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Administration

From the Director

It is with honor that I present Volume 24 of the Journal of Research Reports, "McNair Scholars Program: Hit the Mark with McNair." The articles featured in this journal represent the work of Program participants from the 2018-2019 grant year. As one reads these articles, it is clear that the breadth of research interests is as diverse as the students served by our Program. The McNair staff and I could not be more pleased with the efforts that went into producing this meaningful and scholarly body of work.

The Program can only achieve the accomplishments with the support of University faculty, staff and administrators. Th ough the guidance of research mentors who have been able to inspire our Scholars in completing research projects despite any obstacles they may have encountered and to reach such great heights. We applaud their dedication to making undergraduate research a reality and supporting the students from the McNair Scholar Program. It has been said, "*it takes a village to raise a child*," you are our "village," *Thank You.*

As we close the second year in a five-year grant cycle, 2017 – 2022, we are excited to continue the tradition of promoting undergraduate research on the campus of Wichita State University since 1995. Within this journal, you will fi d the work of fourteen (14) undergraduate students whom we are showcasing for the work they have done and their commitment think outside of the box and perform outside of the classroom. There are full manuscripts, summaries and extended literature reviews. These research activities serve to cultivate and develop research skills, provide experience navigating the research process and to create and develop relationships with faculty that could potentially assist students in applying, being admitted and enrolling into graduate programs. The high impact activity of conducting scholarly research is supported in an effort to assist our Scholars by leveling the playing fi ld in their pursuit and completion of doctoral studies.

A special thank you is given to the staff for their dedication to the Program and the students that we serve. *Mr. Drew Colcher*, research coordinator. *Mr. Joseph Nguyen* who served as writing tutor. *Ms. Ashley Cervantes*, program counselor and student confide t. *Ms. Neshia Greene*, senior administrative assistant and all around Program support. Lastly, *Ms. Deltha Q. Colvin*, associate vice president; who provides unending support for me and the staff s a whole.

Finally, I congratulate the students for a job well done; their efforts do not go unnoticed. They have taken this opportunity to share their brilliance with the academic community. These scholars are the future of America and I thank them for the opportunity to serve as their director.

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Research Manuscripts

Stickwriting Approach for Children with Autism and Social Communication Disorders

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Abstract

The purpose of this pilot study is to replicate previous findings relating the stickwriting approach to note-taking. Stickwriting involves creating quick and easy drawings to help children plan their writing. The goal of this research is to use this technique with children with autism or a social communication disorder, in order to further supplement documentation for a population with minimal research data. The two participants in this study were between the ages nine and 12, one female and one male. For confidentiality reasons, the pseudonyms Lucy and Tom will be used throughout this paper. Both students attended one-hour sessions, once a week, for ten weeks. Tom and Lucy first read a story, then wrote bulleted notes or paragraphs in each session. The pre-test and post-test passages were over history articles, while the treatment sessions were over science articles. Participants' bulleted notes were rated using a 3 to 0 scale that measured form and content. The results demonstrated that while Lucy's ratings increased for both the form and content categories, Tom's scores increased only for form. Overall, the results demonstrate that the intervention has been effective for the two participants in form-related aspects of note taking, including the following: title of article, use of bullets and periods, quick and easy phrases, and using their own words. Overall, the stickwriting approach was effective in helping children with autism and social communication disorders apply new techniques in their educational endeavors.

Keywords: Autism Spectrum Disorder, social communication disorder, children, writing, stickwriting

Introduction

Teachers around the United States dedicate their time to educating students and encouraging learning opportunities. While in elementary school, students learn how to read, write, and speak; these three abilities are intertwined and develop together (Paul & Norbury, 2012). Every student has different strengths and needs related to reading, writing, and speaking. Students that have a diagnosis of autism and/or social communication disorders perceive language differently, and therefore require specialized instruction (Carnahan & Williamson, 2010). The various approaches that professionals use to enhance children's communication skills allow for equality in education, for both typically developed students and students with specific diagnoses. Regardless of strengths and needs, all students deserve instruction that supports their individual abilities.

Purpose of the study

Although there are numerous studies related to students and writing, there is a lack of research on the effect of drawing and writing in helping children with autism develop communication skills. However, some research has been conducted dealing with children with other language impairments. Ukrainetz (1998 & 2017) implemented one approach, known as stickwriting, with typically developing children as well as children with language-related learning disabilities. Stickwriting, also known as picture drawing, is an approach for children to take notes using simple stick-figu e drawings (Ukrainetz). The purpose of this pilot study is to determine the effectiveness of the stickwriting approach for two children with autism and social communication disorders. Due to a lack of research, there needs to be more information regarding different strategies to help students with autism and social communication disorders to succeed in written language tasks.

Literature Review

Children with Autism

Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) is a disorder with two main characteristics: restrictive repetitive behavior and restricted social interaction (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Children with ASD are generally diagnosed in early childhood. Repetitive behavior may include either moving the body in a recurring manner, such as rocking or hand flapping, or repeating words or phrases (*echolalia*). Echolalia may occur as a repetition of a word or phrase immediately after a person has said it, but it may be delayed, with the repetition occurring a few minutes after a person has said the word or phrase. Children with autism also demonstrate different socialization behaviors. These behaviors may include the following: making little eye contact, reacting slowly when someone refers/talks to them, overly focusing on a single subject during conversations, and struggling to understand people's different points of view (National Institute of Mental Health, 2018).

Since autism is considered a spectrum disorder, a range of symptoms and characteristics can occur (Zenko, 2014). In order to understand this range of symptoms and characteristics, it is important to understand the three cognitive components that are affected by autism. The fi st

is executive function, which refers to the ability to plan: it allows humans to problem solve and make decisions. Children with ASD struggle with their working memory due to effects on executive functioning; working memory is the ability to recall the short-term memories required to perform an activity or an everyday task (Bennie, 2018). It is helpful for students with ASD to have a daily schedule to follow, in order to know the plans and expectations for their educational activities. The second component is difficulty with theory of mind, which is defi ed as not being able to recognize the feelings and/or thoughts of others. In other words, it is the inability "to infer or reason based on analogies one can make about how others might perceive or think about a particular situation" (Prelock, 2006, p. 261). Children with ASD sometimes struggle with adjusting to situations, comprehending deception, foreseeing behavior, and understanding sarcasm.

