



Cambridge
College

ILP

Handbook

Independent Learning Project

George Flynn

Editors:

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Eugenie Johnston

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School of Education

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Cambridge
College

Publications

*"Clear thinking, active discussion, and excellent writing are all necessary for intellectual freedom,
and... these require hard work."*

—Adrienne Rich

Purpose of this ILP Handbook

The Cambridge College Independent Learning Project (ILP) Handbook provides guidance for professional seminar leaders and candidates in the basic structure of educational inquiry. Educational research is the systematic collection and analysis of information (data) in order to develop valid general descriptions, predictions, interventions, and explanations relating to various aspects of education.

Cambridge College currently offers three forms of Independent Learning Project – the thesis, the professional project (teacher's manual or curriculum guide), and the creative project. Graduate students at Cambridge College will select the type of ILP based on their background and knowledge of research. Because many graduate candidates at Cambridge College have limited experience in conducting research, the "professional project" may be the best choice for many candidates. As practicing professionals in the field of education, most value will be gained by having

candidates collect and analyze data for the purpose of developing strategies, interventions, guides, and other forms of professional products that will add knowledge to the field of education and be useful for other practitioners. Schools and classrooms are becoming more inclusive, and as the student body becomes more diverse, educators will find great value in the research the candidates are carrying out and the guides, interventions, strategies, and plans that they create.

This handbook is intended to guide professional seminar leaders and candidates through the ILP process using the most current knowledge available for research design and methodologies. Candidates will be guided by the sample literature review, methods section, and body included in this handbook. Special note should be taken of the "Human Participant Approval" form, since some candidates will involve protected populations in their research.



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Acknowledgements

The Independent Learning Project (ILP) Handbook is designed to assist professional seminar leaders and candidates in completing the research portion of their program. The handbook defines research and research methodology to be used by candidates in the preparation of the ILP. There are excellent examples of each section of the ILP.

Appreciation is extended to the administrators, faculty and staff of Cambridge College who have assisted with the development of this Independent Learning Project Handbook.

The handbook was revised under the leadership of Professors George Flynn and Dr. Jo-Ann Testaverde.

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This is an Independent Learning Project (ILP) Handbook

For which copyright subsists

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GETTING STARTED

Research

Research today is viewed as a *process* and researchers engage in certain steps as they carry out their investigations. Research has a beginning and an ending, but the steps in between do not necessarily occur in a linear fashion or orderly process. Investigators move back and forth among the steps in a cyclical manner. Research usually begins with an issue or a problem that needs to be investigated and ends with a written report, or in the case of the Independent Learning Project, in a guide or a curriculum project that can be used by others and is valuable to the field.

Creswell (2002) defines research as follows:

Research is cyclical process of steps that typically begins with identifying a research problem or issue of study. It then involves reviewing the literature, specifying a purpose for the study, collecting and analyzing data, and forming an interpretation of the information. This process culminates in a report, disseminated to audiences, that is evaluated and used in the educational community (p. 8).

Research may also be thought of as a transformative process in that scientific methods are used to transform ideas, hunches, and questions into scientific knowledge. The researcher begins with thoughts, guesses, questions, and ideas; s/he applies specialized methods and techniques to this material to arrive at a finished product—scientific knowledge that has value to the educational community.

Neuman (2003), suggests that social research involves learning something new about the social world. “To do this, a researcher needs to think logically, follow rules, and repeat steps over and over. A researcher combines theories or ideas with facts in a systematic way and uses his or her imagination and creativity. He or she learns to organize and plan carefully and to select the appropriate techniques to address a question. A researcher must

also treat the people in a study in ethical and moral ways. In addition, a researcher must communicate to others clearly” (p. 2).

Why Research is Important

Many practitioners in the social sciences do not have a clear understanding or appreciation of research although they read and use research regularly. In educational settings principals, social workers, school psychologists, teachers, teaching assistants, school committee members, students, and parents use and read research as part of their daily practice. (They become better informed, improve practice, and participate in policy development.) Creswell (2002) suggests that reading and applying research to study educational issues is dependent on valuing it and understanding its potential contribution in four important areas:

Adding knowledge about educational issues – adding to knowledge means that educators undertake research in order to contribute to existing information about issues.

Improving practice – armed with research results, teachers or other educators become more effective professionals and their effectiveness translates into better learning for students.

Informing important policy issues – research also creates conversations about important issues so educational concerns can be debated by policy makers.

Building student research skills – on a personal level, the process of research helps individuals develop conceptual, writing, organizing, and presenting skills (p. 3).

The Purpose of Educational Research

Educational research can be defined as the systematic collection and analysis of information (data) in order to develop valid, generalizable descriptions, predictions, interventions, and explanations relating to various aspects of education. However, educational research is not a unified process and the approach to research tends to be based on the researcher's view of the nature of knowledge (Creswell, 2002).

Quantitative vs qualitative research – Some researchers believe that aspects of the environment in which humans live have an objective reality, meaning that they exist independently of the individuals who created them, and that this real world out there is available for study through scientific means (quantitative research). Other researchers believe that aspects of the human environment are constructed by the individuals who participate in that environment and that there is no social reality apart from the meanings that individuals construct for them (qualitative research). These are very different world views and lead to very different approaches to research.

The following table compares the two approaches to research:

Quantitative researchers	Qualitative researchers
<p>Assume an objective social reality.</p> <p>Assume that social reality is relatively constant across time and settings.</p> <p>View causal relationships among social phenomena from a mechanistic perspective.</p> <p>Take an objective, detached stance toward research participants and their setting.</p> <p>Study populations or samples that represent populations.</p> <p>Study behavior and other observable phenomena.</p> <p>Study human behavior in natural or contrived settings.</p> <p>Analyze social reality into variables.</p> <p>Use preconceived concepts and theories to determine what data will be collected.</p> <p>Generate numerical data to represent the social environment.</p> <p>Use statistical methods to analyze data.</p> <p>Use statistical inference procedures to generalize findings from a sample to a defined population.</p> <p>Prepare impersonal, objective reports of research findings.</p>	<p>Assume that social reality is constructed by the participants in it.</p> <p>Assume that social reality is continuously constructed in local situations.</p> <p>Assign human intentions a major role in explaining causal relationships among social phenomena.</p> <p>Become personally involved with research participants, to the point of sharing perspectives and assuming a caring attitude.</p> <p>Study cases.</p> <p>Study the meanings that individuals create and other internal phenomena.</p> <p>Study human actions in natural settings.</p> <p>Make holistic observations of the total context within which social action occurs.</p> <p>Discover concepts and theories after data have been collected.</p> <p>Generate verbal and pictorial data to represent the social environment.</p> <p>Use analytic induction to analyze data.</p> <p>Generalize case findings by searching for other similar cases.</p> <p>Prepare reports that reflect researchers' interpretations of the data and an awareness that readers will form their own interpretations from what is reported.</p>

Source. Table 1.3 on p. 30 in: Gall, M.D., Borg, W.R., & Gall, J.P. (1996). *Educational research: an introduction* (6th ed.) White Plains, NY: Longman.

Many students at Cambridge College have limited backgrounds and experiences in research design, methodology, data analysis, and interpretation. Therefore, they will more likely pursue a qualitative approach to their research, which will in most cases, be designed to lead to a professional project, related to areas where they do have backgrounds and experience.

The purpose of the Independent Learning Project, as research, is to add to the existing body of knowledge about educational issues, to improve educational practice by developing a professional project that can be used by practitioners, to improve their practice or to inform policy development, and to develop research skills in the candidates.

Your Faculty Advisor & Professional Seminar

Your professional seminar ("pro-sem") leader will be your faculty advisor throughout the ILP process, monitoring and reviewing your progress. He or she will discuss your professional and personal goals in conference in an effort to help you identify incomplete or unresolved issues that might be addressed in your ILP. Your faculty advisor will help you select a topic of realistic scope. S/he is expected to provide support during the ILP process, help you conquer writing blocks, address insecurity, and complete your ILP in the allotted time. The ILP represents the culmination of your graduate experience. Your faculty advisor will help you identify new areas for learning and growth beyond Cambridge College.

If your topic is highly specialized and falls outside your advisor's area of expertise, s/he may ask other faculty members to read portions of your ILP. Your ILP may also be reviewed by the dean or assistant dean as part of Cambridge College's commitment to quality control. Ultimately, your faculty advisor will be responsible for judging the quality of your ILP and awarding academic credit.

Your professional seminar leader will devote class time to the ILP process, allowing you to share resources, questions, and ideas with other students, and to provide a sense of others' processes.

The Independent Learning Project

The Independent Learning Project is a comprehensive project that you are required to complete as part of your master's degree program at Cambridge College. It is related to your learning experience in the graduate program, your professional experience as an educator, and your professional development interests.

The ILP represents a tangible, symbolic culmination of your Cambridge College learning experiences. It is a demonstration of your ability to apply what you have learned in courses, seminars, and workshops to your professional work in the field of education. An ILP is your "finest hour" at Cambridge College, a marriage of theory and practice, original thought, and focused research.

In this handbook, the terms *Independent Learning Project*, *Project*, and *ILP*, are used synonymously: the whole of the comprehensive project described in this handbook.

Types of ILPs

Your Independent Learning Project will take one of three forms: a professional project, a research-type project, or a creative project. These three projects are briefly described below. Your faculty advisor will help you choose the most appropriate ILP type to meet your educational and professional goals.

Professional Project: Teacher's Manual or Curriculum Guide

The professional project involves the application of other people's published research to your professional work in education. You will synthesize knowledge from the field with your own expertise to create a handbook or guide that others could easily use. This handbook/guide is something that could easily stand alone. However, your work will be embedded in your ILP. Examples of professional projects include curriculums for incorporating newly established state learning standards, teaching strategies for working with challenging populations, or classroom approaches for conveying old material in a new way. Community outreach programs or guidelines for using new technology are also acceptable professional projects.

Research Project

For the research-type ILP, you will formulate an original research question and design a study to help you answer this question. You will identify the type(s) of data you need to collect in order to answer your question, establish a method and a timeline for collecting that data, determine a means of analyzing the data, and interpret the data. Your faculty advisor will help you with each of these steps.

Creative Project

Some candidates choose a creative project as their ILP. For instance, some candidates create a project in the fine or performing arts, such as writing a play or giving a recital. Teachers of small children may write and illustrate children's books. Middle and high school teachers may write one-act plays or historical narratives. Like the professional project, the creative project will include a stand-alone element that is embedded within the project.

Elements of the ILP

All types of ILPs contain many elements in common:

- This checklist gives the elements in the order that they should appear in your final project. However, you should not write your ILP in this order.
- Use this checklist to check off sections as you complete them.
- Later in this handbook are detailed explanations of the ILP elements, along with some helpful guidelines for getting them completed.
- Terms from the American Psychological Association (APA) 5th Edition are given for reference.

CHAPTER OR ELEMENT	approximate number of pages
Preliminary Pages	
☀ Title Page	1 page
☀ Copyright Page (i)	1 page
☀ Acknowledgements (ii)	1 page
☀ Abstract Statement (iii)	1 page
☀ Table of Contents (iv)	1 page
Chapter 1	
☀ Introduction (optional)	4-6 pages
☀ Problem Statement	1-2 pages
☀ Rationale	1/2-1 page
☀ Anticipated Outcomes	1/2-1 page
☀ Research Question	a sentence
Chapter 2	
☀ Literature Review	15-20 pages
Chapter 3	
☀ Methods	2-3 pages
Chapter 4 Body	
☀ Research project	
1) Results & discussion of research	15-20 pages
2) Summary, conclusions & Implications	2-3 pages
And/OR	
☀ Professional or creative project	
1) Statement of learning	2-3 pages
2) Handbook or guide you've written (place at end of your ILP, after references & appendixes).	15-20 pages
Closing Pages	
☀ References	
☀ Appendixes (if any)	

Time Line

Pacing and due dates vary among programs and faculty advisors. The following gives you a typical timeline for writing an ILP at Cambridge College.

Two-term time line — During the first Pro Sem, your faculty advisor will present general expectations about the ILP, including structure and format. You will select a topic. Once you identify resources and submit a proposal to your faculty advisor, he or she will provide comments and suggestions to help you get started with the writing process. The expectation is that you will complete Chapter I at the end of Pro Sem I.

In the second Pro Sem, you will submit a first draft of your ILP for review by your faculty advisor. With his or her help, you will revise and resubmit your ILP until your faculty advisor approves it as your final draft. You will then submit two bound copies of the final ILP for credit.

Three-term or longer time line – Some programs require completion of the ILP in the third or fourth Pro Sem. Ask your faculty advisor for a specific timeline.



Steps in the Research Process


The research process requires a series of steps. Researchers use different language to describe the steps, but generally the steps are as follows:

- Articulate a theory (some researchers skip this step and go straight to identifying a research problem).
- Identify a topic or research problem (write as a working title).
- Specify a purpose for the research (the purpose may change significantly as the literature review is carried out).
- Review the literature.
- Collect data.
- Analyze and interpret the data.
- Write your ILP.

It is important to emphasize that research is an interactive process that will require constantly going back and refining sections of your ILP as a result of new discoveries.

ILP Steps & Process

Preliminary Steps 	ILP Proposal 
<p>1 Read this ILP handbook and familiarize yourself with the project and the process. Ask your seminar leader for any variations from the expectations, standards, or terminology given in this ILP Handbook.</p> <p>2 Start an ILP journal and use it throughout the process. Record your ideas about your project, and your hopes and fears. It is a useful place to gather information related to your project. If you have difficulty writing, start small. Make a commitment to write in your journal for five minutes in the morning when you wake up, or just before you go to bed. A journal can become your friend through the process. Read through your journal regularly to remind yourself of your progress.</p> <p>3 Start browsing through academic literature on interesting topics in your area of education. Look at varied academic journals and scholarly books. Avoid popular newspapers, magazines, and websites. because the sources you include in your ILP must be scholarly. Before you commit yourself to a topic, make sure you find ample scholarly sources that are interesting to you. Keep notes on this process in your journal.</p> <p>4 Familiarize yourself with the APA publication manual and its detailed instructions on how to incorporate other authors' works, write citations, and format your work. (see p. 39).</p>	<p>1 Select your topicSee pp. 4-7, 14</p> <p>Choose a topic in which you have strong interest, related to your area of study and professional work. Your Pro-Sem may help you identify phenomena that interest you. Don't narrow it down too quickly. When you are certain of your topic:</p> <p>2 Map and plan your projectSee pp. 10-11, 14-15</p> <p>The mind map and research model chart are two ways of thinking on paper that will help you explain and clarify the hunches, concepts, ideas, and facts that make up your story, and begin to plan your project.</p> <p>As you explain your mind map and the story it tells, you will, with the help of your seminar cohort, create a working title for your ILP. The working title provides some guidance as you begin writing. It may change many times as the ILP is developed.</p> <p>3 Write first draft of your problem statementSee pp. 12-13, 15</p> <p>4 Write first draft of your research designSee pp. 10-13</p> <p>Using Maxwell's model for research design (pp. 10-11), begin to articulate your goals and conceptual framework; also begin to think about methods. Is this study feasible? As the study is carried out, the design may change.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Goals. • Conceptual framework. • Research question. • Methods. • Validity. <p>5 Write a plan/first draft of your literature reviewSee pp. 20-21</p> <p>6 Begin to develop your methodsSee pp. 22-23</p> <p>7 Put all these drafts together as an ILP proposal and submit it to your seminar leader.</p> <p>Review, feedback and approval by your seminar leader will help to insure that your project will be feasible and worthy of the degree to which you aspire.</p>

	<h2>Complete the ILP</h2>
<p>Get feedback and approval from your seminar leader before you finalize plans and proceed with project.</p> <p>Steps are shown here in the recommended order of DOING them, not the order in which the finished sections will appear in your ILP.</p> <p>See instructions for the CONTENT of each section on pp. 18-19.</p> <p>See instructions for FORMATTING along with corresponding examples, on pp. 39 & following.</p>	<p>1 Write chapter 1</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction. • Problem statement. • Rationale. • Anticipated outcomes. • Research question. <p>Begin first draft when your research design is approved. Re-visit when you finish research, to reflect your final work and thinking.</p> <p>2 Write chapter 2 literature review</p> <p>Keep citation worksheets as you read the literature!</p> <p>3 Write chapter 3 methods</p> <p>Begin first draft when your methods plan is approved. Re-visit after you finish doing the research.</p> <p>4 Write chapter 4 body</p> <p>Research project</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Results & discussion of research. • Summary, conclusions & implications . <p>And/OR</p> <p>Professional or creative project</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Statement of learning. • Handbook or guide you've written. <p>5 Compile references</p> <p>from your citation worksheets</p> <p>6 Construct preliminary pages: • title page • copyright page • acknowledgements • abstract • table of contents</p> <p>The abstract MUST be written AFTER you complete the ILP! DO NOT write it sooner.</p> <p>7 Compile appendixes (if any) from tools used to capture data and other supporting documentation if appropriate.</p>

RESEARCH DESIGN & PROCESS

Research Design

ILP candidates are typically beginning researchers. An experienced qualitative researcher could be dropped into any neighborhood and s/he will manage to identify a research idea, develop a research plan, and project potential research findings. This is quite different from the inexperienced researcher's fear that s/he cannot think of anything worthwhile to research.

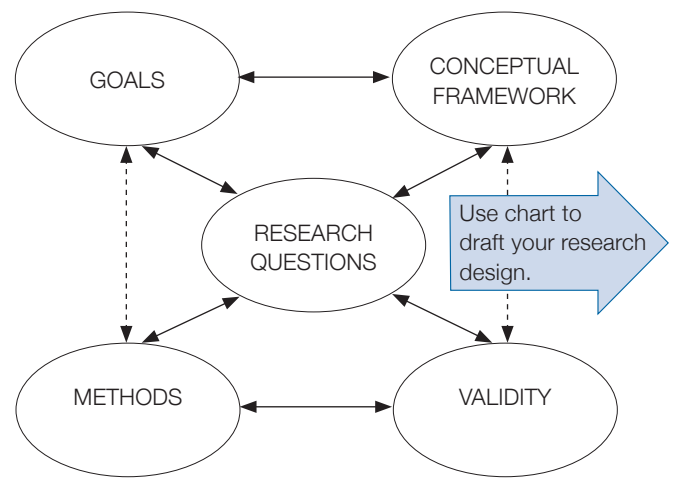
A research study starts with the design. Maxwell (2005) suggests that a good research design is one in which the components work harmoniously together; furthermore, efficient and successful functioning is promoted. A flawed design leads to poor functioning or failure. Design in a qualitative study is an ongoing process that involves constantly going back and forth between the different components of the design, "assessing the implications of goals, theories, research questions, methods, and validity threats for one another" (Maxwell, 2005, p.3).

