several e-mails. Afterwards, the author looked more carefully at every single detail of the programs and created a list with phone numbers and e-mails of those that actually could fit her requirements. There are unlimited opportunities online if you actually take the time to look for them.

The next step was for her to send a resume and motivational letter to the various prospects, and then in case they would have been interested, they were going to reply to the author's e-mails and set up a telephone interview. One agency did, so she had a telephone interview, which helped it decide if she could be the right candidate for an internship in China. After the interview, she was accepted, so a few weeks later, she was in Shanghai, in the middle of its financial district, right next to the World Financial Center, walking into an enormous building for a face-to-face job interview for a position as a non-paid intern at a consulting firm. The interview was very successful, and the partners were so impressed that they hired the author as an international analyst with paid expenses and salary.

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Maria Beatrice Giovanardi is a senior majoring in International Business at St. Thomas University, in Miami Gardens, Florida. She was born and raised in Italy. After moving to the United States at the age of 17, she became more and more passionate about traveling, and learning about new cultures and business. Her mission in life is to become the leader of an international organization that has a positive impact on people's lives.

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Student Corner

Value of Human Life:
Different Cultures, Different Values?

Eran Belo and Tomislava Savcheva

Abstract

Influenced by the story of Gilad Shalit and September 11th victims, this article discusses the everlasting argument of the value of human life in different cultures and from different perspectives. Upon examinations of basic legislations through eye-opening cases of cultural relativism, we raise questions and suggest our own opinion on the unbearable manner in which human life is perceived in the 21st Century.

Keywords

life, value, cultural relativism, universality, Gilad Shalit, human rights

The Value of Human Life

Veiled with unpredictability, full of ups-and-downs, efforts to pursue and achieve particular goals and endeavors, of struggles for self-realization, for survival, of beliefs, hopes, and dreams, human life has multiple aspects and perceptions. It is something incredible, unique, and sacred.

This article focuses on the issue of whether the evaluation of human life is culturally sensitive or universal, uniform, and common for all peoples all over the world. We raise the question of whether life has the same meaning and preciousness in different countries or whether diverse cultures, religions, political structures, customs, traditions, and worldviews of various societies lead to a difference in the understanding, valuation, and appreciation of the value of life.

From a legal point of view, the right to life is the most fundamental universal human right. There is an abundance of international, regional, and national legal instruments securing protections and envisioning sanctions for the taking of human life. As far as the international

legal framework is concerned, the United Nations *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (United Nations, 1948b) promulgates that "Everyone has the right to life, liberty, and security of person" (Article 3). The *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights* (United Nations, 1966) states that "Every human being has the inherent right to life. This right shall be protected by law. No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his life" (Article 6.1). The *Convention on the Prevention of Punishment of the Crime of Genocide* (United Nations, 1948a) prohibits the killing of members of a national, ethnic, racial, or religious group with the intent to destroy the group in whole or in part.

Furthermore, the right to life is related closely to the free exercise of many other human rights, enumerated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, such as the right not to be held in slavery and servitude; not to be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment; to found a family; to own property; to work, rest, and leisure; to education; to the freedom of opinion and expression; of conscience and religion; and to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of oneself and family, including food, clothing, housing, medical care, and necessary social services. One of our concerns is that countries do not respect and ensure all these rights in the same way. Some countries not only completely fail to fulfill but also escape from responsibility and, moreover, grossly violate their obligations according to international standards.

Another area is the fact that the right to life is not absolute and inviolable, and as a result, we are deeply concerned by the implications and developments that could arise from this. There are numerous situations in which states may deprive or have the power to decide upon individuals' lives, for which human rights law does not raise an objection, completely leaving the discretion to the national authorities—situations that often raise great ethical dilemmas and questions. This brings us to the opinion that by giving countries such a great freedom, a certain gap opens in international law, a gap allowing for difference in interpretation and leading to failure in securing universality in the implementation of this right.