The last component of autism is weak central coherence. Children that have a weak central coherence are able to remember details, but may not be able to identify the main idea of a given passage. Th s leads to difficulties with global and local processing. Local processing focuses on the details instead of the main idea. Global processing refers to the ability to put different pieces together into a whole. Happé & Frith (2006) analyzed over 50 studies and discovered that children with ASD tend to be detail-oriented. Although they are superior in local processing, they can process globally only when told to do so, meaning they have a processing preference. Th s does not mean that they have a defic t in global processing. However, regardless of how these three different characteristics may impact a child with ASD, it is

important to be aware of these characteristics to support educational success for the child.

Although children with autism demonstrate differences in these three cognitive components, they have countless learning strengths. Among their many capabilities, children with ASD can process chunks of information rapidly, they can use visual information successfully, and they can focus on narrow topics of their chosen interest (Janzen & Zenko, 2012). These qualities can give students with ASD an advantage when learning new content. As Asaro-Saddler writes, "the interests of children with ASD may be limited" but they are able to focus on "preferred topics" (Asaro-Saddler, 2016, p. 79), that is, topics of personal interest to them. If educators determine what a child with autism favors, then the student's attention might be increasingly engaged throughout an activity.

Children with social communication disorders exhibit similar characteristics to children with autism. However, according to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual, 5th edition (DSM-5), to be diagnosed with a social communication disorder, autism spectrum disorder must fi st be ruled out. If a child is demonstrating difficulty with only the pragmatics of language or social interaction, but does not display restrictive, repetitive behaviors, a diagnosis of social communication disorder is appropriate (American Psychiatric Association, 2013).

School Children and Oral Language

For most parents, education is the number one priority for their sons and daughters. While in school, children learn to write, read, and speak

with the help of teachers (Paul & Norbury, 2012). Those three aspects are developed simultaneously throughout a child's educational career. If a child struggles with the oral component, then they are more likely to also struggle with understanding the written text. Each state has curriculum standards to uphold for children's education: in Kansas, for example, fourth grade students are expected to be able to report on a topic or text, be able to tell a story, talk about an incident in sequence, use suitable facts and details to support points, and be able to speak with clarity (Kansas State Board of Education, 2017). Teachers are aware of the importance of students learning effectively at their youngest age. In this instance, "aside from the oral language demands of classroom discourse, oral language plays a second crucial role in school success: it lays the foundation for acquiring literacy" (Paul & Norbury, 2012, p. 408). All information taught in school builds on the information already presented; if a student misses out on a specific component, then it could impact all future years in school.

School Children and Written Language

In 2012, the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) were developed to regulate curriculum expectations across the nation. In addition, the CCSS increased the importance of writing for all students (Koutsoftas, 2017; Nelson, 2018). Writing is a required skill across many areas of study; it begins when a toddler grabs a writing utensil and begins to draw on a piece of paper. According to Wolfe, Williamson, and Carnahan (2010), the process whereby writing skills are fi st developed can be separated into seven

stages: drawing, scribbling, creating letter-like units, forming non-phonic letter strings, copying environment print, making up spelling, and fi ally, successfully navigating conventional spelling (Wolfe et al., 2010). Th s process begins as the child becomes curious about his/her surroundings at home. Educational professionals should continue to emphasize the importance of writing to help children succeed even after completing their high school education. If problems arise, an interprofessional team which may include a general education teacher, special education teacher, and a Speech Language Pathologist (SLP) may be consulted. Parents and/or guardians also play an important role in the education of their child. No matter the difficulty a student may have, each school has a team of educators ready to help each individual succeed.

Children with Autism and Writing

As mentioned previously, children with autism have weak central coherence, meaning they may remember details, but struggle to distinguish the main idea. They may also have difficulties with executive functioning, which is related to the following cognitive functions: attention, perception of incoming stimuli, planning, memory, suppressing inappropriate responses, and making moral judgements (Zenko, 2014). One executive function that impacts a student's writing skills is planning. She or he must identify the main idea and separate it into sections. Therefore, when writing a text, a child with ASD encounters problems as they think of ideas, as they begin to formulate a plan for their writing, and last, as they write.

An important factor that affects children with ASD is reduced socialization. There are cases where students with autism have difficulty making good judgments and suppressing inappropriate responses. Th s type of behavior can create problems in friendships, and it is important to have positive relationships with peers, as going to school includes not only academic activities but also socializing and developing relationships. Students with autism already struggle academically, and adding the stress of having to make friends can make school difficult. One of Zenko's solutions to this challenge is not just teaching children with autism about social rules and expectations, but also modeling such behavior. Since children with autism learn better visually, having a model to follow can help them remember those guidelines and expectations. Solutions like these not only help students with ASD, but also apply to children with social communication disorders.

Stickwriting

Stickwriting, pictography, or picture drawing is a "quick and easy" strategy for children to plan their writing and take notes using simple stick-figu e drawings (Ukrainetz, 1998). For some children, especially those with autism, the act of writing can be stressful and complicated. Ukrainetz created a strategy that would allow students to alleviate the stress of writing paragraphs of information, and just focus on drawing fi st. The fi st step is to read the story, and with some prompting, be able to draw the main points of the story in a left- o-right motion, including the ending period. As students are beginning to compose essays, the utilization of

"quick and easy" drawings helps them put their thoughts onto paper. As Ukrainetz states, "[w]ith pictography, children draft stories by representing characters, settings, and sequences of actions with simple, chronologically organized stick-figu e drawings" (1998, p. 197). Th s strategy also allows students to feel less pressure when transferring their drawings into written text: they do not have to feel stress trying to remember the sequence of events, since they have their drawings.