Maxwell's idea of design mapping lends itself well to the ILP process; Pro Sem I provides the opportunity to do this design mapping. A well designed research project will help you to reach your goal safely and efficiently. Time is limited so you will be more efficient and successful if you rely on your own experiences and observations and develop a professional project that:

- Improves your learning
- Will add knowledge to the field of education
- Will improve your research skills
- May be helpful in policy development

Maxwell (2005, p. 5) presents an interactive research design as follows:

A MODEL FOR QUALITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGN



An Interactive Model of Research Design

<h2>Research Model</h2> <p>Maxwell (2005) developed this interactive model to demonstrate the way the relationships among the components are conceptualized. The different parts of the design form an integrated and interacting whole.</p>	<h2>Example</h2> <p>Kristy Eng studied the effects a special education label has on the academic and social progress of a student with a disability. Based on her findings, Kristy created a guide for parents and teachers to help them understand the effects of a label on a child with special needs and provides recommendations as to how to avoid negative responses and instead, create a more positive environment for the child.</p>
<h3>Goals</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Why is your study worth doing? • What issues do you want to clarify and what practices and policies do you want to influence? • Why do you want to conduct this study, and why should we care about the results? 	<h3>Goals</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To improve the perceptions of peers about a student with a special education label. • To improve the self-concept of a child with a label. • To create a more welcoming, nurturing and positive environment for all students.
<h3>Conceptual Framework</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What do you think is going on with the issues, settings, or people you plan to study? • What theories, beliefs and prior research findings will guide or inform your research, and what literature, and personal experiences will you draw on for understanding the people or issues you are studying? 	<h3>Conceptual Framework</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kristy's own experiences as a special education teacher. • Social skills development theory. • Theories about how a school becomes a more welcoming learning community. • Theory of leadership being at the heart of ethical enterprises.
<h3>Research Question</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What, specifically, do you want to understand by doing this study? • What do you not know about the phenomena you are studying that you want to learn? • What question will your research attempt to answer? 	<h3>Research Question</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are the perceptions of other students about the student with a label? • How do students with a label perceive themselves? • What is the role of leadership in creating a more responsive community in the school? • What is the relationship between a nurturing school community and more positive responses to students who are labeled?
<h3>Methods</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What will you actually do in conducting this study? • What approaches and techniques will you use to collect and analyze your data? There are four parts of this component of your design: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) the relationships that you establish with the participants in your study. 2) your selection of settings, participants, times and places of data collection, and other data sources such as documents. 3) your data collection methods. 4) your data analysis strategies and techniques. 	<h3>Methods</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participant observation as a teacher. • Structured interviews with students with labels and with peers without labels. • Structured interviews with parents of students with labels. • Review of literature on ethics and leadership. • Review of literature on building nurturing school communities.
<h3>Validity</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How might your results and conclusions be wrong? • What are the plausible alternative interpretations, and how will you deal with these? • How can the data that you have, or that you could potentially collect, support or challenge your ideas about what is going on? • Why should we believe your results? 	<h3>Validity</h3> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Triangulation of sources of data – personal observations, structured surveys, and interviews. • A search for any evidence that appears to be inconsistent with the original hypothesis.
<p>This research design explicitly identifies and maps out the key issues you will need to address. A good design will help prevent important issues from being overlooked. Secondly, a good design emphasizes the interactive nature of design decisions in qualitative research and the multiple connections that exist.</p>	

Now that you have drafted your research design, it is time to begin the steps in the research process.

Research Process

Begin By Theorizing

Theory has an important role to play in research and serves as an essential support for the researcher. As Neuman (2003) states, “In simple terms, researchers interweave a story about the operation of the social world (the theory) with what they observe when they examine it systematically (the data)” (p.42). You may wish to frame your study through a theoretical lens; thereby, you raise questions and suggest points of view as a starting point. Every research design needs some theory of the phenomena being studied, to guide the design decision-making.

By provoking ideas about what we do not know currently, theories provide the impetus for research. Theory is an analysis of a set of concepts, facts, ideas and their relation to one another. It is a hypothesis assumed for the sake of argument or investigation. An explanation of the theoretical lens would occur in the Introduction, and allows the researcher the opportunity to explain the concepts, ideas, facts, and hunches that make up their story about a phenomena that he/she wishes to understand more clearly. The researcher’s story is often based on personal experience, which may bring great passion and power to the process of investigation.

Mind Map Your ILP

An excellent tool for developing and clarifying theory is known as mind mapping or concept mapping. Mind mapping is a way of thinking on paper and becomes the *conceptual framework* for the investigation. Like a theory, a mind or concept map consists of 1) concepts, ideas, hunches, and facts and 2) the relationships among them. A mind map is a visual display of what you think is going on with the phenomena you are investigating.

Mind mapping typically occurs early in the ILP process and may be worked and reworked by the cohort as a learning community, as candidates help each other clarify and more precisely state what it is they want to understand more thoroughly.

Identifying a topic or a research problem means that the researcher specifies an issue to be investigated, as well as develops a justification for studying it, and puts forth the reasons why and for whom this study is important. Research problems arise out of needs expressed by any number of sources, including but not limited to, teachers, schools, students, parents, other researchers, policy makers, etc.

The problem statement serves to narrow down significantly the questions and points of view that arose as the candidate and the cohort worked and reworked the mind map to arrive at a focused statement. The justification for the investigation is developed under the rationale, which follows the problem statement in chapter

1 of the ILP. The candidate then attempts to speculate on the results of the investigation and to anticipate what the outcomes of the investigation might be. This appears under the section anticipated outcomes, which immediately follows the rationale.

Neuman (2003) depicts the steps in the research process as follows: Figure 1.1 is one way of depicting the steps.

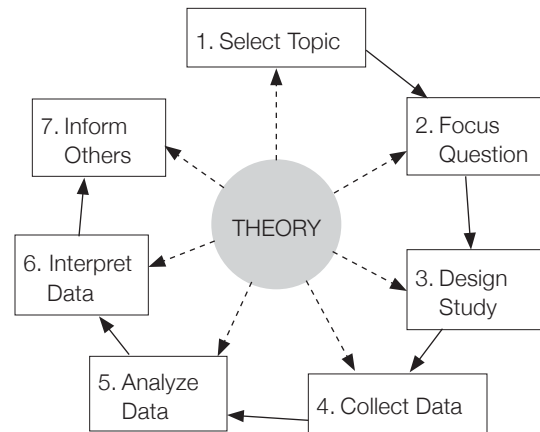


FIGURE 1.1 Steps in the Research Process

Frame a Research Question

Finally, in chapter 1 the candidate frames a research question which specifically identifies what s/he wants to understand by doing the investigation. It should be understood that the research question may change significantly as the investigation unfolds. It is important to have a question, but the question should not be formulated in detail until other parts of the design have been considered. The research question should remain sensitive and adaptable to other parts of the design. Some candidates may completely rewrite their research question after doing their literature review and/or having captured some of the data.

Maxwell (2005) suggests a process that candidates might use as they begin developing their research questions. The first step would suggest that the candidate go back to the mind map and ask the following questions: What are the pieces on this map that I do not adequately understand? Where are the gaps or conflicts between my experiential knowledge and existing theories? What questions do these suggest? What could I learn in a research study that would help me to better understand what’s going on with these phenomena? Write down all the potential questions that can be generated from the mind map.

Maxwell (2005) then suggests that the candidates ask themselves what would answering these questions tell me that I do not already know? What changes or additions to my questions does the map suggest? Are there places where my questions imply things that should be on my map but are not? What changes do I need to make to my map?

Then focus — What question is most central to my study? How does this question form a coherent set that will guide my study? Since it is impossible to study everything that is interesting about my topic, start making choices.

The research question serves two vital functions: 1) to help to focus the study (the question's relationship to the goals and conceptual framework) and 2) to give guidance for how to conduct it (their relationship to methods and validity). Creswell (2003) offers the following advice regarding framing the research question:

- Begin research questions with the words “what” or “how” to convey an open and emerging design — “why” suggests cause and effect, which is more consistent with quantitative research.
- Use exploratory verbs that convey an emerging design:
 - Discover (e.g., grounded theory)
 - Seek to understand (e.g., ethnography)
 - Explore a process (e.g., case study)
 - Describe the experiences (e.g., phenomenology)
 - Report the stories (e.g., narrative research)

- Avoid using directional language such as “affect,” “influence” “impact,” “determine,” “cause,” “relate.” Such words imply a quantitative study. (pp. 106-107).

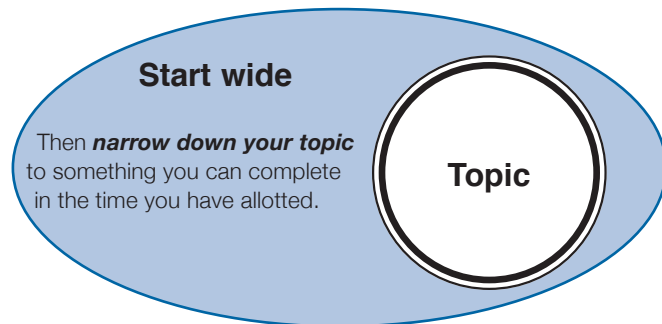
The question should then be connected to the methods that might be used and the data they would provide. Can my question be answered by these methods and the data that they will provide? At this point in the planning, these considerations may primarily involve thought experiments about the way the study will be conducted, the kinds of data that will be collected, and the analyses that will be performed on these data. The process of conducting thought experiments is most effectively done by sharing the questions and the reflections with the cohort. Having fellow candidates probe questions and reflections pushes the level of understanding to a deeper level. Recording the discussion can be a very valuable resource for the candidate when, later in the process, s/he tries to recall specific elements of the discussion.

ILP MIND MAPS

Help you conceptualize your Independent Learning Project

Select Your Topic

- A topic in which you have strong interest
- Preferably related to your professional role

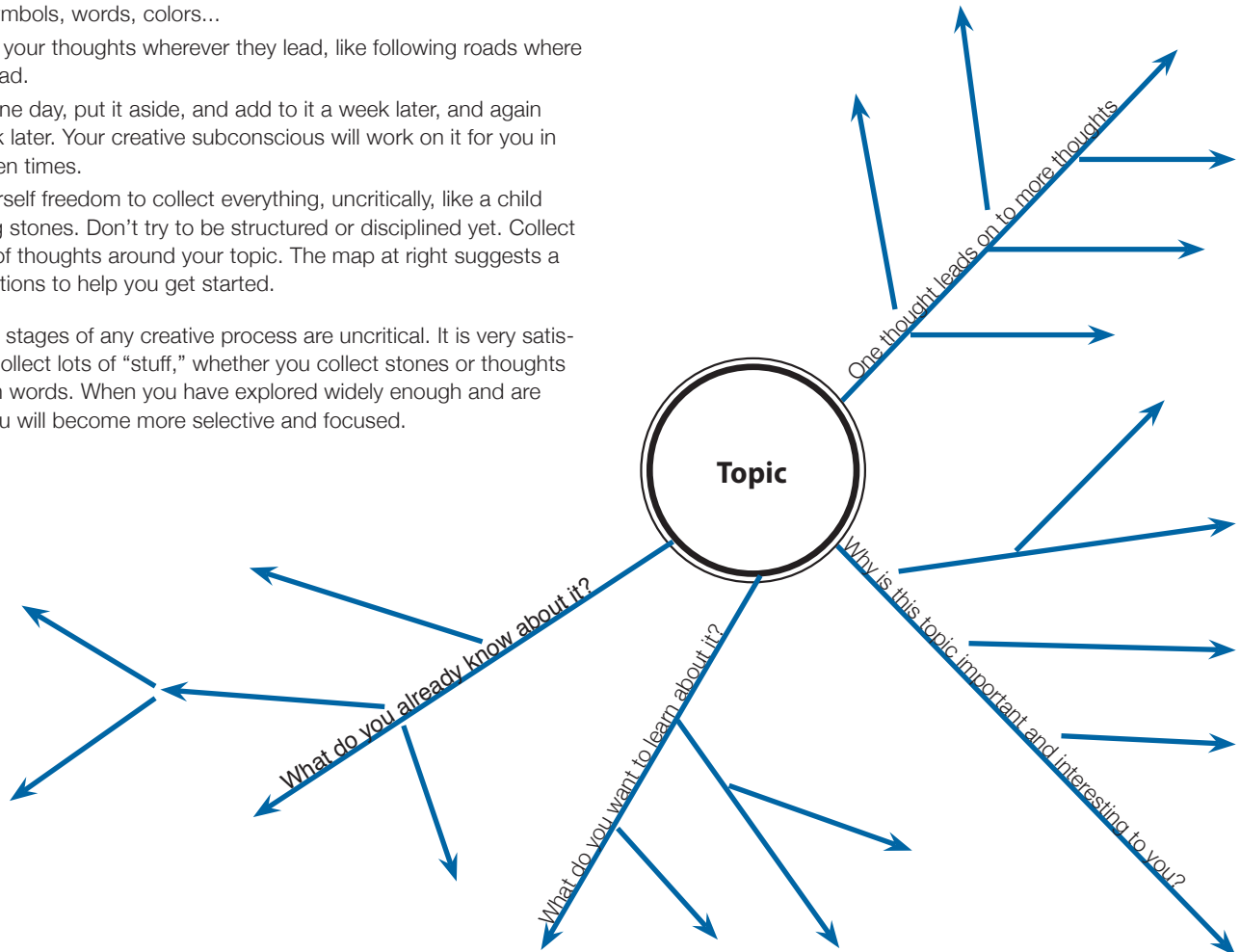


Everything Map

- Write your topic in the middle of a large sheet of paper.
- Put **all** your thoughts on the paper, around your topic.
- Use symbols, words, colors...
- Follow your thoughts wherever they lead, like following roads where they lead.
- Do it one day, put it aside, and add to it a week later, and again a week later. Your creative subconscious will work on it for you in between times.

Give yourself freedom to collect everything, uncritically, like a child collecting stones. Don't try to be structured or disciplined yet. Collect all sorts of thoughts around your topic. The map at right suggests a few questions to help you get started.

The early stages of any creative process are uncritical. It is very satisfying to collect lots of "stuff," whether you collect stones or thoughts or written words. When you have explored widely enough and are ready, you will become more selective and focused.

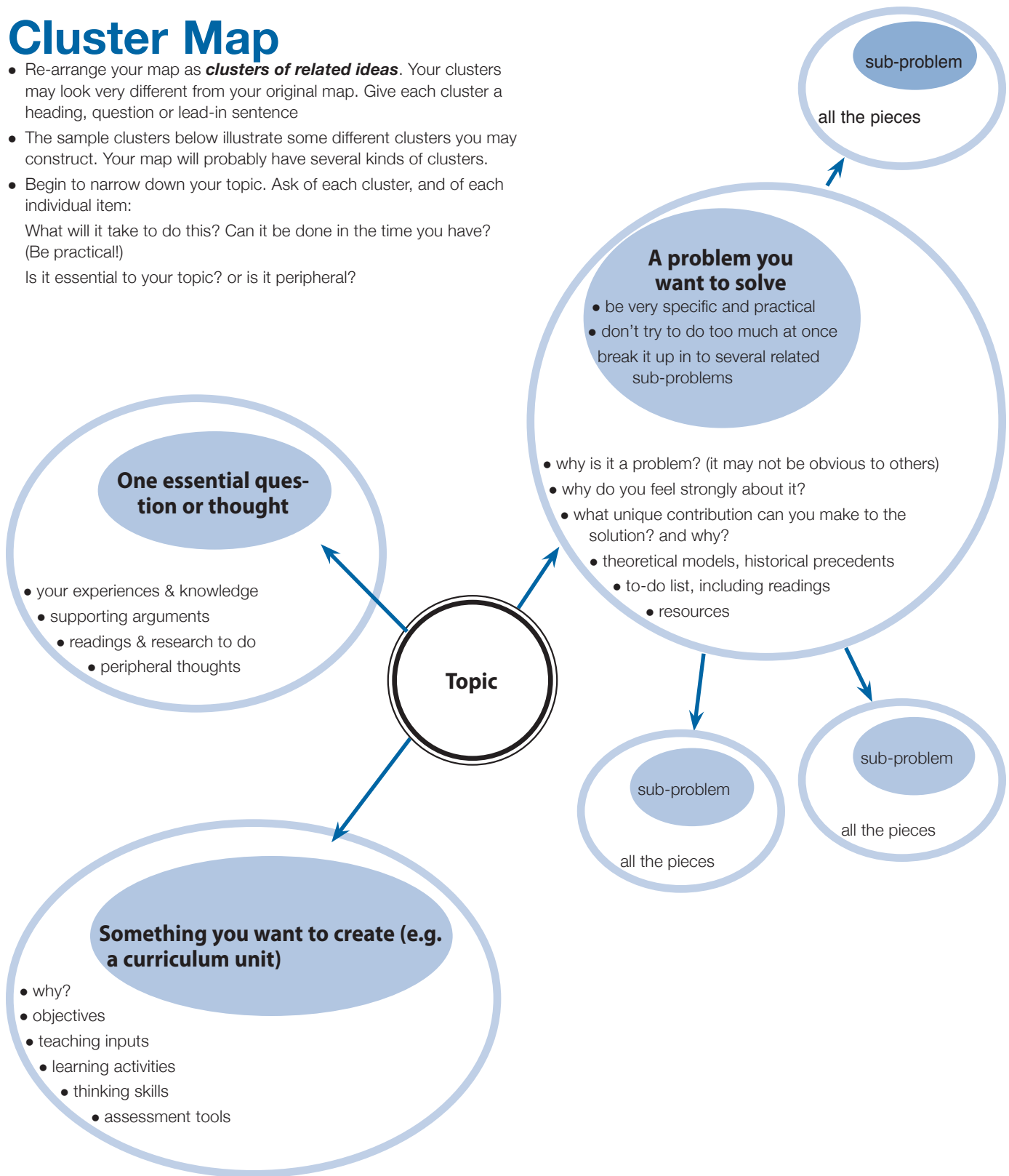


Cluster Map

- Re-arrange your map as **clusters of related ideas**. Your clusters may look very different from your original map. Give each cluster a heading, question or lead-in sentence
- The sample clusters below illustrate some different clusters you may construct. Your map will probably have several kinds of clusters.
- Begin to narrow down your topic. Ask of each cluster, and of each individual item:

What will it take to do this? Can it be done in the time you have?
(Be practical!)

Is it essential to your topic? or is it peripheral?



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HUMAN PARTICIPANT APPROVAL

Any investigator proposing to initiate a project that involves the use of human participants must submit a consent form for approval to the professional seminar leader.

GENERIC CONSENT FORM

Cambridge College School of Education
80 Prospect Street
Cambridge, MA 02138

Consent Form for _____ (Title of the Research Project)

Introduction and Contact Information

You are asked to take part in a research project that _____ (briefly state what is being studied). The researcher is _____ (name, title, department). Please read this form and feel free to ask questions. If you have further questions later, _____ (name) will discuss them with you. His/her telephone number is _____.

Statement of Research

Provide a general statement about the research and a brief introduction to the investigator (name, title, department, brief background and name and phone number of professional seminar leader).

Description of the Project

This study _____ (state the purpose of the research). Participation in this study will take _____ (state the duration of participation). If you decide to participate in this study, you will be asked to _____ (state or list specific study procedures). Please note that any incentives (financial or other) offered to participants should be included in the discussion of the research procedures.

Risks or Discomforts

Risks or discomforts may be physical, psychological, and/or social. Because all research involves some element of risk, **it is not acceptable to state that research has no risk.** If you believe that the research risk is no greater than the risk ordinarily encountered in daily life, then it is appropriate to state that the research is of "minimal risk".

Explain any **risks or discomforts** that might reasonably be expected to occur.

The primary risk associated with this study is the emergence of negative or distressful feelings in completing the research. You may wish to speak with _____ (name of researcher) to discuss any distress or other issues related to study participation.

Anonymity and Confidentiality

This study is designed to be **anonymous**. That is, the study will not collect information that specifically identifies you such as your name or telephone number. After you return the research materials, there will be no way of linking your identity to the data collected.

Your part in this research is **confidential**. That is, the information gathered for this project will not be published or presented in a way that would allow anyone to identify you. Information gathered for this project will be destroyed at the conclusion of the project. If for any reason materials need to be kept they will be stored in a locked cabinet and only the researcher will have access.

Voluntary Participation

The decision whether or not to take part in this research study is voluntary. If you decide to take part in this study, you may terminate participation at any time without consequence. If you wish to terminate participation you should _____ (state procedure for terminating participation such as directly telling or phoning the investigator). Whatever you decide will in no way _____ (penalize you, affect your grade, status as a student).

Rights

You have the right to ask questions about this research before you sign this form and at any time during the study. You can reach _____ (name and contact information of investigator).

Signatures

I HAVE READ THE CONSENT FORM. MY QUESTIONS HAVE BEEN ANSWERED. MY SIGNATURE ON THIS FORM MEANS THAT I UNDERSTAND THE INFORMATION AND I CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY. I ALSO CERTIFY THAT I AM 18 YEARS OF AGE OR OLDER.