In our view, the cultural relativism in the appreciation of the value of life is revealed in many situations: from the cultural and religious norms of some countries, imposing different roles and values for the life of women, as opposed to men, depriving them of many basic rights, such as Saudi Arabia, in which women do not have the right to vote and drive (Tsavkko, 2011); from the proneness of some states to use capital punishment as a sentence, in contrast to others that believe this is the greatest violation of human rights; and from ancient indigenous communities, which used to perform the cultural practices of sacrificing human life to appease their gods to practices of female genital mutilation, performed in African countries such as Ethiopia, Sudan, and Somalia, which not only endanger the life of women and their future children but also rob them of the opportunity to live a normal dignified human life. More extreme are heinous state policies including ethnic cleansing actions and conducting crimes against humanity, the most terrible crime being genocide, such as the Holocaust – the extermination of six million Europeans Jews and millions of others by Nazi Germany during World War II, 1939-1945 (Hauptman & Motin, 1998); Srebrenica – the massacre of more than 8,000 Bosnians during the Bosnian war in 1995 (Jones, 2004); and Rwanda – the 1994 mass murder of approximately 800,000 Rwandans in their own nation (Taylor, 1994). Moreover, states and terrorist organizations tolerate and rely on victories through the use of suicide bombers, perceiving human life as just a tool for achieving particular goals, as well as probably the most infamous and shameful state policies of totally disregarding the value of life, exploiting little children for military purposes, which was the practice in Sierra Leone, Chad, Code d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo, etc.

We focus specifically on a very recent case, the story of Gilad Shalit, an Israeli soldier who had been abducted by Hamas militants in a cross-border raid as part of the ongoing war in the region. After his more than five years in captivity, the Israeli government and Hamas (the Palestinian political party that governs the Gaza Strip) reached an agreement to exchange Shalit for 1,027 Palestinians and Israeli Arab prisoners (Bryen, 2011). Having in mind the ethos of the Israeli army always to try to bring home every citizen soldier, dead or alive, the state of Israel shows an incredible appreciation of the value of life for a single person. In contrast, the Palestinian state seems to have quite a different interpretation and evaluation of life for its citizen who explodes him- or herself on an Israeli bus or in a crowded place with the intent to hurt as many Israelis as possible and who would be viewed as a hero and "freedom warrior" in his country.

How can we put on the scale one person as opposed to 1,027? How can we evaluate a human life in numbers? How can we calculate it in other human lives? Is the value of life in one country, religion, or culture greater than in another? Are some human beings more valuable, more "expensive" than others? How do we come to such sad, paradoxical situations? In this article, we do not try to pick a side or provide the formula for assessing the value of life; we just try to make a modest effort to point out the urgent need for a universal legislation that would put things in order and prevent situations in which governments are bargaining with their enemies and trading in humans.

We also see extreme variations in the estimates of the "economic value" of life. For example, the "life cost" of some September 11th victims was assessed unequally by calculating different amounts of public compensation for each victim (Feinberg, 2008). The U.S. system of justice is based on the concept that compensation for death has to be related to the financial circumstances of each victim, and as a result, pursuant to the requirements of the respective legislation, more money was given to the families of stockbrokers, bankers, and bond traders than to the relatives of waiters, firemen, police officers, and soldiers. We ask ourselves how one can assess another in terms of currency. What is an individual's life worth? How much does it cost? Do not the lives of human beings have equal value? Should not the law declare all life should be treated equally?

To conclude, it is obvious that different countries evaluate life in different ways applying different moral and ethical considerations, and that even though in the modern era we talk about universality of human rights and its applications, we still witness constant expressions of cultural relativism. Being deeply concerned that the value of life in the 21st Century has different meanings for different societies, we believe there is room to put human life above the law, above all the national peculiarities and differences, and to strive to establish a world public order based on human dignity, in which the value of life of all human beings "with no distinction of any kind such as race, color, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status" (United Nations, 1948b, n.p.) is the most precious thing.