Twenty years after her initial study, Ukrainetz implemented the same picture drawing strategy, but focusing on children with language-related learning disabilities. She added a new component to the strategy to help students create oral reports. In her previous study, the results demonstrated that pictography created longer narratives for participants (Ukrainetz, 1998). In her 2018 study, she worked with 44 students between the 4th and 6th grades that had language-related disabilities. She also worked closely with the 11 speech-language pathologists working with the participants. These SLPs described how the simplicity, the quick and easy pictures, the oral practice, and the repeated opportunities involved in stickwriting allowed students to focus and build confide ce while writing (Ukrainetz, 2018). The SLPs could see the progress their students made, and surmised that this strategy could also be implemented in the general education classroom. If children were to learn to write texts using this strategy at a young age, then they could possibly be better writers in the future.

Although Ukrainetz (2017) has studied children with language learning disabilities who used a stickwriting approach, to date, there is not published information on this approach for

children with a diagnosis of autism or a social communication disorder. Researchers have agreed on the need for further data and research in this area. Many of the studies mentioned above involved a limited number of participants and/or provided insuffici t information to make a more detailed report. The lack of research in this area makes it difficult to make changes in our school systems, in order to help children with autism or social communication disorders who may be struggling to write.

Methodology

Participants

The criteria for inclusion in this study were as follows: a diagnosis of autism or a social communication disorder, speaking English as a fi st language, and being between nine and 12 years old. Participants were recruited from Wichita State University's Speech-Language-Hearing Clinic social skills group. Th s group is designed for children who need support for appropriate social conversation skills and social interaction. The two participants were recruited from the social group and met inclusion criteria. For purposes of anonymity and confide tiality, Lucy and Tom will be used as pseudonyms throughout. Tom is a 12-year-old male diagnosed with a social communication disorder. Lucy is a nine-year-old female with a diagnosis of autism.

Design

The current study adapted its procedures from Ukrainetz, Ross, and Peterson (2017). There are signifi ant differences, however: Ukrainetz and her colleagues had 44 participants

who worked twice a week for 30 minutes, and the project lasted four weeks for a total of three hours of treatment. The participants worked with an SLP who helped with the written part, clients did pictography in one session and bulleted notes in another session, and she worked with 4th–6th graders whose Individualized Education Plans (IEP) included services related to oral language, reading, or writing. In this study, however, there were only two participants, nine and 12 years of age, one female and one male. They attended the sessions with graduate student clinicians in the speech-language pathology master's program, who were trained in the stickwriting approach, for one hour, once a week. The sessions for this project spanned a period of 10 weeks. During each session, the participants read a story and wrote bulleted notes or paragraphs with the help of graduate student clinicians.

Procedures

Prior to the picture drawing intervention, Lucy and Tom completed a pre-test of written notes, and an oral report over a social studies passage about Florence, Italy from http://www.readworks.org. During the fi st week of treatment, they read a story aloud about a science topic covering an interesting animal, taken from http://a-z-animals.com. Using social studies passages from the Read Works website, and the science passages from the interesting animals website, replicated the passage selection procedures used by Ukrainetz (2017; 2018). After reading, they identifi d interesting ideas with support from the graduate student clinicians. Lucy and Tom were instructed to write just enough to remember, using picture drawings with stick people. They revised their writing if

needed. Next, they gave a full report orally from the pictography they produced. They also wrote bulleted notes from their pictography; again, they gave a full report orally from bullet points. They revised their writing if needed and then gave the oral report from the revisions. These procedures were repeated for each weekly session over a total of 10 weeks. On the third and the seventh week, both students were asked to complete a written paragraph that expanded from their bulleted notes. During the 10th session, they read another ancient civilization passage about Japan for the post-test, following the same procedure as the pre-test. In addition, Lucy and Tom received a portfolio of their work to share with their families and friends.

Results

A scoring rubric was used to evaluate bulleted notes, with regard to both form and content, for the pre-test and post-test. In the area of form, the following aspects were rated: topic, bullets and periods, quick and easy, and use of own words. For content, the following aspects were rated: important and interesting ideas, just enough to remember, use of categories to select and organize, and usage of information from the article. A 0- to 3-point scale was used to determine scores. The rating scale was developed by Ukrainetz based on treatment experiences and material available about effective notes.

The 0- to 3-point scale represents different aspects that were rated using the participant's bulleted notes. For the form category, on the 'topic' aspect, a score of 3 indicates the student included a relevant topic title at the top of his/her worksheet. A score of 2 shows that the topic was identifid

in the fi st item of the notes only. A score of 1 represents a topic that was identifi d other than on the fi st item. A score of 0 demonstrates that the topic was not identifi d or was incorrect. For the 'bullets & periods' aspect, a rating of 3 signifies all items initiated with bullets and no periods were used. A score of 2 indicates that more than half of the phrases were bulleted, regardless of periods. A rating of 1 implies that some bullets were used or more than half of the phrases had no periods. A 0 rating denotes lack of bullets. For the 'quick & easy' aspect, a score of 3 demonstrates that all items included in the participant's bulleted notes were brief. Th s includes using lists, phrases, key words, abbreviations, short sentences, and no category repetition. A 2 rating represents that more than half of the items were brief or reduced. If a participant received a 1, then half (or less) of the brief or reduced items were used. A score of 0 demonstrates no brief items were used. The last form aspect is the student's ability to 'use their own words' when writing their bulleted notes. A score of 3 represents the participant's own sentences or sentences that stem from the article, no verbatim sentences. A score of 2 indicates that over half of the sentences were formed by the participants. A rating of 1 signifies that half (or less) of the sentences were created by the participants. Lastly, a score of 0 denotes no original sentences.

For the content category on the 'important & interesting ideas' aspect, a score of 3 demonstrates the participant included over nine different items on their bulleted notes. If a sentence included multiple ideas, then credit for two items was given. A score of 2 represents 6–8 items. A score of 1 equals 3–5 items. A rating of 0 denotes 2 items. For the 'just enough to remember' aspect,

a score of 3 indicates that all items included were clear enough to generate sentences from the categories and notes. If the participant received a 2, then one of the items on the bulleted notes was confusing or inadequate. A score of 1 denotes two confusing or inadequate items. A score of 0 signifies that the participant used 3 or more confusing or inadequate items. For the 'use of categories to select and organize' aspect, a score of 3 demonstrates that the participant included information that fit the article in four or more categories. A rating of 2 means three categories have information that fits. A score of 1 denotes two categories with info that fits. A score of 0 demonstrates that one or zero categories have information that fits. The last aspect of the content category is 'including information from the article'. A score of 3 implies all information matches the source, even if it is unclear. A score of 2 denotes one idea not included in the source. A rating of 1 indicates that two ideas were not from the source. Lastly, a score of 0 denotes three or more ideas not from the source.