(signature of participant)

(signature of researcher)

(printed name of participant)

(printed name of researcher)

Notes About Special Populations

Whenever subjects in a study may be vulnerable to injury, coercion or undue influence, the study must include additional safeguards to protect their rights and welfare. Special populations requiring additional safeguards include:

- Children – under age 18
- Persons with an intellectual or emotional impairment
- Pregnant women and fetuses
- Prisoners
- Subjects who are illiterate or whose primary language is not English
- Students and trainees
- Employees and subordinates
- Research conducted in non-campus settings – for example, international projects

The seminar leader will approve research involving children or other special populations if it falls within one of the following categories:

- The research involves no more than minimal risk.
- The research involves more than minimal risk but presents the prospect of direct benefit to individual subjects, which is sufficient to justify the risk.
- The research involves more than minimal risk and presents no direct benefit to subjects but is likely to yield important generalizable knowledge about the topic under study.
- The research presents a reasonable opportunity to understand, prevent, or alleviate a serious problem affecting the health and welfare of children.
- All research involving children or members of other “special populations” requires the signed consent of a parent or guardian.

ILP OUTLINE & INSTRUCTIONS FOR WRITING

This chart outlines WHAT each chapter or element should include.

See also references to further instructions.

CHAPTER OR ELEMENT	# of pages	WHAT TO WRITE IN EACH SECTION OF YOUR ILP	EXAMPLE ILP PAGES
Preliminary pages		Write last, after you have written the entire ILP	
☀ Title page	1	Standard elements and instructions with example.	40
☀ Copyright page (i)	1	See the example for recommended language of the copyright notice. Many Cambridge College alumni use their ILPs as the basis for books, articles, pamphlets, and handbooks. The copyright notice will protect your work, particularly if you plan to publish any part of it in the future. If you register your copyright, you may sue for infringement. To register your copyright with the Library of Congress Register of Copyrights, visit www.copyright.gov/ .	41
☀ Acknowledgements (ii)	1	Optional. Write your acknowledgements in the third person and in a professional, tactful manner. Mention only people who actually aided this project.	42
☀ Abstract (iii)	1	An abstract is a one-paragraph summary of your work that gives readers a quick, comprehensive survey of your project. It should be 120 words or less; no longer than one page, double-spaced (see APA 1.07). It must accurately summarize the purpose and content of your ILP: The issue/problem you address or what you tried to prove, your subjects and methods, your results/findings/conclusions.	43
☀ Table of contents (iv)	1	The table of contents is a list of the ILP sections and therefore a guide for readers. Headings and subheadings in the contents must coincide with those in the text.	44
Chapter 1		See GETTING STARTED (pp. 4-9) and RESEARCH DESIGN & PROCESS (pp. 10-13)	
☀ Introduction	4-6	Express your passion for the topic, the reason you are curious about it, and why you wish to understand it at a deeper level. Capture the interest of readers by interweaving all the thoughts, ideas, and hunches that you identified using the mind map, together with your curiosity, passion, and need to understand to create the context for the ILP.	1-3
☀ Problem statement	1-2	Narrow the discussion around the mind map to a problem you want to solve, an issue you want to clarify, a practice or policy you want to influence.	3-5
☀ Rationale	1/2-1	Answer questions such as: Why bother doing this study? Who is it important to? Who might benefit from the findings?	5
☀ Anticipated outcomes	1/2-1	Speculate about possible findings/outcomes resulting from this project.	6
☀ Research question	a sentence	Pin-point specific question that you want to understand by doing this project.	6

CHAPTER OR ELEMENT	# of pages	WHAT TO WRITE IN EACH SECTION OF YOUR ILP	EXAMPLE ILP PAGES
Chapter 2		For in-depth instructions, see LITERATURE REVIEW, pp. 20-21, 26-36	
Literature review	15-20 or more	Provide background knowledge from the relevant academic literature about your topic: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify various themes from relevant academic literature, with a subheading for each theme. Discuss what various authors said about each theme. Conclude with a summary of what is known and unknown. 	7-14
Chapter 3 Methods		For in-depth instructions, see METHODS, pp. 22-23	
Research project	2-3	Describe what you actually did to carry out the study: your subjects, strategies used to capture data, setting and analytical tools with which you analyzed data and interpreted findings.	18-19
And/OR			
Professional or creative project	2-3	Describe what you actually did to create your guide or other ILP product: contents/overview, target audience, reason/rationale for each element.	
Chapter 4 Body		For in-depth instructions, see BODY OF THE ILP, pp. 24-25	
Research project	15-20	1) Results, analysis & discussion of your research: present your data and the story it tells.	20-23
And/OR	2-3	2) Summarize your research findings, discuss, and possibly draw conclusions. Discuss the implications for future research and instruction.	
Professional or creative project	15-20	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Discuss themes identified in your literature review and your findings from any additional research conducted. Statement of learning: explain the outcome of your project. What did you learn? discuss your guide or other product you created, and what you learned from the process of creating it. 	23
	2-3		
Closing Pages		Write last, after you have written the entire ILP	
References	as needed	Instructions with example. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Include only published works specifically cited in the text of your ILP. Compile from your citation worksheets (p. 38). See Writing a Reference Citation (p. 32). 	24-25
Appendixes	as needed	Include copies as appendixes (include copies only; keep your originals!) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tools used to capture data: paper surveys, interview forms or questionnaires, measurement instruments. Supporting documentation such as transcripts of interviews, photos, art work, video or audio tapes, computer disks. 	26
Curriculum guide or other ILP product	as needed	Optional—Place at the end if this is part of your ILP. (copy only; keep your original!) Discussion about it belongs in chapter 4.	after p. 26

To see how to *FORMAT* your work, go to page 39 and example pages (right-hand column above) and see accompanying instructions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Creswell (2003) suggests that the literature review in a research study serves several purposes. First, it shares with the reader the results of other studies that are closely related to the current investigation. Second, Cooper (1984) and Marshall and Rossman (1999) suggest that the literature review relates the current investigation to the larger ongoing dialogue in the literature about a topic, filling in gaps and extending prior studies. The literature review is a framework for establishing the importance of the study and provides a benchmark for comparing the results of a study with other findings. Lastly, it also clarifies why the current study is worth doing in light of what has already been done.

You Must Document Your Sources

Follow APA style; see *Using and Citing Your Sources* (p. 28) for a summary of APA style guidelines for using your sources in your text, writing in-text citations, and reference citations.

Purposes of the Literature Review

The literature review may be complicated if you don't understand that it serves multiple purposes:

- Demonstrate your familiarity with your topic, including perspectives that are both similar to and different from your own.
- Legitimize the question or goal you posed at the end of your problem statement.
- Justify the work you will do in the body of your project by creating a well-crafted academic argument for that work.
- Establish a framework for the importance of your study.
- Create a benchmark for comparing the results of your study to other findings.
- Demonstrate how your study fills in gaps in the literature or extends the work of prior studies.
- The results of other studies that are closely related to your study — comparing and contrasting studies are appropriate here.
- The relationship between your study and the larger ongoing discussion in the literature.

Elements of a Literature Review

Silverman (2005) lists six elements that make up the contents of a literature review:

- What do we already know about the topic?
- What do you have to say critically about what is already known?
- Has anyone else ever done anything exactly the same?
- Has anyone else done anything that is related?
- Where does your work fit in with what has gone before?
- Why is your research worth doing in light of what has already been done? (p. 295)

Scholarship also means advancing knowledge and this advance requires a strict focus and a critical perspective on what you read. Marx (1997) suggests that the researcher should seek an appropriate balance between appreciation and advancement of the literature.

Steps in Conducting a Literature Review

A literature review for a research study is essentially about locating and summarizing other studies about the topic. There is no one way to conduct a literature review, but many scholars proceed in a systematic fashion to capture, evaluate, and summarize the literature, and Creswell (2003) suggests the following steps:

- Begin by identifying key words useful in locating articles and other materials in academic libraries.
- Focus initially on journals and books related to your topic and, using the key words or phrases, search the computerized data bases.
- Try to locate about 20 scholarly sources on your topic beginning with journal articles and books because they are easier to locate.
- Try to obtain a sense of whether or not the article will be useful to your understanding of the literature. Skim the abstracts and the articles to determine their relevance.
- Begin to design a literature map, which provides a visual picture of the research literature on your topic. This provides a useful organizing device for positioning your study within the larger body of literature on the topic.
- Begin to draft summaries of the most relevant articles. Think about how they might be combined.
- Begin to assemble your literature review. Structure the literature thematically or organize it by important concepts addressed in the study.

End with a summary of the themes found and suggest areas where further research is needed.

Gathering Resources

In order to write a successful literature review you must first do the reading. Read as much as possible about your ILP topic so you can demonstrate your knowledge and familiarity with the work others have done. Keep careful records of what you have read to avoid possible accusations of plagiarism. Make sure your reading includes both theory and research. In addition, if your topic has been subject to controversy, you want such controversy to be fully covered in your review.

The following are some helpful hints on gathering information for your literature review. In this section you will find some useful tips for keeping track of your resources. These tips will be especially useful for helping you to write your ILP in the required APA style. For every resource you plan to include in a literature review, ask the following:

- How is this information or opinion relevant to your main arguments or main points? If it isn't relevant, STOP and go on to the next one!
- Do you have or can you get the required bibliographic information for the APA citation?
- What are the author's professional credentials? Often this can be found on the book jacket or in the preface. Also try a www.google.com search of the author's name. If there is more than one author of a book, research all of them.
- How did the author prove that the information or opinion is true?
- Did the author do an experiment or research study on real people in a real situation?
 - How was this experiment or study conducted?
 - What did the author find out?
 - Is it based on other people's research studies?
 - How were these studies conducted?
 - What did the research find?
 - Is it based on the author's own experience, for example as a manager, counselor, teacher, or school administrator?
 - What was the experience?
 - How did the author document the experience?
 - How did the author verify that the conclusions were valid?
- Is it a theory the author developed, not based on research or experience?
- What is the theory?
- What proof does the author give for the theory?
- Does the author have credibility?

Citation Worksheet

Once you have determined that a source is worth keeping, write a complete citation for the source in APA style (see Using and Citing Your Sources) or make sure that you have the complete information to write the citation later. Writing the complete APA reference at this point will save you time and frustration later when compiling your reference page. Make and use copies of the Citation Worksheet on p. 38.

METHODS

The methods section (or methodology) addresses the question, what will the researcher actually do? The appropriate answer to almost any question about the use of qualitative methods is “it depends”. Research methods will depend on the specific context and the issues being studied. As Maxwell (2005) notes “data in a qualitative study can include virtually anything that you see, hear, or was otherwise communicated to you while conducting the study” (p. 79). The important thing to recognize in qualitative research is that the researcher is the instrument. The data is recorded through field notes from observations and interviews; the transcripts are derived from those interviews. The data are descriptive. The instrument can be very flexible to accommodate a diverse group of respondents, as well as a broader range of responses. The flexibility afforded qualitative researchers in their design is a reflection of the nature of what they are studying. Often the researcher does not know how their work will proceed until they have started collecting their data. This flexibility also allows the researcher and the participant some insight into the topic that might not have otherwise been evident.

Paper surveys, structured/unstructured interviews, instruments that measure attitudes, observations, recorded materials, document reviews, etc., have all been used to understand human behavior in qualitative research. The methods section will clearly outline what the researcher actually did to capture the data.

Qualitative research attempts to understand the meaning or nature of experiences of persons. Some people who have experienced problems such as chronic illness, family issues, failure, substance abuse, social impairment, and behavioral issues, desire to do field research to discover what other people in the field are doing and thinking about similar problems.

Stern (1980) suggests that qualitative methods can be used to explore substantive areas about which little is known, or to gain novel understandings. Qualitative methods can also be used to obtain the intricate details about phenomena such as feelings, thought processes, and emotions that are difficult to extract or learn about through more conventional research methods.

The central purpose of the methods section is to explain to readers how the research was accomplished; that is, what the data consist of, and how the data were collected, organized, and analyzed. Berg (2007) suggests that the simplest, most straightforward manner to write the methods section is to imagine explaining the process to a friend. Explaining the details about how the research was conducted is similar to telling a story. Just as certain details in classic tales vary from storyteller to storyteller, points of detail most important to the researcher may vary from study to study.

Use your methods as a map — The methods section serves as a map for your work. Someone reading your methods section should be able to know exactly what you did and be able to replicate your work. Once you have written the methods section for your ILP proposal, refer back to it as you carry out your work. This will remind you of what you are doing and why. The methods section of your proposal will likely be written in the future tense. It will tell your advisor what you plan to do. When you revise this section for your ILP, change it to the past tense, so that readers of your ILP will know exactly what you did.

Features

There are certain salient features that tend to be present in most methods sections. The methods sections should include:

Subjects — Explain who the subjects are, how they were identified and selected, what they were told about their participation, and how they would be protected from any risk.

Data — Explain the nature of the data (interviews, focus groups, ethnographies, videotapes, surveys, etc) and how the data were collected.

Setting — Describe the setting, because it can be important to the reliability of the research data.

Analytical techniques — Discuss and justify the analytical strategy to be used.

Methods for Your Type of ILP

Naturally, the information you include in your methods section will depend on the type of ILP you plan to complete.

A word of caution here! Unless you have written permission to include the real name and location of the setting where you collect your data, you should use pseudonyms to protect the identity of the location. The same goes for your study participants.

Methods Section: Professional Project

For this type of ILP, your methods section will serve as an outline for your guide.

Overview: Provide a general review of the guide or handbook you plan to create.

Rationale: Describe your reason for creating this type of guide. What do you hope to accomplish by making such a handbook or guide available to educators?

Target Population: Describe briefly the population for whom your guide is intended. For instance, your guide might be intended for third grade teachers who wish to learn new ways to teach writing, or it might be limited to teachers at your school who are interested in developing a parent participation program.

Chapter Descriptions: Describe briefly each chapter you plan to include. Under each chapter title, provide a list of the resources you will draw upon to write the chapter, and a rationale for including the chapter in your project.

Methods Section: Research Project

Overview: Begin with one or two paragraphs briefly describing the study you plan to conduct.

Setting: Provide information about where you plan to collect your data, the data, and about the participants involved. Describe the measures you will use to gather your data, the Instruments you will use, the procedure you will use each of your instruments, and the rationale for including each instrument.

If you collect your data at school, describe the school in some detail. Tell the reader where the school is located and what the area is like (i.e. urban, rural, suburban). How much money does the school have? What types of industry support the local economy? Include as much information as seems relevant to the purpose of your ILP.

Participants: if you collect data from people, describe them in this section and explain why you chose them. This will likely include their age and/or grade.

Measures: Describe your plan for data collection. Include information about the time frame within which your data collection will take place.

Instruments: Describe the tools you will use to collect data. For instance, if you are conducting a survey, the survey questions are an instrument. If you are conducting an interview, then your interview questions are your instrument. If you are videotaping a class, then the videotape is an instrument. Describe each instrument in detail by stating such things as how many questions the instrument includes and how long (on average) it takes participants to complete. For surveys and questionnaires, don't list the actual questions here. Instead, include a copy of the actual instrument in an appendix, and here refer readers to the appendix.

Procedure: Describe how you plan to (and later, how you did) implement the instrument you have described. For instance, a questionnaire may be distributed to all faculty mailboxes, along with a self-addressed, stamped envelope for return to you.

Rationale: Delineate the reasons you chose this ILP topic. For some studies, you will give a rationale for each of the items named above. For instance, if you choose to collect your data at a particular school because it recently received a \$10 million grant to implement a new program, put a rationale right after your description of the setting. The rationale explains why the school's receipt of this money is relevant to your work. If you choose to interview fifth grade students who failed your state's recently mandated math test, you will put a rationale right after your description of the participants.

You must also provide a rationale for each instrument you use to collect your data by explaining what you hope to learn from the data you gather with the instrument.

Methods Section: Creative Project

The methods section for the creative project ILP will depend on the type of project you are creating. Your faculty advisor will provide guidelines. Generally, this section will begin with an overview of your project, followed by a rationale (why you find it important to complete this project at this time), and then a description of the population your project is intended to serve. You may also be asked to create a timeline for completing your project and a list of the resources you plan to use. Describe your vision of the complete project, the range of the participants, as well as any special qualities they share (e.g., all were enrolled in your fifth grade advanced math class during the fall term last year).



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BODY OF THE ILP

Just as the methods section of the ILP differs depending on the type of ILP you plan to complete, so too does the body. In general, this portion of your ILP will contain your most personal work. Because each ILP body is unique, your faculty advisor will provide you with specific guidance. What follows are some general guidelines.

Qualitative Research: Identifying Themes

Qualitative researchers are focused on the interplay between themselves and the data, which is the analysis. They use a non-mathematical process of interpretation, carried out for the purpose of discovering concepts and relationships in raw data and then organizing these into theoretical explanatory schemes or themes.

Theme identification is one of the most fundamental tasks in qualitative research and is at the heart of qualitative data analysis. The term “themes” often refers to abstract, sometimes fuzzy, constructs which researchers identify before, during, and after data collection. Themes come primarily from reviewing the literature. Richer literature produces more themes. They come from the characteristics of the phenomena being studied. Maxwell (1996) suggests that themes come from local common-sense constructs, from the researcher’s values, from the researcher’s theoretical orientation, and the researcher’s personal experience with the subject matter. For the most part, though, qualitative researchers draw themes from text – they cause the formation of themes based on their review of the literature.

Research findings should then be summarized with a brief discussion often leading to a conclusion(s) and often identifying areas requiring further research. (This summary section may not be required for some ILPs.)

Techniques for Discovering Themes in Texts

ANALYSIS OF WORDS

Word repetitions — Words can be analyzed formally or informally. In the informal mode, the researcher simply notes the words that people use a lot. In the formal mode, the researcher generates a list of words in a text and counts the number of times each occurs. For example, Weisner (1996) found that mothers were more likely than fathers to use words like friends, creative, time, and honest. Fathers were more likely than mothers to use words like school, good, lack, student, enjoys, independent, and extremely. The researchers then use this information as clues to identify themes.

Local terms — Another way to find themes is to look for local terms that may sound unfamiliar or are used in unfamiliar ways. For example, Spradley (1972), in a study of homeless men, found they all used the phrase “make your own flop,” which meant ways to make a bed. The researcher can then comb through recorded material and create sub-categories, such as, flops, beds, ways to make a bed, etc and then induce themes from these categories.

CAREFUL READING OF LARGER BLOCKS OF TEXT

Compare and contrast — This strategy is based on the idea that themes represent the ways in which texts are either similar or different from each other. In a study of reactions to police activity, students in a detention center and students of the same age in an advanced academic program at a local high school were asked to react to a video that involved police chasing a teenage driver because the police were suspicious about the two teenagers inside the car. The language used by the two groups was very different and was very useful in the identification of themes in that research.

Social science queries — Recorded material can be used to search for evidence of social conflict, cultural contradictions, informal methods of social control, things that people do in managing social relationships, methods by which people acquire and maintain achieved and ascribed status, and information about how people solve problems.

Searching for missing information — Sometimes what is not said can be more important than what is said. In other words, what themes are missing from the text. Silence may indicate areas that people are unwilling or afraid to discuss; silence may be tied to implicit or explicit domination. This search is the most difficult and requires a great deal of familiarity with the topic by the researcher.

METAPHORS AND ANALOGIES

The object of this exercise is to look for metaphors and then deduce themes or underlying principles that might produce patterns. These patterns would then be used to identify themes.

CONNECTORS

The researcher looks for words like if, then, rather than, instead of; then determines what kinds of things the words connect. In this way, themes are discovered.

PAWING

This strategy is the act of going through texts and marking them using different colored highlighters to identify themes. This strategy does not sound scientific, but it is one of the best ways to begin hunting for patterns in qualitative data. Following hunches and intuitions in looking for themes in texts is perfectly legitimate.

The researcher then writes the analysis and interpretation by weaving the information, including personal experiences and information, through the identified themes.

Body for Your Type of ILP

Professional Project

Because the professional project ILP is meant to serve as a resource for others, the body of this ILP should be able to “stand alone.” That is, you should be able to make copies of this section to distribute to colleagues or other professionals who would be able to utilize and/or implement your work. For this reason, this section may contain a title page and a table of contents of its own. This should be followed by a description of the contents and purpose of the handbook/guide, which will be followed by the chapters/sections you have created (these descriptions may be identical to the descriptions you wrote for your methods section).