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Reflection

Bridging the Gap between Middle School and University through Partnership: A Reflection

Katsia M. Cadeau

Abstract

This article addresses the attitudes of students and stakeholders regarding the initiative to create a collaborative partnership to expose urban students to university life. The results reflect positive changes in student mindset on the possibility of their attending college and even majoring in the field of science.

Keywords

attitudes, partnership, stakeholders, urban, middle school, university, public school partnership

Introduction

Recently, I wrote a poem entitled *What is Partnership?* The last stanza states the following.

Partnership is not just the teacher,
but the preacher.
Partnership is not just the professor,
but the administrator.
Partnership is not just the secretary,
but a community.
What is partnership? It is you and me.

My goal was to initiate a partnership with all stakeholders. In order to collaborate with the K-12 sector, St. Thomas University invited Dr. Rudy Crew, the former superintendent of Miami-Dade County Public Schools, the fourth largest school district in the United States, to

speak to its students, faculty, staff, and administrators. This way, we were able to create a dialogue between the K-12 schools on the needs and progress of the students. Interacting with each other in the workplace and understanding the community is important because parents are involved daily in some aspects of school decisions.

I believe bringing the former superintendent to the university was a community effort in bridging the gap that exists between K-12 schools and colleges. The beginning of a partnership then was established between St. Thomas University (STU) and Miami-Dade County Public Schools (M-DCPS). Gibson and Zellmer-Bruhn (2001) described a collaborative partnership as a grouping of people who are willing to develop a relationship to interact with each other as a team to solve problems in an organization.

The Partnership

In November 2009, the Institute for Education at St. Thomas University took the initiative in continuing that partnership by hosting a biyearly "Stakeholders' Dinner" in order to more intimately share its ideology with various administrators and community leaders. The leaders involved were teachers, students, parents, social workers, and politicians from Miami-Dade, Broward, and Palm Beach Counties. The leaders spoke of their needs on how they would like to see the presence of universities in the schools. The keynote speaker was Wilbert Tee Hollaway, school board member, who spoke to the students and the community stakeholders on preparing preservice teachers through collaboration. The goal of hosting this stakeholders' dinner was to reach out to the community to market our education program, meet our faculty from the Institute for Education, and, at the same time, hear their needs. The stakeholder dinner allowed us to network with the people in the community. While holding conversations with people at this event, Ruth Doriscar Cook, Miami-Dade County Public Schools social worker, extended an invitation to me to be the keynote speaker at Westview Middle School to motivate the students who made the Principal's Honor Roll.

After my speech at Westview Middle School, Ron Butler, assistant principal, raised a major need for obtaining a partnership and creating a bridge between middle schools and colleges. At first, I was a little apprehensive because one of our department's other goals was to recruit and to reach out to high school students, preferably juniors and seniors. He said that, "By the time the students reach high school, we've already lost them." We need to start planting that seed in seventh and eighth graders, especially students from low socioeconomic homes where they will be first-generation graduates from high school. Mr. Butler wanted to use this program as a prevention method from negative influences, instead of struggling with an intervention method on the high school level that may be unsuccessful and too late in their lives.

In the second week of January 2010, Mr. Butler contacted me regarding bringing 50 middle school students to college for five weeks. As a former K-12 teacher with 15 years of experience with Miami-Dade County Public Schools, my teacher instinct took over, and I approached my department chair, Fr. Edward Blackwell, about this project. Fr. Blackwell spoke to the Dean of School of Leadership Studies and then held a meeting with Mr. Butler and Dean Edward Ajar, the interim dean of School of Science, to discuss the project and proposal. The Provost later approved the project, and I was appointed as the overseer of this new initiative. This partnership benefited not only our department but also the entire university, 50 middle school students from Westview Middle School, and a few preservice teachers from our education

program. According to Walker-Dalhouse, Sanders, and Dalhouse (2009), school districts and universities benefit from partnerships that inform preservice teachers about the students they will teach and provide opportunities to foster an understanding of the learning potential of the students. Learning about other viewpoints and about each other also identified benefits such as compassion, acceptance, and classroom instruction. This partnership permitted the members of Future Teachers of America, an STU Education Club, to participate just through observation and clinical experience.