Table 1: Activity Scores

Form - Lucy	Pre-test	Post-test
Topic	0	3
Bullets	0	2
Quick & Easy	1	2
Use Own Words	0	2
Content - Lucy	**Pre-test**	**Post-test**
Important/Interesting ideas	0	1
Just Enough to Remember	0	0
Use Categories	1	1
From Article	1	2

Form – Tom	Pre-test	Post-test
Topic	2	3
Bullets	0	3
Quick & Easy	2	3
Use Own Words	0	3
Content - Tom	Pre-test	Post-test
Important/Interesting ideas	1	2
Just Enough to Remember	2	0
Use Categories	3	0
From Article	3	1

As Table 1 illustrates, pre-test scores were generally low for both participants. Lucy's pre-test ratings consisted of 0s and 1s on the form and content categories. Her post-test ratings signifi antly increased for the form categories, almost obtaining perfect ratings for each aspect. However, her post-test content category scores were not as high, with scores ranging from 0 to 2. Tom's pre-test ratings on the form category consisted of 0s and 2s. His ratings on the pre-test content category were higher, with scores ranging from 1 to 3. On his post-test, Tom obtained perfect ratings on the form category. However, he obtained ratings ranging from 0 to 2 on his post-test content categories.

For interrater reliability, random selection was performed using four selected categories. These categories included: topic and bullets from the form rubric, and important/interesting ideas and use of categories from the content rubric. Due to Tom's absence from one of the treatment sessions, the ratings for Lucy on that same date were eliminated to avoid skewed results. 18 strips of paper representing nine sessions for each student were created. Each strip included the date of a session and either a 'T' for Tom or an 'L' for Lucy. All 18 strips were folded and placed in a cup. 10 of the 18 strips were chosen at random.

The results from the graduate student raters were compared to the undergraduate research assistant's results for each written sample, using the four categories mentioned above. Th s totals 40 different ratings. The percentage agreement was calculated by dividing the total number of scores that were the same for the graduate student and the undergraduate research assistant. In the end, researchers established an 80% level of agreement.

Discussion and Limitations

Based on the results presented in the tables above, Lucy's scores in the form categories increased from pre-test to post-test. She nearly

obtained a perfect rating on her post-test. In the content categories, her scores on the post-test either stayed the same or showed a minimal increase compared to her pre-test. Overall, Lucy's scores on the post-test were higher than her pre-test. Th s suggests that the treatment sessions were effective for Lucy and helped her ratings increase.

In comparing Tom's pre-test to post-test scores, his form scores increased while his content scores decreased. He obtained a perfect rating in his post-test form categories. However, his content scores decreased, which may have been the result of his inclusion of information that was not linked directly to the article. The rating categories specifi ally state that the ideas must match the source, even if it is unclear. In Tom's case, the treatment sessions were more effective on the form categories than on the content categories.

The fi st and last reading the students had to work on dealt with an ancient civilization. Th s topic, for them, may not be as interesting to work with, especially compared to the animal articles. It is possible that the student's interests favored the animal articles over the "Renaissance Italy" and "Everyday Life in Early Japan" articles. Both Tom and Lucy were aware that they were in a testing situation, and that may have also affected their performance. Th s could in part be due to the observer effect: the participants may have noticed that they were being observed, and consequently altered their behavior in response. Since the sessions were in the afternoon and after school, the setting could have increased the feeling that the activities were similar to, or merely an extension of, their school work.

Among some of the limitations in this study, one is the small sample size. Although Tom and Lucy met all requirements to take part in this pilot study, their results may not be fully representative of other children with similar diagnoses. However, the researchers were able to obtain a more detailed report regarding the effects of this intervention based on the experiences of these two individuals. Since autism is a spectrum disorder with a range of abilities and disabilities, some strategies may work better for some than others. Future studies should include a larger sample size, in order to generalize results to be applicable to the more general population.

A second possible limitation is the time of day at which the sessions occurred. Tom and Lucy are students; they attend school early in the morning, and work on their assignments throughout the day. The treatment sessions were in the afternoons, after school. While Tom and Lucy were given snacks during their participation in the project, if they felt tired or unable to concentrate, then that day's results may not fully demonstrate their capabilities. Th s could explain why Tom scored low on his post-test content categories that week. However, to prevent this from happening during the ten weeks, each session included a short break that gave the students time to have their snacks and a drink. Th s helped to keep them motivated to complete their work.

Another possible issue is the routine that the participants had before any of the sessions had begun. For example, Tom had previously worked with one of the graduate student clinicians. He was familiar with the way that graduate student clinician worked with him. Th s includes the bond they had beforehand, but most importantly,

the sense of trust previously established. When he recited his oral reports, the graduate student and Tom would go to another treatment room and record a report (using his phone) that he would later present in front of Lucy and the other graduate students.

Tom's scores decreased on the content categories because he added content that was not included in the article. If this study is to be replicated, the ratings chart can be modifi d to include a new category that gives ratings for creativity and extension on topics. Th s modifi d

rubric would give higher scores for students who demonstrate that they learned about the topic, and may be able to apply it in other settings, such as at home or in school. Another possible change for future replications includes letting the participants choose which articles they want to read for their weekly sessions. If the articles are chosen based on their interests, the students' motivation to complete the bulleted note-taking tasks may increase.

Conclusion

This study explored the effectiveness of the stickwriting approach for children with autism and social communication disorders. It indicated that the intervention was effective for the form aspects of note taking, more so than the other aspects under consideration. In the future, this technique can be applied in various educational settings. Not only can this approach be applied to children with a diagnosis of autism and/or a social communication disorder, ages nine through 12, but it can also be expanded to students with this diagnosis who are entering high school. Further, it may be beneficial for students in earlier stages of learning, given the drawing aspects of the approach, and their appeal to younger students. Since this study was conducted in a clinical setting with two clients, speech language pathologists should implement the stickwriting approach in the school setting, to determine whether similar results can be found. Writing can be a difficult task for students in general, and this approach proved successful in helping students with autism and social communication disorders learn new techniques to become better writers.