As you work on the body of your project, remember you are creating something for someone else to use. For this reason, you must be very explicit. For instance, if you are designing a guide for encouraging parent participation at your school, you might organize your guide into very specific steps. Each step will include something to do and a reason for doing it. If you are preparing a curriculum guide, each lesson in the guide should have a clearly stated objective. If additional materials are needed to complete a step, you should list them. If your ideas come from a book or another source, you should include an APA-style citation for that source. If you would like to give your reader references to other books, you may do so.

Research Project

Begin work on the body of the thesis-type ILP only **after** you have collected and analyzed all of your data. As you conduct your analysis, be thinking of the story that your data tells. This story will be the body of your ILP.

How you organize this section will depend on the data you have collected and the story you wish to tell. If you have conducted interviews with a small number of people, the body of your ILP might be divided into case studies in which you describe what you learned from each individual. You might insert highly meaningful quotes from your study’s participants to highlight the story you are trying to tell.

Another option, if you have several participants, is to present a cross-case analysis. Here you will look at similarities and differences in the information you have gathered from your participants. You can use subheads to identify the important elements, then discuss the participants as a group to describe their similarities and differences on each of the important topics you have identified.

If you have collected a lot of numerical data, consider using charts and diagrams to display the story this data tells. Remember, charts and diagrams cannot stand alone in your ILP. Use them as a means of assisting you to explain the interpretation of the data you are trying to convey.

Creative Project

Like the professional project ILP, the body of the creative project ILP should be able to stand alone. Because each creative project is unique, you will arrange for the presentation of the body with your faculty advisor.

USING & CITING YOUR SOURCES

Every time you refer to an idea that is not your own, you must make an in-text citation. Ideas that are not your own might come from books, articles, radio programs, class lectures, discussions, conversations, even letters. If you include an idea in your writing that is not your own, and you do not include an in-text citation, you can be accused of plagiarism, a very serious offense.

Every in-text citation must contain a corresponding reference in your reference list.

Please remember: If you didn't write it, you must cite it!

Plagiarism means using someone else's words or ideas without citing them. Plagiarism is against the rules of Cambridge College and all other educational institutions. To avoid being accused of plagiarism, you must cite all quotations, summaries, and paraphrases. You must also cite any facts or ideas that are not commonly known.

Introducing Citations in the APA Style

WHAT IS A "CITATION?"

The process of writing a research paper or independent learning project includes reading what others have written on the topic. You are expected to include what other authors have said, as a summary, a paraphrase, or a quotation in your own paper. However, because these are not your own thoughts or words, credit must be given to the authors who developed the thoughts and wrote the words; this is referred to as "citing the author." If you do not give appropriate credit to the author, you can be accused of plagiarism.

When you use facts, information, ideas, or quotations from someone else's writing, you must tell readers where they came from. This is called a "citation" ("cite" is the verb.)

It is extremely important that you gather the information needed for citations the first time you use the publication! Do not plan on going back to the source "later" for the details needed for a citation!

Record the following information for each source document:

- title of document (whether it be a book, an article in a periodical, a chapter in an anthology, or an article on-line)
- author's name (if given) as well as editor's name (if given)
- date of publication (if given); this is not the date of retrieval from the internet for online documents
- publisher and place of publication (for a book)
- name of periodical or newspaper in which the article was found, plus the date of the publication, its volume number, issue number, and page numbers of the article
- URL (http address) for articles from the internet
- date of retrieval for internet articles
- identifier numbers (if given) for articles from databases

Sometimes it is best to copy pages of the document on which this information is located so that the information will be readily available for the writing of both in-text and reference citations.

WHAT IS THE APA STYLE?

There are a number of styles for preparing manuscripts, which include the instructions for writing citations. For example, both the American Psychological Society (APA) and the Modern Language Association (MLA) have prepared guidelines; The Chicago Manual of Style (CMS), 15th ed., also is a standard.

The standard usually used at Cambridge College is the APA style, which is the standard for academic papers in the social sciences such as psychology and education. ***In an APA style paper, the citation is given twice in the paper:***

- in the body of the text and
- in a separate page titled References

The “in-text” citation

- This is located in the body of the paper and gives enough information for a reader to find the publication on the References page of the document.
- Information in the in-text citation includes the author's name, date of publication, and—if the cited material is a quotation—the page number.

The citation in the References section

- APA uses the title “References” for the pages of complete publishing information for all in-text citations in the paper.
- The reference citation for books includes the author's name, date of publication, name of the book, and publishing information. There are slight differences, however, between citations for books, articles from print sources such as periodicals and newspapers, and documents retrieved from the internet. These differences in citing are addressed in this section.
- “References” only include information for sources cited in the text. (A “bibliography” is a list of every book and article the writer looked at whether an in-text citation is included in the paper or not. A bibliography is rarely required for papers at Cambridge College.)

Writing an In-Text Citation

In-text citations include:

- Author's name
- Date of publication
- Page number (for quotations)

AUTHOR'S NAME

General guidelines

- Give **only the author's last name** in the in-text citation.
- The author's name may be included as **part of the sentence** OR **after the sentence in parentheses**.

If the author's name is included in the sentence

- Use the **past tense** or **present perfect tense** to introduce the summary, paraphrase, or quote:

As Green (1994) stated, “if children were fed adequately at home, schools would not need lunch programs” (p. 25).

If the author's name is included in parentheses after the sentence

- Separate the author's name from the date of publication with a comma and one space.
- If the citation is for a quotation, separate the date of publication from the page number with a comma and one space.
- Note that the **final punctuation** for the sentence goes **after the closing parenthesis**.

As one expert stated, “if children were fed adequately at home, schools would not need lunch programs” (Green, 1994, p. 25).

Citing a quotation with 40 or more words

- A quotation of 40 or more words must be written as a block quote using the “long quote” form given in this example. (Note: examples 2 and 3 are for shorter quotations.)
- Set the quote off in a block by starting a new line and indenting all of it five spaces from the left margin.
- The quote must still be introduced as a quote, such as:

As Romain (1998) stated:

- **No quotation marks** are used.
- Double space the entire quotation.
- End the last sentence with appropriate punctuation.
- Put the page number in parentheses right after the long quote.
- **Do not put a period after the parentheses.**



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Example of a long quote:

As Romain (1998) stated:

Being cliquey can make the clique feel secure (because being part of a group is a kind of protection). Think about how wild dogs form packs in the wilderness, or how gangs hang out in the streets. Cliques aren't as dangerous, but the idea is the same. They stick together because there's safety in numbers. (p. 9)

Citing a summary or paraphrase

- A citation for a summary or paraphrase of the above is exactly the same as for a quotation **except** that the page number is not given. This is also *true for all of the examples below*. The following are examples of proper citation for a summary or paraphrase.

Romain (1998) suggested that people form cliques because they feel safer being part of a group.

OR

One expert suggested that people form cliques because they feel safer being part of a group (Romain, 1998).

Two authors

- **Never** change the order in which the authors' names appear.
- Write out the word "and" if the authors' names are included in the sentence:

As Green and Jones (1993) stated, "if children were fed adequately at home, schools would not need lunch programs" (p. 74).

- Use the ampersand ("&") between the names of the authors if they are not included in the sentence but noted in parentheses after the sentence:

As experts stated, "if children were fed adequately at home, schools would not need lunch programs" (Green & Jones, 1993, p. 74).

Three, four, or five authors

- **Never** change the order in which the authors' names appear.
- Write **all** the authors' names the **first time** the reference occurs, using "and" when the names are included in the sentence but "&" when the names are in parentheses after the sentence:

Lett, Grant, Neville, Davis, and Koh (1997) suggested that "benzodiazepines could be useful in the treatment of anorexia nervosa" (p. 26).

OR

Experts suggested that "benzodiazepines could be useful in the treatment of anorexia nervosa" (Lett, Grant, Neville, Davis, & Koh, 1997, p. 26).

- **After fully citing three or more authors once** (as detailed above), write only the surname of the first author followed by "et al." in subsequent in-text citations.

—The words "et al." mean "and others" in Latin.

—The words "et al." should **not** be italicized.

—There should be a period after "al."

Lett et al. (1997) reported, "the mechanism by which benzodiazepines enhance eating is unclear" (p. 26).

—If the citation is given after the sentence in parentheses, there is a comma after the "al." before the date:

"The mechanism by which benzodiazepines enhance eating is unclear" (Lett et al., 1997, p. 26).

Six or more authors

- **Never** change the order in which the authors' names appear.
- Use only the surname of the first author and "et al." (Follow the guidelines above for the use of "et al.")

For example, the citation for the book *The Snakes of Central and South America* (2nd ed.) by J. Miller, M. Richards, E. Harris, H. Wade, M. Hill, M. Lee, and A. Adams is **always**:

Miller et al. (1999) documented the continuing efficacy of the program.

OR

Subsequent investigations documented the continuing efficacy of the program (Miller et al., 1999).

Group or organization as the author

- In the first citation, write out the entire name of the group or organization. If the name is long, give an appropriate abbreviation for it in brackets immediately after the full name.

(National Institute of Mental Health [NIMH], 1977)

- In subsequent citations, use the abbreviation instead of the very long name.

(NIMH, 1977)

Publication with no author

- Use the title of the publication in place of an author's name.
- Italicize (or underline) the title of a book, periodical, brochure, or report.

(*Times Atlas of the World*, 1990)

- Enclose in double quotation marks the title of a chapter or the name of an article.

("After the Game Is Over," 1992)

Note: the comma after the title (before the year) goes **before** the final quotation mark.

Personal, unpublished communication such as a conversation, interview, memo, e-mail, letter, or class notes (sources which are non-retrievable by someone else):

- Give the first initials or first name as well as the credentials of the person:

R.L. Brown, a researcher on nutrition at Massachusetts General Hospital, stated that non-fat dairy products are unacceptable (personal communication, November 30, 1994).

- Personal, unpublished communications are **not listed in the References** page because these sources cannot be retrieved.

Citing an author who was cited in someone else's paper:

- If you want to include in your paper a quote which another author included in his/her document, you must still give credit to the person who wrote the words.
For example: you read a book by Green who quoted White. To quote White in your paper, you would write:

White (as cited in Green, 1994, p. 25) gave reasons for the benefits of a healthy breakfast, including "stamina, strength, and good health."

If you never looked at White's actual article, you cannot cite it. You can only cite Green's article, in which she cited White.

DATE OF PUBLICATION

General guidelines

- If a quotation is being cited, put a comma after the date and leave one space before writing the page number(s).

Green claimed, "there are many superfoods" (1994, p. 22).

Date for a personal, unpublished communication such as a conversation, interview, memo, e-mail, letter, or class notes (a communication which can not be retrieved by someone else)

- "Provide as exact a date as possible" (APA, 2001, p. 214).

R.L. Brown, a researcher on nutrition at Massachusetts General Hospital, stated that non-fat dairy products are unacceptable (personal communication, November 30, 1994)

The date includes a year, month, and day

- If the publication is **not a personal**, unpublished communication (see above) but the date on it includes both the month and the year (or month, day, and year), **only use the year** in the in-text citation.

Lark claimed, "ADHD children are capable of achieving significant success in life" (1992, p. 3).

No date is given

- Put "n.d." for "no date"

Swallow noted, "anti-violence programs in college dormitories have decreased violence 45% in just one year" (n.d., Introduction, para. 3).

The document was retrieved from the internet

- If you cannot find a date on a document that has been retrieved from the internet (an "online document"), do not put the date of retrieval. Write "n.d." (no date) instead.

PAGE NUMBER

General guidelines

- APA requires that a page number be included in the in-text citations for **quotations**.

Experts said, "The results are valid" (Green & Jones, 1993, p. 64).

OR

However, some disagreed: "The results have not been substantiated" (Green, 1994, pp. 23-24).

- **Be sure to put a space after the "p." or "pp." before the page number.**
- This frequently presents a problem for online documents as sometimes page numbers are not provided, or they may be difficult to find. **Do not use the page numbers provided by your printer! Use the following guidelines instead.**

Online articles from a published source (such as a periodical)

- Look for indications of the original page numbers in the text. These might be found in parentheses or brackets.

Online articles without page numbers

- If **no original page numbers** are indicated, look for paragraph numbers. Indicate these by a ¶ symbol, as in (author, ¶ 5), or use the abbreviation "para" followed by a period, as in (author, para. 5). Note: the symbol "¶" is found in Microsoft Word through "Insert, Symbol, Special Characters, ¶."

Smith (2002) reported, "mass inoculation is supported by many people" (¶ 5).

OR

Smith (2002) reported, "mass inoculation is supported by many people" (para. 5).



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Online articles with no page or paragraph numbers

- If **no page or paragraph numbers are visible but there are subsection headings**, indicate the heading and count to the paragraph that your citation refers to. For example,

“There is no treatment for smallpox which is the reason it is feared” (Smith, 2002, Guest Editorial section, ¶ 4).

OR

“There is no treatment for smallpox which is the reason it is feared” (Smith, 2002, Guest Editorial section, para. 4).

- Note: the symbol “¶” for “paragraph” is found in Microsoft Word through “Insert, Symbol, Special Characters, ¶.”

Online articles with no page numbers, paragraph numbers, or section headings

- If there are no original page, paragraph numbers, or section headings, you do not need to provide page or paragraph numbers. The citation may be (author, year). For example:

“Numerous studies have documented the success of the program” (Lamont, 2002).

Writing a Reference Citation

Reference citations are written on the “References” page, which is located almost at the end of the research paper; only the part of the paper called the “Appendix” goes after it (although not all papers have an Appendix). A reference for each in-text citation (except personal communications such as conversations, interviews, memos, e-mails, letters, class notes, and other non-retrievable sources) must be included on the References page, giving complete publishing information for each.

General guidelines for the references page

- All sources, whether from a book, magazine article, or electronic media (internet documents), are integrated into one list.
- The entries are listed in alphabetical order by the authors’ last names.
- If you are citing more than one publication by the same author, list the publications by the year of publication with the one published the earliest listed first.
- Alphabetize group authors (government agencies or associations) by the first **significant** word of the name. Write out the full name; do not abbreviate the name in the references.

- If the document does not have an author, alphabetize it by the first **significant** word in the title.
- Double-space the entries. Do not skip extra spaces between items.
- The APA recommends using the **hanging indent** for each citation. In a hanging indent the first line of the citation is flush with the left margin; subsequent lines of the given citation are indented one tab.

Reference citations include:

- **Author’s name**
- **Date of publication**
- *Title of document* (book, article in a periodical, chapter in an anthology, or an article retrieved from the internet)
- **Publication information**

AUTHOR’S NAME

General guidelines

- The author’s name is inverted (the last name goes first).
- Do not spell out the author’s first name and middle name: just use the initials.
- Put a period after the name and leave one space before writing the date.

Lark, J. (1992, March 21). ADHD kids succeed. *Boston Globe*, pp. 3-4.

Two to six authors

- Give the surnames and initials for each, last name first. Separate the names with a comma and one space except for the last two names which should be separated with a comma, space, and ampersand (“&”).
- Never change the order of names. List them exactly the same way as they are listed in the publication.

Lett, B. T., Grant, V. L., Neville, L. L., Davis, M. J., & Koh, M. T. (1997). Chlordiazepoxide counteracts activity-induced suppression of eating in rats. *Experimental & Clinical Psychopharmacology*, 5(1), 24-27. Retrieved June 11, 2003, from PsycARTICLES database.

Seven or more authors

- List the first six as above and use “et al.” to represent the seventh and subsequent authors.
- **Never** change the order of names. List them exactly the same way as they are listed in the publication.

Miller, J., Richards, M., Harris, E., Wade, H., Hill, M., Lee, M., et al. (1999). *The snakes of Central and South America* (2nd ed.). New York: Horton.



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No author given

- Use the name of the organization if one is mentioned. Write out the name in full: do not abbreviate it.

National Institute of Mental Health. (1977). *Drug abuse in teenage populations*. Rockville, MD: Author.

No author or organization

- If there is no author or organization, use the title of the publication.

Times atlas of the world. (1990). New York: New York Times.

Article in an anthology (a book with articles by many authors):

- Put the author of the chapter cited in the author position.
- Put the editor's name and title of the book after the name of the chapter. The editor's name is not inverted: the first initial is before the last name. "Ed." for editor, enclosed in parentheses, follows the editor's name. If there are two editors, neither of their names would be inverted, and they would be joined by an ampersand ("&"); "Eds." in parentheses would follow the two names.

Green, J. & Jones, M. (1993). Food and love. In B. Smith & F. White (Eds.), *Ethnic foods: An anthology* (pp. 62-93). New York: Bantam.

DATE OF PUBLICATION

General guidelines

- After the author's name, give in parentheses the year the document was copyrighted (if only the year was on the publication), or if unpublished, the year the work was produced.

Romain, T. (1998). *Cliques, phonies, & other baloney*. Minneapolis, MN: Free Spirit Publishing.

- Put a period after the date and leave one space before writing the title of the document.

The date includes a year, month, and day

- If a document has the month or month and day in addition to the year of publication, **only** include this additional information in the reference citation if the document is a *magazine*, *newspaper*, or *newsletter*, or if the article is **only** available in an *internet journal*.
- Do not abbreviate the month.

Lark, J. (1992, March 21). ADHD kids succeed. *Boston Globe*, pp. 3-4.

No date is given

- Write "n.d." (for "no date") in parentheses.

Swallow, H. (n.d.). Anti-violence programs in college dormitories. Retrieved April 3, 2001, from Indiana University, Center for Innovation in Teaching Web site: <http://www.cit.indiana.edu/publications/papers/antivio.html>

TITLE OF DOCUMENT

Book, article in a periodical, chapter in an anthology, or an article retrieved from the internet

General guidelines

- Capitalize only the first word of the title, the first word after a colon, and any proper nouns.

Smith, J. (2002). Smallpox: Mass inoculation or targeted? *Journal of Pediatric Nursing*, 5(3). Retrieved May 14, 2001, from <http://jpn.org/articles.html>

- Put a period after the title and leave one space before writing the publication information.

Should the name of a book be italicized or underlined?

- If the document is a book, either italicize the name or underline it: do not do both.

Romain, T. (1998). *Cliques, phonies, & other baloney*. Minneapolis, MN: Free Spirit.

OR

Romain, T. (1998). Cliques, phonies, & other baloney. Minneapolis, MN: Free Spirit.

Should the name of a chapter in an anthology or an article from a journal or newspaper be italicized or underlined?

- No. Do not italicize, underline, or enclose in quotation marks the title of a chapter in an anthology or an article from a journal or newspaper.

Green, J., & Jones, M. (1993). Food and love. In B. Smith & F. White (Eds.), *Ethnic foods: An anthology* (pp. 62-93). New York: Bantam.

Should the title of an internet document be italicized (or underlined)?

- **Yes, if** the document only exists as a web page: it does not come from a database and has never been printed in any form of periodical.

Lead poisoning is a scam! (n.d.). Retrieved May 2, 2001, from <http://www.scamsforyou.com/lead.html>

- **Yes, if** the document is from a multi-section website, such as a university

Swallow, H. (n.d.). *Anti-violence programs in college dormitories*. Retrieved April 3, 2001, from Indiana University, Center for Innovation in Teaching Web site: <http://www.cit.indiana.edu/publications/papers/antivio.html>

- **Do not** italicize or underline the title of an internet document if neither of the above criteria applies.

PUBLICATION INFORMATION

Books

- Give the publisher's location.

Give the city and state for U.S. publishers; use the two-letter U.S. Postal Service abbreviations for the state. The following cities may be listed without a state: Baltimore, Boston, Chicago, Los Angeles, New York, Philadelphia, and San Francisco.

The following cities may be given without a country: Amsterdam, Jerusalem, London, Milan, Moscow, Paris, Rome, Stockholm, Tokyo, and Vienna.

If two or more publisher locations are given, use the one listed first or, if specified, the location of the publisher's home office.

- Put a colon after the publisher's location.
- Give the publishing company's name. You may omit the words "Publishers," "Co.," and "Inc." Retain the words "Books" and "Press."