Background Information on Westview Middle School

Westview Middle School is located in the heart of Miami, where several strip clubs, drug dealers, and rundown apartments are located. Miami-Dade Census information (MDCPS, 2009) reports that Westview's population consists of 6,264 persons: 5,015 are Black, 867 are Hispanic, 261 are White, and 121 are inside the Urban Development Boundary. Westview Middle School demographic ethnic groups consisted of 81% Black, 19% Hispanic, 3% Indian, and 4% multi-racial (MDCPS, 2009). According to the Miami-Dade County Public Schools climate survey, only 10% of the parents strongly believed the school maintained high academic standards (MDCPS, 2009); whereas, according to the social worker and counselors, only 20% of the parents were actively involved in their children's education. Additionally, a large percentage of the Black students were from Haiti (Cook, 2010). Collaborating with parents is a goal the school was working to improve. Cordry and Wilson (2004) confirmed the obvious—that increased parental involvement was the hope of every educator. The U.S. family is the rock on which a solid education can be built. Cordry and Wilson elaborated on the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 and reported that some parents are not choosing to increase their participation in their children's learning.

According to Florida Grades and yearly accountability, Westview increased a letter grade from a "D" to "C"; Westview did not make adequate yearly progress for the 2009 school year (Florida Department of Education, 2008-2009). Unfortunately, for the school year 2009-2010, the school grade worsened from a "C" to a "D" and did not meet Academic Yearly Progress.

Westview Goes to College

The "Westview Goes to College" project began on April 15, 2010, and ended in mid-May 2010. Before the students began the program, I took a poll by asking various questions about their beliefs on education and about their goals. One major question was, "How many of you want to go to college?" Only 50% of the students wanted to go to college. Thirty percent of the students' siblings were in college, and 10% of the students' parents completed college. Five professors from two departments volunteered. Three were English professors: Dr. James Conley, assistant dean of Biscayne College, taught literature short stories. Dr. Kevin Dvorak, an assistant professor at Biscayne College, taught writing. Dr. Rafael Montes, an associate professor at Biscayne College, taught poetry and how rap music is related to literature. Several professors from the School of Science, Technology, and Engineering Management also taught: Dr. Pilar Maul, an assistant professor, elaborated on the Science Method Process and hands-on experiences in the laboratory. Dr. David Quesada, an associate professor, concentrated on the technology portion of science. Twenty-five of the 50 students attended science class every Friday, and the other 25, a

Literature class. During the last week of the project, I hosted an awards ceremony to celebrate the students' achievement and this new partnership. At the end of the project, the students were motivated to learn and looked forward to going to college. We asked, "How many students wanted to go to college after graduating high school?" More than 80% of the students raised their hands showing interest in going to college after graduating from high school.

Recommendations for Future Research

Future research and collaboration are needed to expose middle school students in the urban schools to university life. Future research should be conducted to examine the impact of exposing middle school refugee students and using preservice teachers as mentors and tutors. This research should provide greater insights into ways educators can better bridge the gap that exists between universities and K-12 sectors. All stakeholders involved wanted to continue the program yearly. I believe STU would continue this form of partnership next year; however, 25 of the students will be going to high school, thus next year would be a different group of students. Nevertheless, this project sparked new goals for Dr. Montes and this author. Dr. Montes suggested we choose five students in the program and conduct long-term research. We are planning to follow the students' lives and progress until they graduate from college.

Conclusion

Once stakeholders have set goals and notice the similarities that exist between K-12 and higher education, we then could embark on educating and bridging the gap between middle school students and college. Although the age gap is rather broad, as educators we should light a candle to brighten the way for students to see the bridge that is ahead of them. We, as educators, must put more effort into exposing students to a different environment than what they are used to, helping them establish goals, and most importantly, both the student and educator must obtain high expectations just like Mormons, who begin teaching their children at a young age about their beliefs and have them start spreading the word. We, as educators, should collaborate and start showing, teaching, and motivating students who come from at-risk backgrounds that there is a possibility of their going to college. Holm and Horn (2003) indicated that knowledge and understanding of the content of the disciplines and of the instructional strategies that can be used to create powerful learning experiences must involve a collaborative approach with colleagues, families, and communities.