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Is God a Woman?: Veneration of Ancient Near Eastern Goddesses

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Abstract

The biblical creation story of Genesis states that God formed mankind, or rather humankind, in his own image, both male and female. The binary sexes thus carried masculine and feminine characteristics which directly refl cted their maker. So, if God can be gendered a man, why not a woman as well? Th s research seeks to examine the gender roles of ancient Near Eastern (ANE) goddesses who typically operated as consorts to prominent male gods in the religious pantheons. A brief analysis of the consort goddesses was created as a contribution to the larger picture of the neighboring spheres of religions, peoples, and regions in the ANE. Methodologically, this project traced the name and feature variations of the goddesses Asherah (Ugaritic), Anat (Ugaritic), and Ishtar (Sumerian)/ Inanna (Akkadian and Hittite), found in mythological stories, biblical texts, and archaeological sources. Each goddess' characteristics, of which they possess both masculine and feminine, were compared and aligned with the argument that these female consorts may have been primarily an expression of the chief male deity's feminine side. While these three goddesses represent a small portion of the ANE deities, they demonstrate the broad spectrum of emotions and roles associated with mother goddesses. The implications of this research are to further illuminate the roles that these female deities held in ANE and Judeo-Christian religions.

Keywords: Gender roles, goddesses, ancient Near East, comparative religion, mythology

Introduction

American archaeologist William Dever stated at the 2014 Tenenbaum Lecture, "the men who wrote the Bible created God in their own male image. The imagery is male, the language is male, but why should it be? If God can be the father, why not the mother?" (Emory University, 2014, 66:44). Genesis 1:27 says that God created mankind in his image, both male and female, suggesting that both sexes were created equally to refl ct their maker's direct characteristics. So, God must possess male and female aspects, along with masculine and feminine qualities, if he/she was to transmit them into his/her living creation (ie. humanity). Th s research seeks to survey the variations of female deities, while accounting for their male counterparts, their roles in mythology, and archaeological evidence of their existence that is typically disregarded in studies of the ancient Near East.

Methodology

For this study, prominent female deities associated with ancient Near Eastern (ANE) and early Israelite religions are surveyed. To avoid references to socially constructed genders, when referring to God, proper names like 'Yahweh' and a plural pronoun like 'they' will be used to refer to the masculine and feminine aspects. Th priority of this analysis is to examine the female deities who have been considered counterparts or consorts to prominent male deities, trace the various names and features through several ANE religions, and survey ideas about prominent goddesses in neighboring spheres of faith through space and time. Th s survey will demonstrate that these goddesses' attributes may coalesce

into one conceptual female deity, like William Dever's theory of a Mother goddess (1984, p. 28). Th s deity possesses different forms and varying features through the Israelite, Canaanite, Ugaritic, Sumerian, Akkadian, and Hittite religions, which will be examined as a comparative religious study. The three goddesses that the present work will concentrate on are the Ugaritic and Canaanite goddess referred to as Asherah, as well as the Akkadian goddess Ishtar (also referred to as Inanna in Sumerian myths) and Ugaritic Anat (often linked to the Greek Astarte and the Hebrew Ashtoreth). In using a comparative approach to the associated literature, it is important to establish the Bible as a book, rather than as a representation of divine intervention. The Bible will be reviewed similarly to the other ANE texts, not solely relying on these as historical accounts, but as works written by authors with agendas, or potentially as examples of subjective propaganda.

Literature Review

Asherah

Early references to Asherah date around 1000 BCE in mythological texts from the ancient port city of Ugarit (modern-day Syria). These texts describe her as a Mother Goddess and the "Lady Asherah of the Sea," in which she subdues the waters with her gentle nature (Dever, 2008, p. 101). Asherah is considered the consort of El (the primary male deity), and claims Queen Mother of the gods as her cultic role. Later, coalesced Israelite customs viewed Asherah as Yahweh's consort (Walton, 2006, p. 339). In either case, she is closely associated with a male deity. Mentions of Asherah's presence in the Bible can

be found in the books Judges, 1 Samuel, 1 Kings, and Jeremiah. These references describe the placement or erection of Asherah (also called Astarte or Ashtoreth) poles beside altars to Baal, and many verses describe the sinfulness of the Israelites for constructing these "high places," essentially areas of elevated ground where idolatrous worship was practiced for deities other than the Israelite Yahweh. In Judges 6:25–32, the Lord commands Gideon to cut down and remove the Baal altar and Asherah pole, to use the scraps to replace them with a new altar to the Lord, and to burn a sacrifice using the wood from the pole. The description in these verses indicates that Baal and Asherah may have been viewed as symbolic idols or representations of the deities within the altar and pole. In 1 Samuel 7:3–4, the Lord declares through Samuel that the Israelites must rid themselves of foreign gods, and "so the Israelites put away their Baals and Ashtoreths," as if they were personal idols.

Archaeological evidence of Asherah's consort role is found in inscriptions from the Egyptian site Kuntillet Arjud, in northeastern Sinai, which read "Yahweh and his Asherah." There is scholarly debate, however, regarding whether this refers to the goddess or the wooden cult symbol. While the Anchor Bible (1992) states that the reference to "his Asherah" denotes the goddess herself, this may not be the case, because the wording is "syntactically inappropriate," and pronouns before personal names are not found in biblical Hebrew (p. 484). Yet, biblical sources such as 1 Kings 15:13, 18:19, 2 Kings 21:7, 23:4, and Judges 3:7 denote Asherah as a goddess, rather than referring to her wooden cult object. Asherah is also paralleled with Baal and the host of heaven

in 2 Kings 23:4, as an indication that she is a deity and not only a symbol (p. 485). As Dever puts it, "one cannot make an 'image' for an image;" this asserts that the evidence refers to the goddess herself and not simply a wooden symbol (Dever, 2008, p. 101). Essentially, it can be shown that the Asherah poles symbolize her as a goddess, and not just the wooden pole itself. These meanings stem from stories in which the deities portray a variety of characteristics and emotions, which are exemplifi d by the next goddess for discussion: Anat.