Green, J., & Jones, M. (1993). Food and love. In B. Smith & F. White (Eds.), *Ethnic foods: An anthology* (pp. 62-93). New York: Bantam.

- If author and publisher are the same, use the word "Author" as the publisher.

National Institute of Mental Health. (1977). *Drug abuse in teenage populations*. Rockville, MD: Author.

- Put a period after the name of the publisher.

Romain, T. (1998). *Cliques, phonies, & other baloney*. Minneapolis, MN: Free Spirit.

Article from a journal or newspaper

- After the name of the article, give in **italics** (or underlined) the complete name of the journal or newspaper. Use **both capital and lower case** letters. Put a comma and one space after the name of the journal or newspaper.

Lark, J. (1992, March 21). ADHD kids success. *Boston Globe*, pp. 3-4.

- If known, give the volume number of the journal, in **italics** (or underlined), after the title of the journal. Put a comma and one space after the volume number if there is no issue number.

Smith, J. (1999). Nursing today [Electronic version]. *Journal of Nursing*, 7, 181-183.

- If known, give the issue number of the journal in parentheses after the volume number. There is **no space** between the volume number and parenthesis. The issue number should **not** be **italicized** (or underlined). Put a comma after the issue number and leave one space before writing the page number(s).

Green, J. (1994). Superfoods? *Journal of Nutrition*, 14(5), 22-27.

- Give the page numbers for the article; do not use "p." or "pp." except for the pages in a newspaper or a chapter in an anthology. Be sure to leave a space after the "p." or "pp." before the page number. (Use a lower case letter "p" with a period after it ("p.") for an article which is no longer than one page; use lower case "pp" with a period after it ("pp.") for a multi-page article.)

Green, J. (1994, May). Superfoods? *Journal of Nutrition*, 14(5), 22-27.

Green, J., & Jones, M. (1993). Food and love. In B. Smith & F. White (Eds.), *Ethnic foods: An anthology* (pp. 62-93). New York: Bantam.

Lark, J. (1992, March 21). ADHD kids succeed. *Boston Globe*, pp. 3-4.

- Put a period after the page number(s).

Chapter in an anthology

- After the title of the chapter, write "in" and give the editor's name, **not inverted** but with the first letter of the first name first and then the surname.
- Follow the editor's name with "Ed." in parentheses and then a comma and one space. Use "Eds." if there is more than one editor.
- Give the name of the book in **italics** (or underlined), followed by the pages of the chapter in parentheses and a period and one space. Use "pp." (for "pages") before the page numbers.
- Give the city of publication followed by a colon and then the publishing company's name followed by a period.

Green, J., & Jones, M. (1993). Food and love. In B. Smith & F. White (Eds.), *Ethnic foods: An anthology* (pp. 62-93). New York: Bantam.

DOCUMENTS FROM THE INTERNET

Article is based on a print source but retrieved from the Internet

This includes articles from the EBSCOhost database which are printed in **PDF format only**, not HTML.

- Write "Electronic version" after the name of the article, enclosing it in brackets. Put a period after the brackets.

- Give the journal name (italicized, in upper and lower case letters), journal number (italicized), issue (if known) in parentheses but not italicized (and with no space between it and the journal number), and page number(s) of the article (do **not** use “p.” or “pp.” to indicate page numbers).
- Put a period after the page number(s).

Smith, J. (1999). *Nursing today* [Electronic version]. *Journal of Nursing*, 7, 181-183.

Article is based on a print source but has been changed from the original

Changes could include page numbers not being given or additional information being added.

- Do **not** write “Electronic Version” after the title of the article.
- Instead, give the date retrieved and the uniform resource locator (URL).
- Do **not** put a period after the URL.

Smith, J. (2002). *Smallpox: Mass inoculation or targeted?* *Journal of Pediatric Nursing*, 5(3). Retrieved May 14, 2001, from <http://jpn.org/articles.html>

Article is only available in an internet journal

- After the title of the article, give the journal name (italicized or underlined, in upper and lower case letters), journal number (italicized or underlined), and the article number.
- Give the date retrieved (including the month and day if known) and the URL. Do not put a period after the URL.

Whitehouse, W. G., Orne, E. C., & Dinges, D. F. (2003, October 18). Demand characteristics: Toward an understanding of their meaning and application in clinical practice. *Prevention & Treatment*, 5, Article 34. Retrieved July 9, 2003, from <http://journals.apa.org/prevention/volume5/pre0050034i.html>

Article is only available as an internet web page

The article has **not** been identified as having originated in a print or online journal.

- After the title of the article, give the date retrieved and the URL. Do not put a period after the URL.

Lamont, D. (2002). *Fear of drugs tops ADHD parent's list*. Retrieved May 9, 2002, from <http://www.adhd.com/talk/guest.htm>

Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) document

- If the institution that produced the document is given, give its location as the publisher's location and then the name of the institution as the publisher. **Put the period after the publisher's name.** Then put the ERIC document number in parentheses, the date it was retrieved, and the database.

Griffith, T. (1987). *The audio-visual marketing handbook for independent schools*. Boston, MA: Committee on Boarding Schools. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED315030) Retrieved April 15, 2002, from ERIC E*Subscribe database.

- If the institution that produced the document is not given, put the ERIC document number in parentheses after the title of the article, a period, the date the document was retrieved, and the database.

Suchenski, M. (2001). *A comparative look at bilingual-bicultural education in Mexico and Guatemala*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED470502) Retrieved May 10, 2003, from ERIC E*Subscribe database.

- If the document includes a report number, put that in the reference citation as well.

Mead, J. V. (1992). *Looking at old photographs: Investigating the teacher tales that novice teachers bring with them* (Report No. NCRL-RR-92-4). East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Training. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED346082) Retrieved December 14, 2003, from ERIC E*Subscribe database.

Article from a database such as WilsonSelect-Plus or from the EBSCOhost database printed in HTML format

See above for documents retrieved from the EBSCOhost database printed in PDF format.

- Give the date retrieved.
- Do not give the URL.
- Give the name of the database with a period after it.

Bower, B. (2002). ADHD may lower volume of brain. *Science News*, 162(15), 227. Retrieved June 11, 2003, from Wilson-SelectPlus database.

Note: For documents retrieved from a database in EBSCOhost database, do **not** give the EBSCOhost database as the database from which the document was retrieved. Do give the database within EBSCOhost from which the document was retrieved.

APA WEB SITES FOR APA DOCUMENTATION

- <http://apastyle.org>
- http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/research/r_ap.html
- <http://www.wisc.edu/writing/Handbook/DocAPA.html>
- <http://www.dianahacker.com/writersref/resdoc.html>

Quoting, Summarizing, and Paraphrasing

HOW DO I WRITE QUOTATIONS IN MY ILP?

A quotation uses exactly the same words, punctuation marks, and spelling as the original source. You may not change a comma, a word, or even a letter of a quotation. It must appear exactly the same in your paper as it was in the book, article, or document from which you copied it. A quotation is always set off by quotation marks, one at the beginning and one at the end.

The page number of the quotation is given in the in-text citation, except if the quotation came from an online source, in which case see the instructions in "Writing Citations According to APA Style" for in-text citations for everything retrieved online.

There are two ways to give the page (or paragraph) number, depending on whether you put the author's name within the sentence or not:

When the author's name is within the sentence:

Rich (1993) stated that "there is no substitute for balanced meals" (p. 23).

- The closing quotation marks come at the end of the quote, not at the end of the sentence.
- The period should go after the closing parenthesis.

When the author's name is not within the sentence:

She reported, "ADHD is not an emergency" (Diaz, 1993, ¶ 23).

- Quotations must be introduced. This is always in the past tense, by using phrases such as:

Rich reported that "there is..."

She stated that, "There is..."

According to an expert, "There is..."

- The first letter of the first word of the quote may be capitalized or small, depending on the context. There is no set rule, so make your own decision.

When quoting, it is not necessary to give the complete original sentence. Sometimes just a few words will do:

Rich reported, "no substitute" would do as well (Green, 1993, p.23).

Sometimes you need to quote from the beginning and end of a paragraph or passage,

but not the words in the middle. In this case, use the ... punctuation mark, which is called an ellipsis. It indicates that irrelevant words have been removed from the quote. For example, here's the original:

As Rich stated, "only balanced meals provide complete nutrition and good eating habits for growing children" (1993, p. 29).

Here's the shortened quotation:

As Rich stated, "only balanced meals provide ...good eating habits for growing children" (1993, p. 29).

- *The ellipsis rarely goes at the beginning or end of a quotation, because readers already know that all quotes have been taken out of a larger context. The exception is an unfinished sentence.*

Sometimes you have to add factual information to make a quote more meaningful

to the reader. Brackets are used to show that it is not part of the original sentence:

"Rich [a school nutritionist] does not consider ketchup an acceptable vegetable" (Green, 1993, p. 42).

Sometimes one author will quote what another said.

You can only quote from the book, article, or document that you had in your hand, so this is done in the following way:

White (as cited in Green, 1994, p. 25) gave reasons for the benefits of a healthy breakfast, including "stamina, strength, and good health."

- If you never looked at White's actual article, you cannot cite it. You can only cite Green's article, in which she quoted White.
- If the source misspells a word, you must spell it the same way, but add [sic] after the word, as follows:
- Rich claimed "margareen [sic] is no substitute for butter" (1994, p. 25).
- "Sic" is a Latin word used to show that you knew that the word was misspelled, but you wanted to give the quote exactly. It can also be used when the original is sexist or racist or otherwise offensive, or if you know that a fact or number in the quote is wrong. It is always in brackets and italics, as in the above example.

If the quote is longer than forty words, set it off

in a block by starting a new line and indenting all of it five spaces from the left margin. (Use the "paragraph indent" command to do this on the computer.) It must still be introduced as a quote, double-spaced, and an in-text citation must be used. For example:

As Lox (1992) stated:

In recent years, the common breakfast of the working person has changed. In a more relaxed time, a full breakfast of eggs, sausage, and toast was lovingly prepared each morning, usually by the female spouse of the typically male wage earner. In today's world of two-worker families, a donut and coffee from the convenience store is more likely (p.34).

- No quotation marks are used with a long quote.
- End the last sentence with a period.
- Put the page number in parentheses right after the long quote, and do not put a period after the parentheses.

HOW DO I PARAPHRASE OR SUMMARIZE?

Both paraphrasing and summarizing require you to put the original quote into your own words, but this must be done so that a reader would not feel that the ideas, words, and sentence structure are almost the same as the original. You cannot simply plug in words that mean the same thing for the original words, such as "laborer" for "worker."

Do not keep the same sentence structure. If your words and sentence structure are too close to the original, this is considered plagiarism, a form of cheating, and it is against the rules of all schools and businesses. The best way to avoid the appearance of plagiarism is to rewrite the sentence without looking at the original. After doing that, check it against the original to make sure it means the same but is worded substantially differently.

When you paraphrase, you must provide an in-text citation that credits the ideas or words to the author and year.

It is not necessary to give a page number for a paraphrase or summary. Do not use quote marks unless you are giving an exact quotation! For example, here is the original quote:

As Lox (1992) stated:

In recent years, the common breakfast of the working person has changed. In a more relaxed time, a full breakfast of eggs, sausage, and toast was lovingly prepared each morning, usually by the female spouse of the typically male wage earner. In today's world of two-worker families, a donut and coffee from the convenience store is more likely. (p. 34)

Here is an UNACCEPTABLE paraphrase of the above quote.

It is unacceptable because it is almost the same length, has the same sentence structure, and synonyms are plugged in for each word.

Lately, the first meal of the day of workers has changed. Back in slower times, the complete eggs, sausage, and toast breakfast was carefully cooked every day by the wife of the worker, who was usually a man. Today, because families have two workers, it's more likely to be donuts and coffee from the convenience store (Lox, 1992).

Here is an ACCEPTABLE paraphrase of the quote:

Breakfast has changed in recent years. There is no longer a wife with time to prepare the elaborate eggs, sausage and toast feast for her working husband. Now, both work and are probably grabbing donuts and coffee on their way there (Lox, 1992).

- In the acceptable version, the words and sentence structure are far from the original, but the same information and ideas are expressed. To paraphrase successfully, you must be clear about the main idea and the tone in which it is expressed.

Here is an acceptable summary of the example above.

With more two-worker families, there is no one at home to cook breakfast, so it has changed from a well-balanced meal to a quick snack on the run.

- The summary uses far fewer and different words than the original.

Citation Worksheet

For every book, article, or online document that you gather for writing your ILP, fill out a copy of this form as completely as you can.

Book

Author(s) or editor(s) name(s) _____

Title _____

Date _____ City & state where published _____

Publisher _____

For an article in an anthology (book with many articles by different authors in it), you will also need:

Title of article _____

Name(s) of author(s) of article _____

First page # _____ Last page # _____ Publication date of article (if given) _____

Article in a magazine, newspaper, or journal

Author(s) name(s) _____

Title of article _____

Name of periodical _____

First page # _____ Last page # _____ Date of publication _____

Volume number _____ Issue number _____

For an online article or document, you will also need:

URL address _____

Copyright date _____ Date you retrieved it from internet _____

Name of database (if any) _____

For more instructions for online documents, see Using and Citing Your Sources.

LIBRARY RESOURCES & USEFUL BOOKS

CAMBRIDGE COLLEGE LIBRARY RESOURCES

For complete information about Cambridge College library services and resources, and basic academic research skills, Go to www.cambridgecollege.edu/library/research.cfm/. The following are especially recommended:

- How to Use CCOL and Your Local Traditional Library (handbook)
- How to Identify and Read a Scholarly Article or Book (article)
- How to Read a Scholarly Article in Education (article)
- Checklist for an Informational Web Page (article)

BOOKS

Note: APA style requires double-spacing, but items are single-spaced here to save paper. This appendix is NOT in the APA format for the references page, which is a single list alphabetized by the author's last name, and which only includes items referred to in in-text citations.

Another note: some of these books may no longer be available in exactly these editions. Look for most recent editions.

Guides to Writing Research Papers

Hacker, D. (2000). *A writer's reference: With MLA's and APA's 1999 guidelines*. New York: Bedford Books.

Lester, J. D. (1999). *Writing research papers: A complete guide (9th ed.)*. New York: Longman.

Style Manual

American Psychological Association. (2001). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association (5th ed.)*. Washington, DC: Author.

Guides to Grammar & Composition

Barzun, J. (1985). *Simple and direct: a rhetoric for writers (rev. ed.)*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press

Crews, F. (1977). *Random house handbook (2nd ed.)*. New York: Random House.

Hodges, J. C., & Whitten, M. E. (1997). *Harbrace college handbook (8th ed.)*. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovitch.

Strunk, W., & White, E. B. (1979). *Elements of style (3rd ed.)*. New York: Macmillan.

Books to Motivate You

Goldberg, N. (1998). *Writing down the bones: Freeing the writer within*. Boston: Shambala.

Lamott, A. (1994). *Bird by bird: Some instructions on writing and life*. New York: Doubleday Anchor Books.

Shaughnessy, S. (1993). *Walking on alligators: A book of meditations for writers*. San Francisco: Harper San Francisco.

Books to Help You Plan & Organize

Achity, K. (1995). *A writer's time: Making the time to write*. New York: Norton and Company.

Burka, J. B., & Yuen, L. M. (1990). *Procrastination: Why you do it, what to do about it*. Cambridge, MA: Perseus Press.

von Oech, R. (1986). *A kick in the seat of the pants: Using your explorer, artist, judge, and warrior to be more creative*. New York: Harper and Row Perennial Library.

Books to Help You Plan & Write a Curriculum or Lesson Plans

Mager, R. F. (1997). *Making instruction work: Of skillbloomers: A step-by-step guide to designing and developing instruction that works*. Atlanta, GA: Center for Effective Performance.

Mager, R. F. (1973). *Measuring instructional intent*. Belmont, CA: Lear Siegler Inc./Fearon.

Mager, R. F. (1975). *Preparing instructional objectives (2nd ed.)*. Belmont, CA: Fearon-Pitman.

Books to Help You Do Research

Basch, R., & Bates, M. E. (2000). *Researching online for dummies*. New York: Hungry Minds.

Metzler, K. (1996). *Creative interviewing: The writer's guide to gathering information by asking questions*. New York: Allyn and Bacon.



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- Stern, P. N. (1980). Grounded theory methodology: Its uses and processes. *Images 12*, 20-23

FORMATTING INSTRUCTIONS & EXAMPLE ILP

Formatting & Typing

Font must be 12 point Times Roman.

Margins on all pages must be one inch on all sides.

Spacing

The entire ILP must be double-spaced, including the abstract and the references, except for tables in which double spacing would appear awkward and be difficult to read.

Paragraph Format

Indent the first line of every paragraph, with a tab set at 5-7 spaces (about 0.3 inch).

Headings

Most ILPs will use either two levels or three levels of headings, as defined by the APA Publication Manual (3.31-3.32).

Two Levels

Centered Uppercase and Lowercase Heading
<i>Flush left, Italicized Uppercase and Lowercase Heading</i>

Three levels

Centered Uppercase and Lowercase Heading
<i>Flush left, Italicized Uppercase and Lowercase Heading</i>
<i>Indented, italicized, lowercase paragraph heading, ending with a period, with following text starting on the same line.</i>

Chapters must each have a title and begin on a new page.

Documentation

Everything which has been borrowed from a specific source must be documented to the original source. Such material includes direct quotations; facts and figures found in a single specific source or those which are not universally accepted, ideas, theories, opinion, and arrangement of material even when paraphrased. Reference citations in the text must be made using APA format (3.87-3.89) and the citation of pages in a book (3.101).

Tables & Figures

For instructions on formatting tables, figures, graphs and illustrations, see APA 3.60-3.86. When possible, tables should be placed between logically related paragraphs. Material preceding the table should introduce it. Tables appearing on separate pages should immediately follow their discussion.

Running Head & Page Numbering

The title page has no page number.

Preliminary pages, immediately following the title page, have page numbers as lower-case roman numerals at the center bottom of the page.

Beginning with the first page of chapter I, all pages must have a running head (no more than three words) followed by five spaces and a page number.

APA Publication Manual

Each college uses one publication manual as the standard for its students' academic projects. Many colleges in the field of education use the APA Manual. You are required to follow the current edition of The Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 5th Edition (2001). It gives detailed instructions for:

Content and organization

Formatting the pages and the document

- Style and Grammar (2.10 – 2.11)
- Punctuation and Spelling (3.01 – 3.10, 4.11)
- Capitalization and Italics (3.12 – 3.19)
- Levels of Headings (3.31-3.32)
- Statistics and Mathematics (4.14, 3.42 – 3.58)

Incorporating other authors' works and citing your sources

- Quotations (3.06, 3.38 – 3.41, 4.13)
- See also "Using and Citing Your Sources."

Title Page

Instructions

What is the title page? — Open the cover of any Cambridge College ILP and the first thing you'll see is a title page. This contains the title of your ILP, your name, your seminar leader's name, your anticipated degree, the name of your college, and your graduation date (month, year), all presented in a standardized format.

Follow the format (spacing, use of capitals, etc.) exactly as shown here or as directed by your seminar leader.

Here's an example of a typical Cambridge College ILP title page. Note that it does not have a page number.

Example

UNDERSTANDING THE SPECIAL EDUCATION LABEL: A GUIDE FOR PARENTS AND TEACHERS

An Independent Learning Project Presented by

Kristy W. Eng

To

Pro Sem Leader's Name

Professor and Faculty Advisor

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for
the degree of Master of Education:

Teacher of Students with Moderate Disabilities (PreK-8)

Cambridge College
Cambridge, Massachusetts

month, year

Copyright Page**Instructions**

The example below shows the language that should be used on a Cambridge College ILP copyright page.

The copyright page is the second page, immediately after the title page. Place your copyright notice in the lower half of the page. This is the first page that has a page number. Use a lower case roman numeral (i) in the bottom margin.

This is the first of four preliminary pages immediately following the title page. These pages are numbered with roman numerals at the center bottom of the page.

Example

This is an unpublished Independent Learning Project

In which copyright subsists

© copyright by Kristy W. Eng
August, 2007

All Rights Reserved

Since this manuscript is not intended for publication,
some of the charts, graphs, photos, pictures and drawings
were used without permission of the authors. This copy is
not for distribution to the public.