We should not let the streets be the first to educate our students, but we should take the initiative as a team in inspiring them to set their vision toward college and beyond their neighborhood. All stakeholders involved have created a partnership to benefit students educationally. St. Thomas University is a part of the same community as Westview Middle School; we are less than five miles way from the school. Therefore, the staff and preservice teachers plan to take an aggressive approach in positively influencing the middle school students in our community.

For the past two years, our preprofessional teachers (students who are majoring in education) and the reading professor, Dr. Massey founded a Clinical Reading program at Dr. Ingram Elementary School in Opa-locka, Florida. The principal, Dr. Susan McEichin, works in collaboration with St. Thomas University faculty and students to make sure this program

continues because our students work in small groups to make sure the low achieving students receive the extra help they are lacking at home.

      This year, Dr. Katsia Cadeau-Stephenson, collaborated with Mr. Sands, the principal of Nathan B. Young Elementary. The goal is to have St. Thomas education major students become Mathematics Interventionists at the elementary school. Students were trained in Go Math, the new math program-curriculum used in South Florida's public schools. The preprofessional students are excited about this newly innovative partnership, "The Math Clinic," and they look forward to working with both the low and high math achievers in small groups.

      In order to obtain a partnership, both parties must have the same goals. Both St. Thomas University and the school system are in the "education" business, educating children for tomorrow. The goal as partners should enable students to see beyond their neighborhood, but to be able to see the world globally. In addition, this partnership should help students set higher standards in eventually going to college once graduated from high school.

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Book Review

Book Details

Roubini, N., & Mihm, S. (2011). *Crisis economics: A crash course in the future of finance*. New York: Penguin Press, 368 pages, paperback, $17, ISBN 9780143119630.

Reviewer

Lloyd Mitchell, M.B.A., C.P.A.

Synopsis and Evaluation

While undertaking a comprehensive review of numerous economic gurus of history, Roubini and Mihm refuse to throw valid historical economic perspectives away, rather molding the best ideas of each into a coherent perspective. Roubini and Mihm do not fall into any particular "economic camp" and reflect a pragmatic, if sometimes radical, perspective. The authors present a comprehensive review of events surrounding the financial crises of 2007 and 2008 while presenting their ideas for remediation. According to Roubini and Mihm, "…financial innovation, failures of corporate governance, easy monetary policy, failures of government, and the shadow banking system – contributed to the onset of the crisis" (p. 80). They advocate that deregulation laid the groundwork for the financial innovations to follow.

Roubini and Mihm write, "The most notable casualty was the Glass-Steagall Act of 1933. Part of that landmark legislation had created a firewall between commercial banks (which took deposits and made loans) and investment banks (which underwrote, bought, and sold securities)" (p. 74). "Financial innovation" caused by the natural evolution of financial services, some unnecessary unraveling of regulations, and lax governmental oversight set the stage for the financial collapse: "Credit default swaps, which mushroomed to reach a notional value of over $60 trillion by 2008…" (p. 75). The authors lament the creation of such an extensive credit default swap market, a market that exceeded four times the gross national product of the United States. The entities responsible for bond ratings also contributed to the collapse.

The rating agencies of Moody's, Fitch, and Standard & Poor's "should have sounded the alarm" according to Roubini and Mihm (p. 66). The agencies clearly did not sound the alarm; rather, they succumbed to incentives to profits. The authors point out that "On the eve of the crisis, the ratings firms made upwards of half their profits from handing out AAA ratings, many of which were undeserved, to exotic structured finance products" (p. 66). The government's actions (or inactions) also contributed to the collapse.