Anat

The earliest mentions of Anat can be found in two Ugaritic texts: the *Aqhat Epic* from around 1400 BCE, and the *Baal Cycle* from around 1500 BCE. She is primarily portrayed as a war goddess with strengths related to military prowess, love, and fertility. Anat also has a violent temper and is known to defy gender roles as an androgynous character. Some accounts refer to her as the sister of Baal, while others claim she is his consort (Walton, 2006, p. 339). She may be sister, lover, or wife to Baal, but like Asherah, Anat is closely associated with a male deity. She also portrays certain masculine characteristics herself. Asherah, who appears in the *Baal Cycle* alongside Anat, holds a completely different temperament than the war goddess. Asherah is described as the loving, kind mother who offers her own body to save her children (Baal Cycle, para 3). The great self-sacrifici g goddess is also beloved by her son Baal, who swears to fi ht for her against the tyrant god of the sea. Anat, being a war goddess, gladly assists in the fi ht (Baal Cycle, para 13). The text links El and Asherah as the ruling parental couple

within the pantheon of gods, while Baal and Anat are a couple paralleled to them. Dever (1984) describes Anat as "both wife and sister to Ba'al; perpetual virgin and mother-figu e; goddess of love and of war," and he equates both goddesses with aspects or various forms of the "Mother Goddess" (p.28).

In the *Aqhat Epic*, Anat is outraged after a bow originally intended for her is given to the mortal prince Aqhat by the deity El. Anat's strategies for getting the bow included tempting Aqhat, offering herself, and luring him to a hunting party disguised as a falcon, where he would be killed by her henchman Yatpan. Overall, she is portrayed as a villain, seductress, and bully in this story. Anat earns her villainous status through the role she takes on when she reacts angrily and begins to plot revenge for not receiving the bow. She could be considered a seductress when she tempts Aqhat with her beauty and offers herself to him. Anat becomes a bully when she harasses El into letting her manipulate Aqhat and has him killed, all because she coveted the bow. In the *Baal Cycle*, Anat's behavior is much different; for example, she yearns for Baal in a motherly fashion, "as with the heart of a cow toward her calf," after he was swallowed by Mot (i.e. Death) (Baal Cycle, para 83). However, Anat's angry temperament returns shortly thereafter. She is depicted as vengeful when she defeats Mot, grinds up his body, and scatters the remains over the sea and earth.

Imagery that illustrates Anat's personality continues in the latter part of the *Baal Cycle*. She is referred to as the "Lady of the Mountain," who smites and destroys people while "knee-deep she plunges in the blood of soldiery" (Baal Cycle, para 102). Anat could be considered one who immerses herself in the gore and horror of battle in order to defeat her foes, and therefore, is representative of a female deity embodying masculine characteristics. Her violence carries on while hurling tables and footstools at soldiers, and smiting troops until she is sated with victory (Baal Cycle, para 104-105). In a way, Anat could be considered a mother of war. She embraces battle and engrosses herself in it, quite literally, as if victory is her child; she seeks to smite or ward off any foes that may be a threat to her triumph. Asherah and Anat, on the other hand, can both be considered mother figu es: they each represent different, if not opposite, sides of the spectrum. They depict the varying personalities or aspects of earthly mothers. For example, some mothers would do anything for their children, even lovingly sacrifice themselves, like Asherah. On the other hand, some mothers may take a more violent route, like Anat, and remove any potential threat to their child, even if it means getting their hands dirty. While some scholars argue that these two deities are entirely separate, the claim made here is that these paralleling goddesses may be various manifestations, or aspects, of a single conceptual deity that refl cts characteristics of a mother goddess, similarly to Dever's claim (1984, p. 28). Our third goddess for comparison, Ishtar, can be found in a variety of Mesopotamian myths while also possessing a multifaceted personality, like the northwest Semitic Anat.

Ishtar

Ishtar demonstrates a motherly characteristic, like Asherah and Anat, in the Akkadian *Legend of Sargon* and the Hittite *Apology of Hattusilis III* when she protects, elevates, and gives divine

aid to the kings. Ishtar is also characterized by fertility, violence, sex, life, death, and even storms, framing her as a goddess of "infin te variety" (Walton, pp. 336-337). Th s array contributes to Ishtar's paradoxical personality, and she can often be found in situations of disorder and obscurity. Like Anat, she demonstrates aggression, ambiguity, and passion. Ishtar also passes between gender roles as an androgynous deity, as in *A Hymn to Ishtar*. She is described as "bearded with a beard," while depicted as an illustrious goddess of queenly status (line 6, 11). Ishtar is also considered a contradictory virginal figu e and prostitute, further complicating her already paradoxical form. The goddess' passionate side comes out in the *Epic of Gilgamesh,* after Enkidu and Gilgamesh return from the forest, when she lustfully offers herself to Gilgamesh. Th s may have given birth to the seductress or prostitute label, as in Anat's situation with Aqhat. However, her outrage rises up after Gilgamesh spurns her, and she plots to kill him with the Bull of Heaven as her weapon (George, 1999, pp. 48-50). So, both Anat and Ishtar plotted to remove the men that they wanted out of their way.

Another correlation between Asherah and Ishtar can be found in the Sumerian *Exaltation of Inanna* when she is termed the "Mistress of Heaven" (lines 1-12), similarly to the description of Asherah as the "Queen of Heaven" in Jeremiah 7:18 and 44:17-25. Th s may indicate the hierarchical role that each goddess possess within their pantheons. While the term "Mistress" might connote a lover or a derogatory, illicit term, it may instead point to a sovereign position of authority in which Ishtar may govern over the lesser deities. Mistress is simply the feminine form of master,

so need not equate with deprecating a goddess's stature. If a masculine god can be constructively termed a master, a feminine goddess deserves the same effect. Thus, the parallel term is "Queen," as Ishtar and Asherah can both be considered ruling, prominent goddesses within their cosmos: queens of a sort.