Acknowledgements	Instructions
This is optional. Only those who actually aided in the ILP should be mentioned. Acknowledgements should be written in third person and in a professional, tactful manner. Type the heading in capitals, centered, 1" from the top of the paper.	
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	Example
<p>This Independent Learning Project was a long and strenuous task that could not have been completed without the support and encouragement of my family and friends. These people gave me the motivation, distraction, and love that I needed to complete this project.</p> <p>First, I would like to thank my family. Mom and Dad, thank you for your continuous support throughout my life. You have always provided the emotional and financial support that I so desperately needed throughout high school and college. It was your encouragement and high expectations that pushed me to get my master’s degree. I would also like to thank my brother, Jeff. You are one of the most dedicated and diligent people that I know. Thank you for always showing me that hard work pays off.</p> <p>I would also like to thank my friends for supporting me during these stressful times. TB, you were always there for me even when I was at my worst. You always believed in me and gave me the support, love, and motivation to complete every task. I would also like to thank my friends MF, GB, KD, and SC for always making me laugh and providing me with much-needed distractions.</p> <p>Thank you BS, soon to be BO, for always motivating me to get through the intense parts of the process and never letting me give up. After many never-ending work sessions together, we have finally finished our Independent Learning Projects.</p> <p>Finally, I want to thank my professor, George Flynn. Thank you for your guidance, feedback, and encouragement during the process. I am constantly inspired by your dedication, enthusiasm, and commitment to education. Thanks for everything.</p> <p>ii</p>	

Abstract**Instructions**

The abstract should be one paragraph, double spaced, 120 words or less; no longer than one page. (APA 1.07).

ABSTRACT**Example**

This Independent Learning Project (ILP) is focused on the special education label and how a label affects students at the elementary level. Students with labels are students identified as having a disability. This ILP investigates the effects of the special education label on the student's academic and social life. Research on this topic so far has explored the intricate relationship between students with disabilities and their teachers. Researchers have found that teachers' attitudes about students with disabilities greatly influences the educational and social opportunities provided for these students. Research has also investigated how students with disabilities perceive themselves as a students with a label and how peers perceive students with a label. Generally, these studies have found that students with a disability, and a label as a result of the disability, tend to have a poor self concept. As well, peers tend to view these students more negatively.

This ILP further investigates the area of self concept of students with disabilities and a label, and further investigates how peers view students with disabilities and a label, using the population of students in the large school in which I teach. Based on the outcomes of my investigation I developed a guide for parents and teachers to help them understand the effects of labeling and to provide strategies they can use to develop more positive experiences for students with a label.

Table of Contents	Instructions
<p>Save yourself a lot of time and frustration:</p> <p>(1) Compile it AFTER you have written everything else, and</p> <p>(2) most word processing programs can automatically format it for you.</p>	<p>Hint: Before you begin typing you ILP, go to the HELP menu for your word processing program and look up "table of contents." Here you'll find out how to format your document so that the word processor can compile the table of contents for you.</p>
Example	
TABLE OF CONTENTS	
Chapter I	
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Chapters 1-4

Instructions

Follow general formatting and typing instructions on p. 39.

Chapter 1

Example

Introduction

“I want to be just like the other kids.”

“I just want my child to be normal.”

“I don’t want to be different.”

“My child isn’t special. He’s just like every other kid.”

Unfortunately, these are comments that are made daily by children with special needs and their parents. All children want to be normal, like every other child at their age. Parents, likewise, want to see their children develop “normally,” without obstacles that may make their lives difficult and different than others. However, what is normal?

According to the dictionary, normal means “average intelligence or development” (Webster’s New World Collegiate Dictionary, 1997, p. 725). Being normal implies being like the general population of people. When a child desires to be normal, he or she wants to act, learn, and play like all of the other children that he or she encounters. When a parent desires a child to be normal, he or she wants the child to develop, learn, and live like a typically developing child. Conversely, not everyone can abide by these dreams and desires of normalcy.

The population of children labeled with special needs is increasing everyday. In order to have this label, a child must be in need of special support services due to developmental, physical, or mental challenges. These children, although they may desire to be normal, are uniquely different from the general population. They require the assistance of others to learn and master tasks that other children may learn easily and quickly.

Optimistically, the special education label is created to aid a child through his or her challenges. With an Individual Education Plan (IEP), children with special needs are required to get the services that they need in order to progress successfully. For example, children with learning disabilities often get services from a special education teacher who can modify the curriculum to suit their levels and needs. A child with many developmental and physical challenges may have difficulty accessing the general education curriculum and therefore, may need to receive various therapies, life skills instruction, and other support services. In addition, from a professional point of view, an IEP allows service providers, like teachers and therapists, to learn more about a child's individual needs and understand his or her challenges. Therefore, these service providers are better equipped to provide these children with the services that they really need.

On the other hand, the special education label can also be a detriment to a child's well being. As stated previously, most children just want to be like everyone else; they want to be normal. Once children have special education labels, these labels follow them throughout their academic lives. This permanent label shows the child that he or she is different. Most children with these labels realize that they are different from their peers. They notice it in class, at recess, at lunch, and throughout their lives. Sometimes, they will wonder why they can't understand everything the teacher is presenting while the other students are furiously taking notes. At lunch, while their peers are jabbering quickly about the latest video games and television shows, these children wonder why they cannot comprehend them and join in on these quick-paced discussions. At recess, while other children are actively playing games in teams, these children wonder why they cannot fit in with them. Although labels are designed to help these children become successful, they may be holding them back in other ways.

In this project, I will be exploring the positive and negative effects of the special education label. I will specifically be studying children at the elementary level, since it is usually at this level that children are evaluated and labeled. Through this study, I hope to develop a better understanding of how special education labels can help and hurt our children both academically and

socially. I will also explore how children with labels feel about themselves and how their peers see them. With this, I also hope to study the insight of both parents and teachers. Additionally, I would like to produce a guide for both parents and teachers to aid them in understanding the value of the special education label and how we can use the label to enhance these children's successes.

Problem Statement

In the past, it seemed that the population of typically developing students far outweighed the population of students with special needs. Every classroom seemed to have children working at the same level on the same materials. As a typically developing student in small elementary school, I never noticed any differences from my peers in my classroom. We read out of the same textbooks, had the same tests, and filled out the same workbooks. All of the students seemed to know every student, every teacher, and every classroom except for one. There was one classroom in the school where the students seemed a bit different from everyone else at the school.

This classroom, separated from many of the busiest hallways, was a classroom for students with special needs. It consisted of less than ten students and three teachers. However, the only time that we would see these students was at arrival and dismissal. They ate their lunches in the classroom and never came out to recess with the rest of the school. Although interactions with these students were rare, I sadly remember hearing some of my peers tormenting the students from this classroom by calling them names and humiliating them.

During my years in elementary school, these students were confined to one classroom, sent to alternate placements, or were left undiagnosed. However, the educational system and the population that it services have dramatically transformed since that time. The population of students with special needs has radically increased and inundated general education classrooms. Early intervention has allowed students to be recognized and diagnosed earlier for various disabilities. Therefore, there has been a growing need for support for these students both in and out of the classroom.

As a teacher in a school with a large population of students with special needs, I have experienced many different types of classrooms. The classrooms that I experienced in elementary school no longer exist. Integrated classrooms contain both role model students and students with special needs, while learning centers provide support for students with special needs who need some help in the regular education setting. Resource rooms are designed to contain students with specific labels who have difficulty reaching success in regular education settings. Nevertheless, no matter where each student receives his or her academic instruction and what special education label he or she may have, each student has access to many social opportunities to interact with other typically developing students in other classrooms. The current educational system ensures that these students with special education labels have lunch, recess, subjects with their typically developing peers, and total access to the general education curriculum. However, this does not shield these students from name-calling, cruelty, and humiliation from their peers that has existed since my elementary school days and many years before them.

Unfortunately, I see this form of abuse in the hallways everyday. Some students make fun of them behind their backs, while others say these hurtful comments to their faces. Others are not as blatant; they just give these students distasteful faces or choose not to sit near them. Sadly, this behavior is a result of their differences from the normal population. In many cases, a special education label can socially and emotionally crush a student's self esteem. I often wonder how students with labels feel about themselves. How would they describe themselves? How do they feel when they are with their typically developing peers? In my study, I hope to explore these answers and also investigate how their peers feel about them.

Since the population of students with special needs is on the rise, all teachers must be equipped to support and provide instruction for all students with special education labels. After talking to many regular education and special education teachers, I have found that many of them feel overwhelmed with the increase of students with special needs. Although these children have special education labels, teachers are not confident about how to approach them, both

academically and behaviorally. After talking to many parents, I realized that many of them feel frustrated, hopeless, and lost. Like the teachers, they are unsure of methods to help their children succeed both academically and socially. Consequently, in my study, I would like to research how teachers and parents interact with children with special labels and answer the following questions. How can we educate parents and teachers about the value of the special education label? What strategies can both parents and teachers use to aid and support children with special education labels? What can parents and teachers do to diminish the negative effects of the label and provide positive experiences for children?

Rationale

This study is important to do because it will address how parents and teachers can promote successful experiences for students with special education labels by having a better understanding of the academic and social consequences of these labels. This independent learning project will specifically explore the positive and negative effects of the special education label and detail strategies for parents and teachers to enhance the experiences of students with labels. I would like to focus on how labels can affect students socially and academically. The research will express the views and insights of students with labels, peers, teachers, and parents and that makes the study relevant and important.

Since I have listened to many of the frustrations and distress of parents and teachers, I believe I know what I should include in my independent learning project to guide both parents and teachers. The guide will be designed to be informative, concise, and useful. I would like it to inform parents and teachers of the value of the special education label by answering the following question. How can the label help children in the classroom, as well as out of the classroom? Additionally, the manual will include strategies and techniques for parents and teachers to encourage positive experiences for children with labels. The strategies will highlight activities and practices that they can perform easily to promote success. The purpose of the guide is not to overwhelm parents and teachers with verbose information and techniques that are impossible

to perform; the purpose is to educate parents and teachers about the special education label and what they can do to support these students. That is why it is worth doing.

Anticipated Outcomes

I anticipate finding that there are positive and negative effects of the special education label that can have both academic and social consequences. I believe that my research will show that students with labels feel estranged from their population of peers. From my experiences, I have found that these students are often uncomfortable in situations with their typically developing peers; they lack the confidence and skills to build meaningful relationships. Therefore, students with labels can feel left out and different. On the other hand, the behaviors and attitudes of typically developing students encourage students with labels to feel this way. Through my research, I expect to find that typically developing students also feel uncomfortable around students with labels. This may be a result of ignorance, since many students do not seem to understand how or why students with special needs are different.

Additionally, with my research, I hope to understand the views of both teachers and parents. I expect that many teachers will feel frustrated with the rising population of students with special education labels because of their lack of understanding of these labels. In many cases, I have found that teachers feel uncertain with how to teach and treat students with labels. Furthermore, parents of students with labels are also uncertain with the effects that these labels may have on their children, both academically and socially. Therefore, I believe that my research and guide will be useful to outline the positive and negative effects of the special education label and discuss strategies to enhance success outcomes for students with special education labels.

Research Question

How can special education labels help and hurt children at the elementary level?

Chapter II

Labels: Definitions and Dilemmas

A student with a label refers to a student with a disability. However, the definitions of disabilities can be both complex and verbose. Speece and Harry (1997) suggest examining the social and scientific construction of the term disability in order to understand fully this classification process that is so often used for students. Social construction refers to the idea that a society has decided upon what is considered to be “beyond acceptable boundaries” (Speece & Harry, 1997, p. 65). Therefore, when a student has a disability, s/he demonstrates a mental or physical abnormality that is not within the realm of our society’s norms.

The social construction of disability suggests that there is an accepted norm in our society that is not attainable by students with disabilities. However, social construction is not the only criterion to obtain this label. The social construction of disability explains that students with disabilities have conditions that inhibit them in our society. Therefore, these skills that they lack must be valued highly in our society (Speece & Harry, 1997). For example, literacy is considered an important life skill. The emphasis on this skill can be exemplified through everyday situations and actions. A weakness in this area is considered to be a disability, because it deviates from the norm and is significant to our society. However, a characteristic that is considered a norm but is not significant will not necessarily translate into a disability. Someone who cannot tie his or her shoelaces does not necessarily have a disability, because this specific skill does not have significance when discussing functioning in our society.

There also exists a discrepancy when discussing this concept, due to the value of the labels to people of varying socioeconomic statuses and people with cultural differences. Studies have shown that parents in the United States who are from working class or minority backgrounds have different views of acceptable and normal when referring to their children’s cognitive development or literacy progress (Harry, 1992). This is also true of parents from societies that are technologically underdeveloped. In one study, Harry (1992) interviewed Puerto-Rican parents

from working class backgrounds with children with disabilities. When asked for the differences between mild mental retardation and learning disability, many parents responded similarly. They believed that mild mental retardation implied a serious condition while a learning disability was considered a reason for minimal concern (Harry, 1992).

Despite the variation of theories surrounding particular labels, labels have become a permanent part of our educational system. With the population of students with disabilities steadily increasing, it is imperative to explore how labels can be helpful or detrimental. We can only begin to develop interventions to reduce the damaging outcomes of labels after we understand the positive and negative effects of them. However, the research done on this topic is limited.

Labels can be extremely beneficial for students with disabilities. "A label can be the beginning of services and treatments that a student can receive" (Gallagher, 1976, p. 123). Once a student is identified with a specific disability, a label can further explain identifying characteristics of the disability as well as aid in appropriating services which can later compensate for his or her weaknesses. Furthermore, teachers are better able to create accommodations for students with disabilities if they can recognize the students' strengths and weaknesses.

Labeling is also important to the future of our society. Given that there are many different types of disabilities, labels provide distinctions within this extensive list. As a result, by studying these distinctions, scientists are better able to research the etiologies and causes of these disabilities, which can promote prevention in the future (Gallagher, 1976). Moreover, due to the increase of labels, there has been an increase in legal actions and financial support for resources that can help students with disabilities. Bills and laws such as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act ensure that the rights of these individuals are preserved, while additional funds can provide more professionals to implement interventions and more research to be done about causes, preventative measures and treatments.

On the other hand, Gallagher (1976) explains that labels can be detrimental if used inappropriately. In some cases, labels are used as answers to difficult students. When a teacher encoun-

ters a difficult student, s/he may feel relieved when a label becomes attached to that student. It provides a justification for the student's attitudes and behaviors while also "tranquilizing" the teacher (Gallagher, 1976, p. 125). When this occurs, treatment and interventions are not sought, which may impede on the student's progress.

The Effects of Teachers' Attitudes and Behaviors

The relationships between teachers and students are intricate and complex. The interactions between a teacher and his or her students are greatly influenced by the teacher's feelings and attitudes about each individual. However, what research has been done to expand on these crucial relationships?

Many investigations have been carried out to expose teachers' attitudes and behaviors towards their students, but they have yet to explain how these may affect the students' feelings and self esteem. Through observations, Silberman (1969) identified three types of teacher behavior that served as a means of communication with the students. Contact occurs when the teacher initiates communication. For example, during a lesson, the teacher may ask a student a question about a book that they had just read together. This is considered a "contact teacher behavior" (p. 405) because the teacher specifically asks an individual a question that requires a response. Often, the occurrence of these contact behaviors exemplifies the teacher's involvement with the student. The second type of teacher behavior is positive and negative evaluation. When a teacher demonstrates "positive or negative evaluation" (p. 405), s/he examines a student's work or behavior and expresses pleasure or dismay. In these cases, evaluations can reinforce positive or negative interactions between teacher and student. A positive evaluation occurs when a teacher observes a wanted behavior, such as writing neatly, and consequently rewards the student with verbal praise. On the other hand, a negative evaluation occurs when a teacher observes an unwanted behavior and reacts negatively. A negative reaction can be exhibited through reprimanding and punishing. The last type of teacher behavior is "acquiescence" (p. 405), which refers to the teacher's reception of students' requests and questions. In contrast to contact behav-

iors, acquiescence is student-initiated; for example, when a student asks to use the stapler, the teacher's response and action are considered to be this type of behavior. Acquiescence can be both favorable and unfavorable and like positive and negative evaluation, rewards and punishments are given out according to these behaviors (Silberman, 1969).

However, these types of behaviors vary in frequency according to the teachers' attitudes towards each individual student. As suggested by Silberman (1969), there are four different categories of teachers' attitudes: attachment, concern, indifference, and rejection. Each of these attitudes has a direct effect on the teacher's behavior with the individual. When a teacher feels attached to a student, the teacher feels a special bond with the student due to the student's ability to fulfill the teacher's needs without causing difficulties for him or her. These students are seen as "bright, hard-working, and no-nonsense students" (Good & Brophy, 1972, p. 618). Since teachers seem to like these students the most, studies show that teachers do not overly attend to these students. There is some evidence that teachers purposely "suppress [their] expression of attachment" to avoid showing favoritism to these students (Silberman, 1969, p. 403). In this way, teachers attempt to limit interactions with attachment students by diminishing the number of contact, positive and negative evaluation, and acquiescence situations. Through observations and surveys, Good and Brophy (1972) found that attachment students received more praise and more opportunities within the classroom. However, these students also received less criticism because the teachers felt that these students could comprehend the information without excess explanation or feedback (Good & Brophy, 1972).

Besides attachment, teachers also showed an attitude of concern to some of their students. Teachers seem to be the most attentive to these students, because they feel a sense of sympathy for these students who may have academic or emotional problems (Silberman, 1969). According to Good and Brophy (1972), these students received the most opportunities and feedback from their teachers. Contact, positive evaluation, and acquiescence behaviors were all observed in these classrooms and the responses of the teacher were favorable in most situations. Whether

the students experienced successes or failures within the classroom, teachers seemed to express much positive feedback and positive evaluation behaviors. When a student in the concern category failed to deliver a correct response, the teacher often repeated the question or offered help to encourage success. Additionally, when these students experience successes or exhibit effort, teachers often reward and praise them. Studies show that teachers also exhibited many contact behaviors by providing the most support for these students both academically and emotionally. They also felt the most comfortable expressing their concern for these students publicly and privately; while teachers often spoke to these students privately about their concerns, they also publicly expressed their concerns through comments such as “I don’t know what to do with you next” (Good & Brophy, 1972, p. 619).

Silberman (1969) identified the third category of teachers’ attitudes as “indifference” (p. 405). Students in this category seem to be passive in the classroom and avoid interactions with teachers. While these students limited their interactions with their teachers, the teachers reacted similarly though not inappropriately. Contact behaviors were rarely observed with these students because teachers did not choose to initiate communication with them. However, when the teacher interacted with these students, responses and conversation were often brief and focused (Silberman, 1969). Although teachers provide these students with academic and social opportunities within the classroom, these students often remain silent if uncertain of the answer or completely avoid the situation (Good & Brophy, 1972). Since contact and acquiescence behaviors are uncommon and infrequent, teachers tend to exhibit positive evaluation behaviors by providing adequate feedback to their work, while avoiding negative evaluation behaviors.

The final category of teachers’ attitudes was labeled as “rejection” (Silberman, 1969, p. 407). Students in this category are often rejected by their teachers, because they are seen as a hindrance in the classroom. While indifferent students tend to be passive in the classroom, rejected students are extremely active. They make many demands within the classroom and frequently call out instead of waiting their turns. Due to their behaviors, teachers express a “re-

fusual to consider students as worthy recipients of the teachers' professional energies" (Silberman, 1969, p. 408). Some evidence shows that teachers exhibited positive evaluations and rewarded these students for favorable behavior. It seems that these teachers attempted to create a positive relationship with these students although feeling overwhelmed by them. However, when these students experienced failures in the classroom or exhibited unfavorable behaviors, teachers displayed negative evaluation behaviors by distributing punishments or criticizing their behaviors (Silberman, 1969).