Roubini and Mihm quoted former Federal Reserve Chairman William McChesney Martin, Jr., as stating that the duty of the central banker was to "take away the punch bowl just as the party gets going" (p. 73). In the meantime, the Federal Reserve was providing excess liquidity. The authors stated, "The result was the housing and mortgage bubble. By pumping vast quantities of easy money into the economy and keeping it there for too long, Greenspan muted the effect of one bubble's collapse by inflating an entirely new one" (p. 72). Roubini and Mihm wrote, "Regulators turned a blind eye to the rise of a new shadow banking system that made the entire financial system dangerously fragile and prone to collapse" (p. 62). Unfortunately, this new financial evolution created an unregulated shadow banking system that would help to precipitate the crisis. "In 2006-8 it was not simply subprime securities that collapsed in value; the entire edifice of the world's financial system was shaken" (p. 62). "Regulators and supervisors…failed to do their jobs" (p. 269). Subsequently, a government bailout of the financial system was handled by placing the burden on the public.

"Simply put, moral hazard is someone's willingness to take risks–particularly excessive risks–that he [or she] would normally avoid, simply because he [or she] knows someone else will shoulder whatever negative consequences follow if not bail out those who took those risks" (p. 68). Government must vigilantly assist the economy to avoid "moral hazard," both public and private. So far, we have succeeded in avoiding financial collapse at the cost of an enormous "moral hazard." The bailout of the financial system may have forestalled a natural consequence of a financial crises: the gleaning of the weak players from the economy.

> Creative destruction…in Schumpeter's worldview, capitalism consists of waves of innovation in prosperous times, followed by a brutal winnowing in times of depression. This winnowing is to be neither avoided nor minimized: It is a painful but positive adjustment, whose survivors will create a new economic order. (p. 54)

A healthy economy, in the authors' view, embraces necessary Keynesian resuscitation in the short run with the economy's need to winnow weaker players for the long run. The causes of the financial crises were manifold as are the authors suggested reforms (Bernstein, 2010).

Roubini and Mihm believe there is a need for targeted regulation (or reregulation) including reassessment of the repeal of the Glass-Steagall Act. The authors believe Credit Default Swaps (CDS), which is an immense market, should be eliminated. The authors also believe entities, if "too big to fail," are also too big to exist, and should be broken up by government action. The authors believe the incentives within investment banking, the shadow banking system, the rating agencies among others, need deep structural reforms. Altogether, the authors believe in sweeping reforms: radical remedies for a radically flawed financial system. Roubini has been called "Dr. Doom," and hopefully he is not just simply "Dr. Right."

In the Author's Own Words

"But the recent disaster was no freak event. It was probable. It was even predictable, because financial crises generally follow the same script over and over again" (p. 16). Roubini was one of only a handful of economists who predicted the financial crises, and as such, we should seriously consider heeding his words. For the reader who isn't afraid of a robust, quick tour of

economic history, a nuanced analysis of the financial crises, and a "no holds barred" plan for economic salvation, Roubini and Mihn's book is a must read.

Reviewer's Details

Lloyd Mitchell's research interests include investments, corporate finance, and managerial and financial accounting. He currently serves as Chairperson of the Department of Business Administration at the St. Thomas University School of Business.

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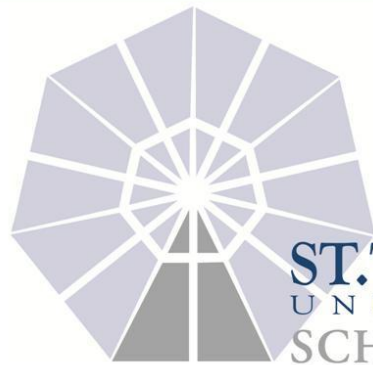
Book Review

Book Details

Lindstrom, M. (2011). *Brandwashed: Tricks companies use to manipulate our minds and persuade us to buy.* Crown Business, 291 pages, hardcover, $25, ISBN 978-0-385-53173-3.

Reviewer

Hagai Gringarten, A.B.D.