These three goddesses, despite their differences, all demonstrate the concept of one female deity with variable forms, one that typically rules alongside a male counterpart in the pantheon, while exhibiting motherly features towards those they care about. Though Asherah, Anat, and Ishtar contrast in their behavior, they encompass a broad spectrum of emotions while still holding similar associations, like consort to the chief god, queen mother, life and death, love, and fertility. Because of these features, these three have "perpetual life-giving power," as great goddesses who simultaneously embody the ability to grant life, and to take life away (Dever, 2008, pp. 232–233). Since these feminine characteristics, embodied in these goddesses, can be found throughout neighboring religions of the ancient Near East, one might ask how they may have interacted with each other. Asherah, Anat, and Ishtar possessing similar attributes and roles, found in textual and archaeological evidence, might indicate a transmission of ideas and stories between adjacent peoples and their beliefs. Further textual analysis will help strengthen the assertion that elements of these religions were shared, and had a wider influence than that noted in their immediate geographical regions.

Fertility Cults

In the Bible, evidence of cult activity associated

with Asherah is noted, because the authors needed to depict the purpose of destroying the supplementary articles (i.e. Asherah poles). 2 Kings 23:47 depicts King Josiah's demolition of articles associated with Baal and Asherah. Th s includes removing the foreign cultic items and "idolatrous priests" from the high places and the Lord's temple, including the illicit Yahwistic cult items. A particularly interesting detail is the removal of the Asherah pole from the Lord's temple, which may indicate a link between Asherah and Yahweh, or the presence of a cult which worshipped both deities during this time period. Further evidence for this potential association is found in verse 7, when Josiah tears down the living quarters of male shrine prostitutes and female weavers who were dedicated to Yahweh and Asherah within the temple. Additional cultic activity can be found in Jeremiah 7:17–18, when followers perform specific ritualistic tasks, such as children gathering wood, fathers making a fi e, and women making cakes as an offering to the "Queen of Heaven." Archaeological evidence of cake molds has been found in Mesopotamia, with incised patterns on the molds often connected to cultic feasts for the Mother Goddess (Dever, 2008, p. 178). More textual evidence of ritual offerings is found in Jeremiah 44:17, when people burn incense to the same "Queen of Heaven" just as generations of their ancestors had before. The people even attribute famine and death to the cessation of these offerings.

Symbolic cultic associations between the three mother goddesses typically consist of cow imagery, with the male counterpart (El or Baal) characterized as a bull (Dever, 1984, p. 27). More prominent symbolism for the Mother Goddess

is found in small ancient Israelite figu ines from the 8th–7th century BCE, which have emphasized breasts to reiterate the importance of the basic feminine functions of giving life and nursing infants. Thus, these representations of the Great Mother make her a patroness of all mothers, while still operating as a divine consort (Dever, 2008, p. 187). While these figu ines do not have associated biblical text that connects them directly as evidence of symbolic activities, they are associated with a female deity, likely Asherah, who can be considered Yahweh's consort or an expression of Yahweh's feminine features (p. 195). The pair of Yahweh and Asherah may have provided an outlet for men and women to identify with one of the deities based on their masculine or feminine characteristics. Thus, the deity described in their religious texts could be said to be both male and female. Some scholars conclude that Asherah was venerated in ancient Israel not as a separate deity, but as an expression of Yahweh's feminine side (p. 199). Th s idea returns us to the discourse of Asherah's symbolic role in the context of Israelite religions.

Patriarchal Suppression of the Mother Goddess

The Bible states that the Israelites were only to worship Yahweh, despite the presence of other gods from neighboring nations. Yahweh is considered a national deity, and may have been worshipped in some regions alongside Asherah as a counterpart (Lewis, 1998, p. 47). Thus, biblical history paints any deity outside of Yahweh as foreign or illegitimate, and seeks to erase any article associated with them. The biblical authors' agenda included the erasure and

suppression of Asherah and anything attributed to the female deity. Yet, in order to document why she had to be erased, the authors had to acknowledge her existence. Th s created the anti-Asherah Deuteronomist ideology that pervades biblical texts, where the authors sought to remove any influence of a deity–outside of Yahweh–on the Israelites' religious practices. Therefore, the removal of high places and the burning of Asherah poles took place in order to exclude the worship of other gods, or even of the feminine attributes of Yahweh, expressed in the figu e of Asherah. Saul Olyan (1988) states that "there is no sense that the other gods do not exist; only Israel cannot worship them," (p.4).

Thus, the biblical authors described Yahweh as a jealous god, wanting loyal people, while depicting Asherah as a harlot to discredit her status, and make of her a metaphor for apostasy. The Deuteronomistic books associate her with Baal, yet there is evidence that her cult was not really associated with Baal's (Olyan, p. 7). Instead, the association "is the result of a Deuteronomistic polemic against the Asherah in Yahweh's cult," and represents a way to delegitimize her name (p. 14). Tim Bulkley (2014) argues that every ancient pantheon consisted of a king and a queen consort, in order to produce children. To state that Asherah is Yahweh's wife or consort is to make Yahweh no longer the unique God, but rather part of a group of gods. And for the biblical authors, there could not be a "Mrs. Yahweh," because this would assign God a single gender, a member of a class, which could be compared to any others, "merely one among many," (pp. 113–114).

However, ancient Israel practiced monolatry, which meant that they worshiped a single god while acknowledging the existence of others. In popular ancient Israelite religion, Asherah was venerated as Yahweh's consort in many circles, often as a symbol or idol, and in the ancient world, those were the deity (Dever, 1995, pp. 40-41). Included in this were female figu ines that the biblical authors sought to suppress because they did not wish to acknowledge–perhaps fearing ideological competition–the popularity and powerful influence they held as images of the Mother Goddess (Dever, 2008, p. 184).

Discussion

Leonard Shlain helps with grounding the argument of the conceptual Mother Goddess. He explains in his anthropological analysis *Th Alphabet Versus the Goddess* about chronological trends that reveal the fall and suppression of the Goddess through the development of civilizations, culture, and technology. Shlain performs a similar survey to my own research, but on a broader and longer scale with an emphasis on the concealment of the Goddess due to a shift in societal values. He focuses his efforts on the Mediterranean region, where he believed resided a principal deity–a mother Goddess. His historical analysis traces several of her forms as Inanna in Sumer, Isis in Egypt, Asherah in Canaan, Astarte in Syria, Demeter in Greece, and Aphrodite in Cyprus. Despite the differing names and forms, this mother Goddess was similarly recognized for her consistent qualities, according to Shlain. Collectively, these civilizations referred to her as the "Creatrix of life," a nurturer, a source of nourishment, a protector of children, bearing associations with birth, life, and death alike (Shlain, 1998, p.6).