The Teacher-Student Relationship

The teacher-student relationships within classrooms can have a great impact on the students' educational opportunities and progress. As stated previously, several studies have been done to investigate teachers' attitudes and behaviors in the classroom (Silberman, 1969; Good & Brophy, 1972). However, the students' views of these relationships must also be considered. Silberman (1969) studied the students' awareness of their teachers' attitudes and behavioral expressions. Through a series of questions, students had to discuss their interactions with their teachers as well as their observations of the relationships between the teachers and other students. Each question focused on a particular behavioral expression that teachers use to express the attitudes of attachment, concern, indifference, and rejection. A comparison between this data and the data from teachers and classroom observations showed that students had fairly accurate views on teachers' attitudes toward them and others (Silberman, 1969). Students were able to predict the amount of contact, negative evaluation, and acquiescence that they received. In addition, the students had accurate perceptions of their teachers' attitudes and behaviors towards other students. Therefore, students are very aware of their teachers' thoughts and feelings about them.

As a result of their awareness and understanding, students are extremely vulnerable to the impact of the quality of the teacher-student relationship. This is also true for students with disabilities. After reviewing responses from students with disabilities, Murray and Greenberg (2006) found that some students believe that their behavior problems are a consequence of nega-

tive teacher-student relationships. Therefore these negative relationships can hinder a student's educational experiences as well as encourage an increase in conflict. In contrast, students who experienced positive teacher relationships felt supported and attached to their teachers. Additionally, these positive relationships allowed students to feel less anxious in the classroom (Murray and Greenberg, 2006). Since these interactions have such an impact on students' perceptions of themselves and their experiences in school, it would be essential to further study the teacher-student relationship to develop appropriate interventions to aid in situations that may cause conflict or negative encounters. This is particularly imperative for students with disabilities since they are more susceptible to depression, as well as social and academic difficulties (Al-Yagon & Mikulincer, 2004; Al-Yagon, 2007; Maag & Reid, 2006).

Assessing Social Competence in Students with Disabilities

In order to understand how students with disabilities perceive themselves and how their peers view them, it is important to grasp an understanding of the social competence of these students. Much research has explored this topic in hopes of developing a fair and accurate assessment of the social competence in students with disabilities. However, many researchers have found that the existing assessments of social competence are inadequate and incomplete when making conclusions about the perceptions of students with disabilities (Haager & Vaughn, 1997).

In his work, Killen (1989) described three social processes that embodied the social development of an individual. These processes of interpretation, evaluation, and coordination of social events were influenced by context, conflict, and social coordination. These dimensions outlined the defining characteristics of social competence, although they were not fully explored through many current forms of assessment (Haager & Vaughn, 1997).

According to Killen (1989), context refers to the setting of a social interaction. The difference in context from one situation to another can greatly impact the reaction of a student with disabilities; these students tend to behave differently at home as opposed to at school or other settings (Haager & Vaughn, 1997). Therefore, it is essential that assessments for social compe-

tency explore various settings and experiences. Unfortunately, many past studies restrict these assessments to the school environment, where many students with disabilities feel the most uncomfortable.

Killen's second dimension of social competence is centered upon conflicts. This refers to how an individual is able to handle various events and behaviors. When attempting to assess this area, researchers often turn to observations and reports that are completed by people who interact with the subjects. In the case of students with disabilities, evaluations are filled out by teachers, parents, and peers. In addition, many studies include the views and interpretations of the students with disabilities. Nevertheless, this area is the most difficult to draw conclusions from due to this type of feedback. In particular, students with disabilities may have communication or memory problems which can affect the accuracy of the data (Haager & Vaughn, 1997).

Social coordination involves the initiation, reactions, and responses of individuals in social situations (Killen, 1989). Though the research on this topic has been limited when referring to students with disabilities, this process is also very difficult to assess. Studies in this area are based on observations, evaluations from others, and self-report. However, the range of social competency of students with disabilities develops a challenge for researchers to understand fully their social coordination. While some of these individuals have communication problems, some do not and are able to "talk [their] way out of anything" (Haager & Vaughn, 1997, p. 132). Therefore, their ability to communicate may be independent of their social coordination.

Although the task of assessing the social competence of students with disabilities is complex, Haager and Vaughn (1997) developed a variety of ways to assess four significant factors that influence the social competence of an individual: accurate / age- appropriate social cognition, social skills, the absence of maladaptive behaviors, and positive relations with others. Social cognition involves the study of an individual's cognitive processes to draw conclusions about his or her ability to comprehend others' behaviors and social situations. While this is an important part of understanding social competency, Haager and Vaughn (1997) express their dif-

faculty with assessing this area. Unfortunately, studies in this area have been limited.

In contrast, when assessing social skills (the ability to initiate and respond to social situations) and maladaptive behaviors (behaviors that would be inappropriate), past studies have relied on teacher rating scales. However, Haager and Vaughn (1997) express concerns with the reliability of these methods due to their context-specific manner. Therefore, studies would benefit from using peer assessments and independent observations in addition to the standard teacher rating scales.

In order to explore students' positive relations with others, researchers must be able to assess the relationships and perceptions of the students. However, this is a challenge when assessing the friendships of students with disabilities. Haager and Vaughn (1997) suggest that three areas must be examined: peer acceptance, social status, and friendship qualities. In order to grasp fully the students' relationships, studies should include multiple peer rating scales, positive and negative nominations, and student responses to a variety of questions. These methods should be obtained from students with and without disabilities in various contexts in order for the data to be reliable and accurate (Haager & Vaughn, 1997).

Self-Perceptions of Students with Disabilities

Due to the recent rise of the population of students with disabilities, some studies have attempted to target these students and uncover their self-perceptions. However, as stated previously, this can be a challenging task due to the implications of students with disabilities. If a student has communication impairments, then he or she may have difficulty analyzing and expressing his or her thoughts. Haager and Vaughn (1997) recognized that students with disabilities often have social difficulties that result in low self-concepts, misinterpretation of social situations, peer rejection, and vulnerability to future behavior problems (Farmer, Rodkin, Pearl & Van Acker, 1999; Lackaye & Margalit, 2006; Haager & Vaughn, 1997; Murray & Greenberg, 2006).

In 1999, Farmer, Rodkin, Pearl and Van Acker conducted a study that examined the self-

concepts of students with disabilities. They collected their data through an Interpersonal Competence Scale-Self that consists of a questionnaire based on a seven-point scale that involves topics such as popularity, athleticism, and academic ability. Although much of the data collected in this study varied due to the behaviors, characteristics, and gender of the students with disabilities, several conclusions can be made. Both boys and girls with disabilities who display aggressive behaviors are aware of their aggression although they rated themselves favorably in most areas while peers and teachers viewed them differently. In addition, these findings showed that many characteristics must be considered when assessing the social roles and perceptions of students with disabilities (Farmer, et al. 1999).

Other studies have investigated the self-perceptions of students with disabilities in other areas. Lackaye and Margarlit (2006) compared students with and without disabilities in the areas of academic achievement, effort, academic self-efficacy, loneliness, sense of coherence, mood, and hopeful thinking. Results of this study showed that these students with disabilities had lower achievement in all subjects, as well as lower levels of effort investment. Furthermore, students with disabilities recorded higher levels of loneliness and negative mood. Their high levels of loneliness exemplify their dissatisfaction with their social lives which can be an effect of peer rejection and lack of friendships (Lackaye & Margarlit, 2006; Murray & Greenberg, 2006).

Findings from Lackaye and Margarlit's (2006) study also confirmed that students with disabilities expressed lower levels of academic self-efficacy, sense of coherence, positive mood, and hopeful thinking as compared to peers without disabilities. Academic self-efficacy refers to an individual's confidence in their academic competence. Therefore, it is fair to assume that students with disabilities have lower expectations of their academic abilities. These students also lacked a sense of coherence, which refers to an individual's ability to be flexible in any situation and use appropriate coping skills when necessary. The students' low levels of hope demonstrate their lack of confidence and motivation in accomplishing goals. Additionally, Maag and Reid (2006) found that students with learning disabilities have a higher risk for developing depres-

sion. Although this study did not contain data about clinical depression, it found that students with disabilities are more susceptible to experience the symptoms of depression and experience it more severely (Maag & Reid, 2006). Studies such as these are critical to the comprehension of the self-perceptions of students with disabilities. From this study, we can conclude that students with disabilities have lower self-images and less confidence overall (Lackaye & Margarlit, 2006). Therefore, interventions can be developed to help motivate, support, and encourage students with disabilities to create more positive experiences for them.

Chapter III

Methods

The population of students with special needs is increasing daily. As these students inundate regular education classrooms, teachers must be equipped to provide these students with a quality education. However, after talking to many teachers, I have found that teachers do not feel ready for this inevitable change. Some teachers do not feel confident in their knowledge of special education; they are not aware of many of the labels in today's special education vocabulary. Furthermore, they are not sure how to teach these children or help them become successful in the classroom.

I have been a special education teacher for the past three years. My classroom consisted of students with various disabilities such as cerebral palsy, Downs Syndrome, bipolar disorder, mental retardation, Pervasive Developmental Disorder, Asperger's Syndrome, and many more. Their academic, physical, and social abilities ranged dramatically, as some students were working on the alphabet and others were reading at a fourth grade level. However, they were all in the fourth or fifth grades. Although they felt comfortable and successful in my classroom, they always wanted to be just like all the other students their ages.

This yearning to be part of the typically developing population sparked my interest in this topic. I wanted to explore the views of the teachers, students, and parents to find out how we can help students with disabilities both in and out of the classroom. In my classroom, my personal goal is to make the students feel successful and confident with their abilities. I focus on their strengths and try to help them overcome their weaknesses. However, I have realized that these students can also have negative experiences outside of the classroom that can affect the way that they feel about themselves. In addition, other teachers may not understand the needs and feelings of students with disabilities. What can teachers, parents, and peers do to encourage positive experiences for these students?

Therefore, this independent learning project investigated the views of teachers and parents about the special education label. Through surveys, teachers and parents were asked to rate the importance of the special education label. They identified their opinions about the positive and negative effects of labels. During discussions, both teachers and parents also expressed their opinions about the self-perceptions of the students with disabilities and the peer-perceptions of these students.

In addition, I developed surveys to be completed by students with disabilities and typically developing students. I also carried out face-to-face interviews with students with disabilities. Through these face-to-face interviews with students with disabilities I discovered that they wanted to discuss their dreams, fears, and experiences in and out of school. Students with disabilities also felt very open about discussing how they felt about themselves both academically and socially. I did not have typically developing students self-report through face-to-face interviews but I did have them complete structured surveys. In these surveys, typically developing students talked about their friendships with students with disabilities and they spoke very honestly about peers' attitudes towards students with disabilities.

Chapter IV

The Issue

As expected, through my research I found that teachers and parents feel frustrated, overwhelmed, and uninformed with students with disabilities. Teachers often feel stressed when receiving students with labels in their classrooms because they feel that these children need more attention and assistance. They also feel that they do not have the understanding, resources, and time to address the needs of these children. Many of the teachers also do not have a background in special education and feel that more professional development should be based on how to meet the needs of students with disabilities in inclusive settings. They feel that this kind of professional development could be very beneficial, since the numbers of students with disabilities is increasing dramatically.

After collecting the surveys of parents and discussing their experiences, I found that parents are often wary about using labels. Many are afraid that once a child is labeled, he or she is subject to ridicule. Like many students with disabilities, parents yearn for normalcy. Many parents wanted their children to be just like typically developing children, which at times, delayed the initial evaluation process. Most of the parents with children with disabilities have studied their children's labels to better understand them. However, many also felt frustrated because they wanted their children to receive the best help and services, but were unaware of how to advocate for them. Some also were unsure of how to assist them through social and academic situations at home and in school.

Additionally, my research included surveys completed by students with disabilities and typically developing students. Through these efforts, I feel that I gained more insight into the perceptions of students. Through a survey completed orally, students with disabilities discussed their dreams, fears, and experiences in and out of school. This survey also demonstrated how these students felt about themselves socially and academically. The survey completed by typically developing students was very different from the self-report. In this survey, typically devel-

oping students expressed their thoughts about students with disabilities. This survey included questions about friendships with students with disabilities, as well as questions about the peers' attitudes toward these students.

From this research, I found that students with disabilities often feel ostracized in social situations. They are unsure of how to initiate and continue conversations with their peers, which significantly impacts their peer relationships. Due to their academic weaknesses, many students also felt “dumb” and “stupid” in school and were not sure about their futures. The views of typically developing students varied. Some students did not see students with disabilities as different. They included them in all activities and felt that they would call these students their friends. However, these same students rarely saw the students with disabilities outside of school. Some typically developing students felt that these students were weird and did not belong. These students did not view students with disabilities as friends, but would help them if they needed help.

Guided by my research and findings, I created a guide that is designed to be informative and useful. This guide is intended for teachers and parents. Specifically, it would be useful for teachers who work with students with disabilities and desire more insight on the effects of labels. Parents with students with disabilities may also find this valuable. After studying this guide, I hope that both teachers and parents will better understand the value of the special education label and how it can help or hinder students with disabilities. Furthermore, I hope that this guide can provide specific strategies, techniques, and activities that can encourage positive experiences for students with disabilities.

A student with a label refers to a student with a disability. Recently, there has been a dramatic rise in the population of students with disabilities. As a result, this population has inundated classrooms and overwhelmed both parents and teachers. However, all teachers must be equipped to support and provide instruction for all students with special education labels. After speaking with many regular education and special education teachers, I have found that many of them feel anxious with the increase of students with disabilities. Although these children have

special education labels, teachers are not confident about how to approach them, both academically and behaviorally. They feel that they do not fully understand their needs and lack the experience and time to address these needs in the classroom.

Additionally, after talking to many parents, I realized that many of them feel frustrated, hopeless, and lost. Like the teachers, they are unsure of methods to help their children succeed both academically and socially. They are unsure of how to teach and provide their children with the appropriate skills that they need to be successful in various situations. In order to provide interventions for students with disabilities, we must first understand the effects of the special education label on the students' academic and social lives.

Research has shown that labels can be extremely beneficial for students with disabilities. A label can be the beginning of services and treatments that a student can receive (Gallagher, 1976). Once a student is identified with a specific disability, a label can further explain identifying characteristics of the disability to aid in appropriating services, which can later compensate for his or her weaknesses. Furthermore, teachers are better able to create accommodations for students with disabilities if they can recognize the students' strengths and weaknesses.

Labeling is also important to the future of our society. Given that there are many different types of disabilities, labels provide distinctions within this extensive list. As result, by studying these distinctions, scientists are better able to research the etiologies and causes of these disabilities which can promote prevention in the future (Gallagher, 1976). Moreover, due to the increase of labels, there has been an increase in legal actions and financial support for resources that can help students with disabilities. Bills and laws such as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act ensure that the rights of these individuals are preserved while additional funds can provide more professionals to implement interventions and more research to be done about causes, preventative measures and treatments.

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encounters a difficult student, he or she may feel relieved when a label becomes attached to that student. It provides a justification to the student's attitudes and behaviors while also "tranquilizing" the teacher (Gallagher, 1976, p. 124). When this occurs, treatment and interventions are not sought which impedes on the student's progress. Furthermore, studies have shown that students with disabilities have lower self-perceptions in all areas. Haager and Vaughn (1997) recognized that students with disabilities often have social difficulties that result in low self-concepts, misinterpretation of social situations, peer rejection, and vulnerability to future behavior problems (Farmer, Rodkin, Pearl & Van Acker, 1999; Lackaye & Margalit, 2006; Haager & Vaughn, 1997; Murray & Greenberg, 2006).

The Guide

From my research and experiences, I have found that parents and teachers want to gain an understanding of the special education label. They feel that they need to comprehend the positive and negative effects in order to provide appropriate and effective interventions for them. Therefore, I created a guide that can be beneficial for them both in and out of the classroom. The guide includes the definition of the term label and the positive and negative effects that the label can have on the students' academic and social experiences. In addition, the guide provides teachers with specific strategies and lessons that can be implemented in the classroom to promote positive experiences for students with disabilities. There are also suggested strategies and activities for parents of students with disabilities that can be applied in the home environment.

After reading this guide, I hope that parents and teachers have a better understanding of the special education label and how it can affect students with disabilities. My goal was also to provide parents and teachers with strategies and activities that can encourage positive and successful experiences for students with disabilities both in and out of the classroom.

References

An ILP reference list contains all references cited in the paper. See Writing a Reference Citation, p.32. The ILP reference list follows the APA style. See the *APA Publication Manual* for examples. All journal titles in the reference list are spelled out fully. Be sure that text citations and reference list entries agree in spelling and date.

Instructions

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Example

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Appendix(es)**Instructions**

The appendix is used to store material which is referred to in the text of the paper. Some examples of things found in an appendix are long mathematical formulae, copies of questionnaires, inventories, tests administered, and raw data tables.

Where there is more than one appendix, each should be given a letter (A, B, C). There should be a title page for each appendix which is counted in the page count but not numbered.

No Example

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Be sure to allot ample time for proofreading and editing of your ILP; faculty expect that all written materials you submit (ILP proposals, drafts, and final copies) are carefully edited for grammar and spelling errors. You may want to hire a professional editor to assist you with your final copy; most faculty advisors, in fact, will urge you to do so.

Prepare Your Final Copy

The final copy of your ILP is submitted to your faculty advisor in a black heavy stock paper cover, front and back. Have your ILP bound with a black vinyl front and back cover, and a black tape binding. Loose-leaf, three-ring binders are not acceptable, except for special types of projects which cannot make use of the covers and tape binding.

If you are unable to locate a vendor who binds work as described above, please ask your advisor for permission to use a plastic cover and spiral binding or other appropriate method as s/he approves.

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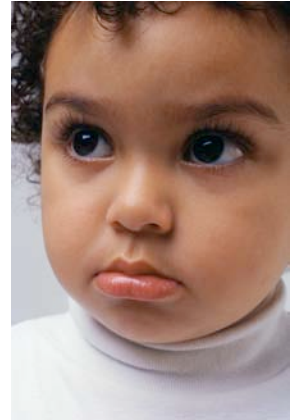
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Best wishes on the completion of your ILP and also in your career.



Understanding the Special Education Label: A Guide for Parents and Teachers

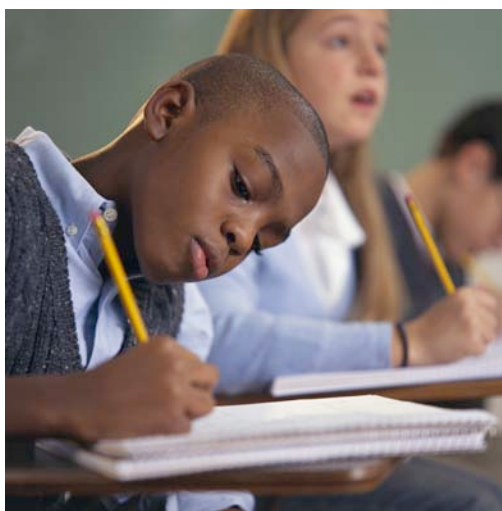


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What does a label mean?

A student with a label refers to a student with a disability. However, the definitions of disabilities can be both complex and verbose. Speece and Harry (1997) suggest examining the social and scientific construction of the term "disability" in order to fully understand this classification process that is so often used for students. Social construction refers to the idea that a society has decided upon what is considered to be "beyond acceptable boundaries" (Speece & Harry, 1997). Therefore, when a student has a disability, he or she demonstrates a mental or physical abnormality that is not within the realm of our society's norms.