Synopsis and Evaluation

Martin Lindstrom is chairman and founder of Buyology, Inc., author of six major branding bestsellers, and adviser to global consumer companies such as Pepsico, Procter & Gamble, Nokia, Microsoft, and Disney. Voted one of the world's 100 most influential people of 2009 by *Time* magazine, Martin Lindstrom is considered a marketing "tour de force" among global branding experts. In his latest book *Brandwashed: Tricks companies use to manipulate our minds and persuade us to buy*, Lindstrom (2011) exposes the sophisticated techniques today's global consumer product giants use to persuade us to buy. He provides us with an insider's look at how companies we know and trust conspire to manipulate consumer behavior. According to Lindstrom, "everything on earth" is a brand and a form of identification, and companies exploit the immense knowledge they acquire about us, the consumers, to sell their brands through successful marketing campaigns.

In *Brandwashed*, readers will learn how marketers try to develop our preferences for specific tastes and flavors when we are still in the womb, while catering to pregnant women, and continue to shape our brand preferences from childhood throughout adulthood. We learn that Shell Oil has a long-standing agreement with LEGO to affix the Shell label to their toys, helping imprint their logo and brand in young minds. We also learn how companies use scares such as the swine flu or SARS (Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome) to scare us into spending billions of dollars on overpriced germ killers. According to Lindstrom, fear "is a powerful persuader, and you'd better believe that marketers and advertisers know it and aren't afraid to exploit it to the fullest" (p. 34).

Lindstrom takes us behind the scene where grocery brands try diligently to "alter our perception of everything from freshness to value or even quality" (p. 49). Stores such as Whole Foods put fresh flowers at the entrance in order to create a "fresh" image in the mind of consumers; supermarkets spray vegetables with water as a symbol of purity and freshness.

We also learn how marketers use the power of craving to create addictive products such as lip balms, snacks, and sodas by spiking their products "with addictive quantities of habit forming substances like MSG, caffeine, corn syrup, and sugar" (p. 66).

The reader also learns how Unilever's Axe (deodorant brand) used clever marketing to probe and plug into consumers sexual fantasies and in the process became a major global brand, or how, due to upsurge in male vanity, retailers make clothes bigger so men think they fit into a smaller size. A recent study found 36-inch waist pants size ranging in size from 37 to 41 inches. Lindstrom brings many other interesting anecdotes from branding royalty, celebrity marketing to how marketers influence consumers' behavior with the type of music they play in stores.

Lindstrom asserts that marketers are very much aware of our collective consciousness of our peers, friends, and family, and "when it comes to things we buy, what other people think matters" (p. 113). According to Lindstrom, the most powerful persuader of all is our friends, neighbors, and colleagues, and peer-pressure advertising such as that on Facebook works wonders.

Brandwashed is an insider account that exposes the very latest marketing techniques consumer companies use to influence our behavior. It is packed with personal and interesting stories from the consumer product industry and the branding world. Lindstrom use real life anecdotes, while revealing some of the best-kept secrets of the marketing world. Thought provoking and smart, this book is entertaining and educating, empowering readers to become informed and smarter consumers and "make smarter, sounder, more informed decisions about what we're buying and why" (p. 8). In essence, Lindstrom making readers "brand smart."

In the Author's Own Words

"As consumers, we may think that brands own us-but in reality it's the other way around. So the good news I want to leave you with is this: In our hyperconnected world of Twitter and YouTube and WikiLeaks – a world in which a single trick or deception or secret can be immediately broadcast to the world with a click of a mouse – the consumer is more empowered than ever. As result, brands of the future simply must be transparent and live up to their promises. Trust me..., any brand that doesn't will be instantly and painfully exposed and reviled. That, in the end, is what this book is all about" (p. 252).

Reviewer's Details

Hagai Gringarten's doctoral research is in Global Leadership with a specialization in Branding. His research interest includes branding, international business, and marketing. He has authored a non-fiction bestselling book *Over a Cup of Coffee* (Shiram Shachar, 2000). He also pursued postgraduate studies at Harvard Graduate School of Business and the Kellogg School of Management. He currently teaches branding, marketing, and other business courses at St. Thomas University, and serves as the Editor-in-Chief of the *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research.*

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