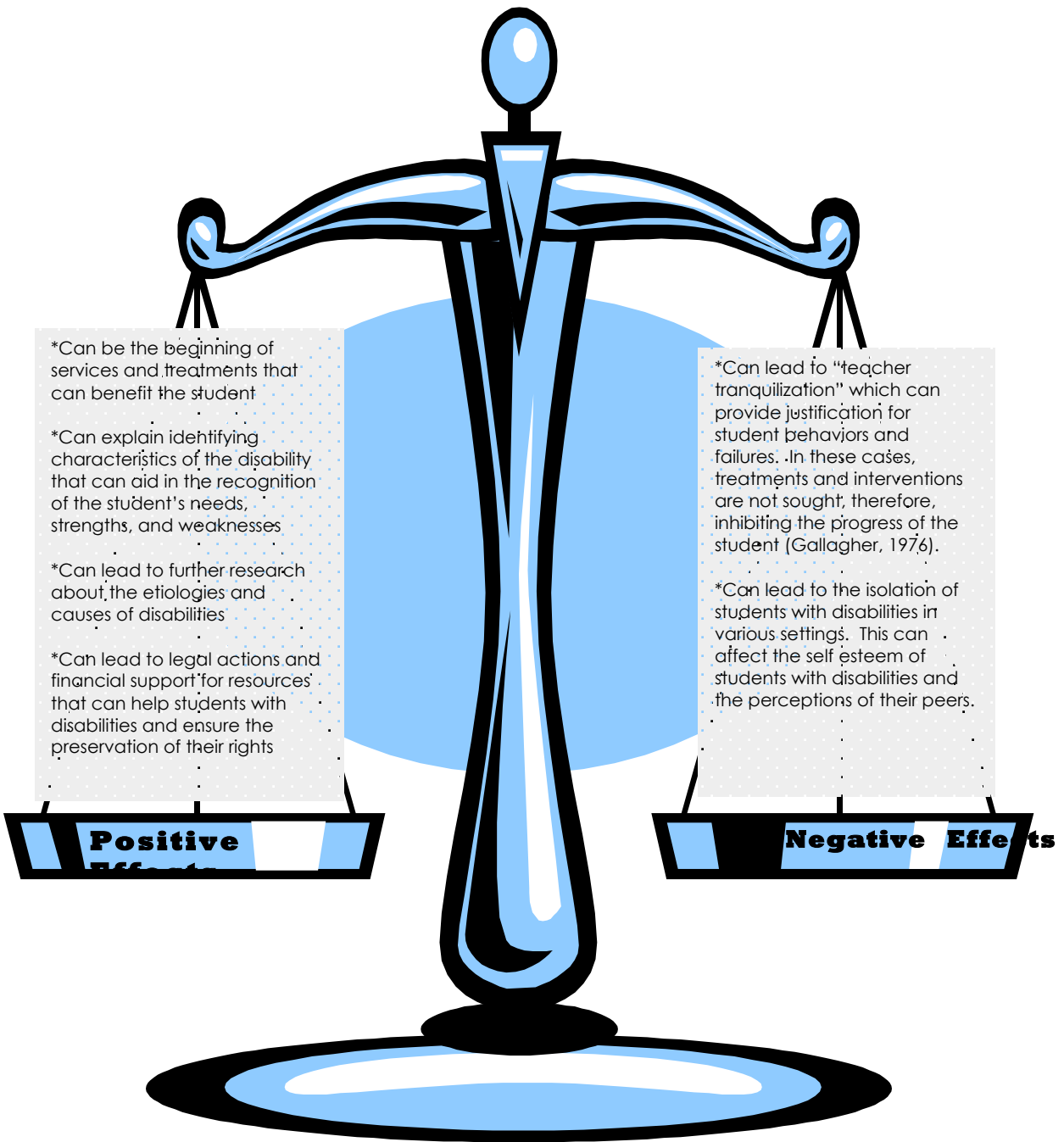
The social construction of disability suggests that there is an accepted norm in our society that is not attainable by students with disabilities. However, this is not the only criteria to obtain this label. The social construction of disability explains that students with disabilities have conditions that inhibit them in our society. Therefore, these skills that they lack must be valued highly in our society (Speece & Harry, 1997). For example, literacy is considered an important life skill. The emphasis on this skill can be exemplified through everyday situations and actions. A weakness in this area is considered to be a disability because it deviates from the norm and is significant to our society. However, a characteristic that is considered a norm but is not significant will not necessarily translate into a disability. Someone who cannot tie his or her shoelaces does not necessarily have a disability because this specific skill does not have significance when discussing functioning in our society.

Despite the variation of theories surrounding particular labels, labels have become a permanent part of our educational system. With the population of students with disabilities steadily increasing, it is imperative to explore how labels can be helpful and detrimental. We can only begin to develop interventions to reduce the damaging outcomes of labels after we understand the positive and negative effects of them. However, the research done on this topic is limited.

Weighing the Effects of the Special Education Label

It is important to understand both the positive and negative effects of the special education label.

A label...



Especially for Teachers

Helpful Strategies to Encourage Positive Experiences for Students with Disabilities at School

- ❖ Use positive reinforcement as much as possible.
Students with disabilities often feel awkward around their peers due to their weaknesses both academically and socially. Therefore, with much encouragement, students with disabilities and their peers will recognize their strengths instead of always noticing their weaknesses. Recognize positive behavior both in and out of the classroom.
- ❖ Avoid giving negative attention.
Students with disabilities often require extra attention in the classroom. However, it is important to try not to give negative attention to these students. Negative attention includes reprimanding and giving out consequences constantly and publicly. This promotes negative attention to these students' weaknesses and needs.
- ❖ Use Character Education and Community Lessons in the Classroom.
At least once a week, designate time in the classroom for community building. These lessons can focus on a variety of strategies or ideas that promote positive experiences for all students. Examples of such lessons can be found in this guide.
- ❖ Research literature about labels.
The more that you know about your students' disabilities, the more you will be able to understand their strengths and weaknesses. To find accurate literature and research, look at the resource list at the end of this guide.



Sample Character Education Lessons for the Classroom

Character Education can build community within the classroom. During these lessons, students with disabilities have the opportunity to share their emotions and listen to their peers' similar experiences. In addition, their peers can recognize similarities between them and their classmates with disabilities.

Once a week, have your students sit in a circle on the rug to discuss a particular theme. The focus should be an emotion that all students can relate to. At the beginning of every lesson, it should be reinforced that during this time all students should feel safe and comfortable to share their feelings and experiences. In addition, whatever is shared in the circle is not repeated.

Sample Theme: Loneliness

1. Pass out clipboards, paper, and pencils to all students. Tell the students to think of a time when they felt lonely. What happened to make them feel this way? How did they feel?
2. Ask them to write their experiences on a piece of paper. Remind them that they should remain quiet so that everyone has a chance to think and write.
3. After everyone has had a chance to write something down, ask the students to share their experiences. Encourage everyone to share, but do not force them.
4. Introduce and read the book *I Feel Lonely*.
5. Ask the students to recall what the narrator did at the end of the story.
6. Encourage the students to think of other ways to help them when they feel lonely. Also, ask them what they could do to help a friend who is feeling lonely.

Sample Theme: Building Friendships

1. Ask the students "What is a friend?" As the students respond, write down their answers on a piece of chart paper. This list should include qualities of a friend as well as activities that they like to do with their friends.
2. Discuss how students feel when they are new to a school and do not know anyone. Also discuss how students may feel when they are not included in activities both in and out of school.
3. From student responses, create a list of ways to build new friendships.

Sample created by students:

How to Make New Friends

- ~Ask other people to play with you.
- ~Introduce yourself to new students.
- ~Smile and shake hands.
- ~Help them when they need help.
- ~Say hi.
- ~Invite new students to sit with you at lunch.
- ~Never laugh at them.



Sample Character Education Lesson



This lesson uses the book Wilfrid Gordon McDonald Partridge by Mem Fox to discuss the loss of a loved one. It focuses on collecting memories to remember the loved one. This is a theme that all students can relate to and share experiences from. It is also an opportunity for all of the students to get to know each other.

TEXT OVERVIEW: Wilfrid Gordon McDonald Partridge is a small boy who has a special friend at the elderly home next door, who also has four names like himself. Wilfred tries to discover the meaning of "memory" so he can restore the memory of his special friend.

OBJECTIVES: 1) The students will complete a poster of their own memory basket by identifying and drawing five different items they would include in their memory basket. 2) The students will then complete an explanation sheet for their memory basket that explains why they chose those items including any examples from the text that made them think of those items. 3) Finally, the students will compare and contrast their memory baskets with each other as well as Wilfrid's, and present their completed baskets to the class.

MATERIALS: One basket containing shells, a puppet on strings, a medal, a football, and an egg. Multiple copies of the book, paper, pencils, and Memory Basket poster.

BEFORE READING: Before reading the text, the teacher would ask the students if they know what a memory is, and if they had any special memories they would like to share. The teacher would allow students to share their most special memories, and then introduce the title of the book and hold up the cover. The teacher would ask the class if any of them have or know someone who has four names like the main character of this book. The teacher would then take out a basket similar to Wilfrid's memory basket, and explain to the students that this basket contains Wilfrid's memories. Individual students will then be asked to come up to the basket and pull out one item and share what it is to the class. After all of the contents of the basket have been identified, the teacher will ask the class "Why do you think Wilfrid made this basket of memories?" After students have made their suggestions as to why he made the basket, they will be asked to think about any memories they have that are special like Wilfrid's, and who they might share them with, as they are reading the story.



DURING READING: In paired reading groups, the students will read Wilfrid Gordon McDonald Partridge. The teacher will walk around the room to make sure that students comprehend the text. The teacher will also remind students to stop and ask questions if they do not understand something, and to discuss the story with their partner as they read. While the students are reading, the teacher would ask them questions like: Why is Miss. Nancy Wilfrid's favorite person? What do people tell Wilfrid about what a memory is? Why did Wilfrid choose those items for his basket? Why was it so important to Wilfrid that Miss. Nancy get her memory back?

AFTER READING: After each pair finished reading the story, the whole class will regroup as a whole to discuss the story. Some of the following questions will be asked: After reading to the book, what do you think a memory is? Why is Miss Nancy so special to Wilfrid? How does his memory basket help Miss Nancy get her memory back? Why did he choose those specific items for his memory basket? Why do you think Wilfrid's grandfather was sad about his medal? Why did Wilfrid's memories help Miss Nancy remember memories of her very own? Were Wilfrid and Miss Nancy happy at the end of the story when she found her memory? Students will then be asked to share any memories they thought of while reading the story, and what it was from the story that made them think of that memory. After the students have shared their memories, they will be asked to go to their seats and complete a poster of their own memory basket. On this poster, they will draw their own memory basket and then draw the different items they will put in their basket. (Students must have at least five items in their basket.) Once they finish drawing their basket, they will write why they chose these items on the following ditto, including any examples from the text that made them think of those items. (Students must write at least four sentences.) The completed ditto will then be attached to their poster to be shared with the rest of the class, and then displayed on the FAVORITE MEMORIES bulletin board.

APPLICATION: Upon completion of their memory basket, students will discuss their memory baskets with their previous reading partners. The students will discuss their memories and how they are similar and different from each other as well as Wilfrid's basket. And lastly, students will share their completed memory basket poster with the rest of the class, explaining to the class why they picked each item.

EVALUATION: The teacher will observe and take notes as he/she moves around the classroom while students are reading and discussing the story, as well as listening while they answer various comprehension questions. In addition, students will be assessed by their memory basket poster, and explanation ditto to make sure that all of the objectives were met. Students must have at least five items drawn in their memory basket, and at least four sentences explaining why they chose those specific items, including any examples from the text that made them think of those items.

Sample Community Building Lesson Plan



During this lesson, students will participate in a cooperative game, Musical Hoops, to emphasize community and cooperation.

MATERIALS: Hula hoops, music, *What is a Community? From A to Z* by Bobbie D. Kalman, chart paper, markers, dictionaries, journals, and pencils

OPENING:

The teacher will begin by asking students to think about the word community and what it means to them. The teacher will remind students that an important part of community is cooperation.

The teacher will then explain that today the class is going to participate in a cooperative game that emphasizes community, called Musical Hoops. The teacher will bring the students to the gym, where hula hoops will be scattered around. (This cooperative game is similar to musical chairs only NO elimination. Students move around the hoops doing specified locomotor activity while the music is playing. There should be one less hoop than students to start with. When the music stops everyone needs to find a hoop. Students will have to double up in a hoop if they do not find their own hoop. Every time a hoop should be removed. Eventually the whole class will try to fit in one or two hoops dependent upon class size and ability).

After the students have played one full round of Musical Hoops, the teacher will bring the students back to the class, where they will gather on the rug. The class will discuss how cooperation was an essential element in the completion of Musical Hoops. The teacher explains how Musical Hoops is a community building game, as it emphasizes the key components of community: cooperation, caring for others, being a good citizen, getting along, etc)

The teacher asks students again to think about the word community and what it means to them. On chart paper, the teacher begins a K-W-L chart on community that will be displayed in the classroom, as to encourage the students to modify and add new information daily.

Students share anything they know about communities, while the teacher records their responses on the K-W-L chart.

DEVELOPMENT:

The teacher reads the book *What is a Community? From A to Z*, by Bobbie D. Kalman, out loud to the class, using guided questioning throughout to assess comprehension.

After reading and discussing the text, the teacher and students return to the K-W-L chart to modify their information based on their new facts.

Students will then determine the elements of a community, based on the information provided within the text, and the teacher will have one student use a dictionary to look up the formal definition of community.

ACTIVITY:

After the students have brainstormed and discussed what a community is, the students will return to their desks and take out their journals. Students will then write a short paragraph describing what a community is in their own words. In their paragraph, students need to include at least four community facts, and they need to create an illustration to depict their ideas about community.

CLOSING:

After students have completed their community description paragraphs and illustrations, the class will come to the rug and share their ideas.

ACCOMMODATIONS:

Ample wait time will be provided for students to respond to questions and complete the activities, thus reducing student frustration.

There will be a copy of *What is a Community? From A to Z* on tape in the reading center to assist students with auditory problems.

Guided questioning throughout the lesson will enable students to fully understand concepts, as well as keeping students on task.

Using multiple forms of communication, such as verbal, visual, written, artistic, etc, will accommodate the needs of all learners.

Whole class discussion, as well as individual work will aid in the discussion and development of ideas.

For Lower Levels:

- Additional prompts will be provided for lower level learners, and copies of the text will be available for students to refer to as they write.
- Directions will be provided both in writing, and orally to ensure the students' understanding of what is expected of them.
- Less emphasis on spelling and grammar in written responses.
- Cooperative learning groups will reinforce the comprehension of lower learners.

Especially for Parents



Helpful Strategies to Encourage Positive Experiences for Children with Disabilities

- ❖ Use positive reinforcement as much as possible.
Positive reinforcement means recognizing and rewarding positive behaviors. For instance, instead of scolding your child for not making the bed, praise your child when he or she makes the bed. This will improve their self perceptions and reinforce your support of their positive behaviors.
- ❖ Provide ample opportunities for social interaction.
Develop relationships with families with children of the same age. Meet families in your neighborhood or through other organizations. It would also be beneficial to meet parents of children in the same class. Set up play dates on weekends to give your child opportunities to interact with other children. If possible, play dates should begin with small groups in an unthreatening setting, such as your own home. Friendships are encouraged when children are able to interact with others outside of the school setting, eliminating academic demands and decreasing social pressures.
- ❖ Focus on your child's strengths and help them cope with or overcome their weaknesses.
Find your child's strengths and recognize them. If your child is good at baseball, encourage him or her to join a recreation league. This is a good way to build their self-esteems and build friendships. Additionally, it is as important to understand their weaknesses. Recognize their weaknesses, but do not let them overwhelm you or your child. If your child has difficulty reading, ask your child's teacher for ideas and activities that you can do at home.
- ❖ Provide consistent consequences for negative behaviors.

Discuss consequences for inappropriate or negative behaviors. Make sure that you are consistent and firm.

❖ Research!

Look for literature to help you understand your child's disability. This can help you understand his or her strengths, weaknesses, and needs. To find accurate literature and research, look at the resource list at the end of this guide.

Sample Activities to Do At Home

Activities to Strengthen Academic Weaknesses

- ❖ Have your child read books to you as much as possible. Provide your child with books at his or her independent reading level.
- ❖ Model good reading by reading to your child.
- ❖ Purchase or make educational games to play with your child. This will encourage quality time with your child while also promoting academic achievement. Some great educational games are Scrabble, SMATH, Boggle, and Trivial Pursuit for Kids.
- ❖ Integrate math into daily activities. Have your child calculate monetary amounts at the grocery store or count socks during laundry.
- ❖ Integrate phonemic awareness and writing into daily activities. Ask your child to create grocery lists or write a list of errands.

Activities to Strengthen Social Weaknesses

- ❖ Use social scripting and practice with your child. Tell your child exactly what to say in specific social situations. Practice these situations with your child. For instance, tell your child to say “hi, how are you” when encountering an individual that he or she knows.
- ❖ Model positive behavior. Remember to exemplify good language and appropriate behavior. Use the words “please,” “thank you,” and “sorry” when appropriate.
- ❖ Give your child responsibilities around the house. This can include laundry, setting the table, or cleaning up.
- ❖ Encourage your child to use eye contact during conversation. Practice this at home. Whenever you are talking to your child, make sure that you are looking at him or her. Encourage him or her to stop what he or she is doing and look at you.
- ❖ Reinforce the concepts of sharing and turn taking during daily activities. For example, when playing a game, make sure that everyone waits for their turn without complaint.

Activities to Strengthen Physical Weaknesses

- ❖ Consult with your doctor, occupational therapist, or physical therapist for appropriate activities that can improve your child's area of weakness. For example, if your child has difficulty walking due to muscle weakness, your therapist may suggest stretching or movement activities.



Literature Resources

Children's Literature

Playing By the Rules By Dena Fox Luchsinger
A book about a girl who has a brother with autism

Andy and His Yellow Frisbee By Mary Thompson
A story about a boy with autism

I Can, Can You? By Marjorie W. Pitzer
A book about babies and toddlers with Downs Syndrome who enjoy doing the same things that typically developing babies and toddlers enjoy

Rolling Along with Goldilocks and the Three Bears By Cindy Meyers
A change to the classic story—Baby Bear has a physical disability and is in a wheelchair

My Friend Isabelle By Eliza Woloson
A story about a friendship between a typically developing child and a child with Downs Syndrome

Shelley The Hyperactive Turtle By Deborah Moss
A story of the adventures of a turtle with ADHD

Views from Our Shoes By Donald J. Meyer
A collection of essays written by siblings of children with disabilities

Don't Pop Your Cork on Mondays: The Children's Anti-Stress Book
By Adolph Moser
A book of cartoons about recognizing anger triggers and coping skills

Parent and Professional Literature

A Picture's Worth By Andy Bondy

A guide for parents of nonverbal children with autism

Activity Schedules for Children with Autism

By Lynn Clannahan and Patricia Krantz

An instructional manual to create effective schedules for children with autism

Classroom Language Skills for Children with Down Syndrome

By Libby Kumin

A guide for parents and teachers—includes language development and needs of children with Down Syndrome

Teaching Conversation to Children with Autism

By Lynne Clannahan and Patricia Krantz

A guide to help children with autism initiate and sustain conversations

Understanding How Asperger Children and Adolescents Think and Learn By Paula Jacobson

A book about creating positive environments for these children

Bully Free Card Game By Allan L. Beane

A game, similar to Crazy Eights, but based on bullying

Battle Cries: Justice for Kids with Special Needs

By Miriam Edelson

A book about the difficulties that families must face with a child with severe disabilities

A Parent and Teacher's Guide to the Special Needs Child

By Darrell Parker

A book about the difficulties that children with disabilities may have when trying to accomplish daily activities

Informational Websites

<http://www.fcsn.org>

The website for The Federation for Children with Special Needs

<http://www.specialchild.com>

A website with success stories, horror stories, and information

<http://www.uniquelygifted.com>

A list of web resources for information on IEP's, Treatments, Placements, Curriculum Guides, and much more

<http://www.aamr.org>

The website for the American Association on Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities

<http://www.autism.org>

The Autism Research Institute website

<http://www.autism-society.org>

The website for The Autism Society of America

<http://www.ldonline.org>

A website dedicated to children with learning disabilities and ADHD

<http://www.ldaamerica.org>

The website of the Learning Disabilities Association of America

<http://www.ncld.org>

A website for the National Center for Learning Disabilities

<http://www.ndss.org>

A website for the National Down Syndrome Society

<http://www.familyeducation.com/home/>

A website for parents with tips for positive reinforcement and more



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Springfield

570 Cottage Street, Springfield, MA 01104
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