Shlain attributes the Goddess' suppression to human consequences and social roles. He references anthropologist Sherry Ortner, who suggests that there was a split between men and women's gender roles because of a universal societal tendency for people to associate the "male with culture and the female with nature" (as cited in Shlain, p. 37). However, according to Shlain, Ortner's idea does not consider the pervasiveness of female imagery in symbolism, mythology, Goddess societies, and statuaries, many of which have venerated nature over culture throughout history.

The revolutionary development and introduction of the alphabet impacted the relationship people had with the Goddess. Prior to literacy, one only had to gaze upon her image or observe the rituals performed by her with an emphasis and connection to nature. Following the advent of the alphabet, to achieve closeness to her, one had to read man's written words, developed through culture. Th s empowering skill of literacy, once only accessible to the elite, now was available to the many, changing how many religions operated, through the use of scrolls and written religious texts (Shlain, p. 65). Once people began to utilize the alphabet, women and men began to turn away from their idols and images representative of nature, and instead leaned into more abstract terms and thinking (Shlain, p. 68). Th s may have contributed to the suppression of goddesses, and the accretion of a singular male deity who, nevertheless, bears some female characteristics. Ancient societies and human perception of reality relied on the Goddess as the original deity up until the end of the Neolithic period, when male religious figu es pushed her

aside to develop patriarchal culture. Nadja Furlan Štante (2017) explains that:

> The religion of the Great Goddess was supposedly practiced as long as the ancient societies kept the matriarchal social order. However, matriarchal order did not signify the social dominance of women in terms of analogies with the modern patriarchy, which would result in relations of power. On contrary, it meant the cultural predominance of female values and principles that was reflected as a state of peace, harmony, social and religious equality, closeness to nature…Matriarchal civilization is, as idealized, described as a kind of "the golden age of humanity" when love represented the main principle of regulating relations among people and between man and nature. Th s matriarchal period was supposed to end with the arrival of Semitic and Indo-European peoples who destroyed the Civilization of the Goddess, and thus, when male deities were placed on the top of the pantheon, with the attributes of aggression, warfare and domination, and Patriarchate was legalised. (p. 422).

As societies shifted away from the dominance of feminine values and a connection to nature, they leaned into developing a more patriarchal culture. Th s allowed masculine principles to override social ideas, attitudes, and belief systems. Use of logical, abstract thinking associated with culture, along with rise in literacy, changed how religion operated and placed a premium on masculine monotheism.

The Ten Commandments issued to the Israelites created a sharp rupture from past religious practices, particularly through the First Commandment, in which there is no

longer toleration for a goddess or any other deity. Th s represents the shift away from former uses of images and idols, and a turn towards a faceless, abstract Yahweh whose power is invested in written words. Shlain considers the Israelites' hostility towards images–following the Commandments issue–a result of considering icons to be a threat to their new-found skill of literacy. He explains that the "make no images" idea refl cts a right-brain pattern, in which the Israelites would turn their backs on the left- rain oriented Great Mother, and instead look to the written words of a sole, "All Powerful Father" with no others to assist him (Shlain, 1998, p. 83). However, if we look back to Genesis 1:26, a curious and unexplained detail in the text is God describing their self as "us" during the creation of humans. No one really knows who this plural pronoun describes. Th s leads to questions about the possible presence of another entity besides God at the moment of creation. According to the biblical text, the divine plurality could be linked to a later writing in Proverbs 8:22, which accounts for "Wisdom" being present during creation. Wisdom is portrayed as a feminine entity and an expression of God's composition. A parallel concept of the personifi d manifestation is also found in ancient Egyptian philosophy. The ancient Egyptian idea of *maat* pertained to ethics and morals. The idea was also associated with the Egyptian goddess Maat, who embodied knowledge and the principle of good and evil. She intertwined with all existing things and permeated into creation with her essence. The concept of *maat* was believed by the ancient Egyptians to be found in all spheres of reality: divine, physical, cosmic, familial, and political. Thus, it was thought to be all-inclusive of perceived reality and the revelation of harmony in society. Th s ideology determined that the "righteous" behavior for humans was a manifestation of *maat*, exhibited through physical and moral forces. Essentially, this concept balanced the scales of good and evil forces within spheres of reality.

The feminine personifi ation of wisdom has been suggested to spring from the ancient Egyptian concept of *maat*, as Egyptian influences may have had an impact on Israel as a geographical neighbor (Karenga, 2012, p. 47). Yet, in the Israelite context, wisdom is portrayed as a feminine demonstration of Yahweh's justice of creation, rather than to permit the expression of a goddess. Proverbs 8 advises readers to follow her as a personifi d concept, with benefits and consequences, rather than as a deity. Feminist theologians Carol Christ and Judith Plaskow (2017) assert that the world was co-created by the divinity, and that the Goddess was a part of that divine plurality, who interweaved herself into nature (p. 98).

Conclusion

Th s paper seeks to acknowledge that important feminine characteristics have been present in Judeo-Christian and pre-Judeo-Christian religions from the very beginnings. While most follow the Deuteronomistic framework of viewing Yahweh as the Father and a masculine male, perhaps Yahweh has possessed both genders all along, if not more. The feminine side of the Christian God was often expressed through "his consort," which has likewise been expressed in the surrounding cultures of

the ancient Near East as Asherah, Anat, Ishtar, and many more. As I have suggested, each Goddess refl cted different forms of one conceptual Mother Goddess. Traces of Yahweh's feminine, motherly side have made appearances in the Bible, such as in Isaiah 66:13–15, where God is described as a comforting mother while also possessing the ability to "rebuke with flames of fi e." The rediscovery of the Goddess redresses the balance between genders, and amends the biblical androcentric bias, while bringing the mysterious concept of God closer to human understanding and experience (Dever, 2008, p. 311). God made male and female in his image; thus, God is a woman *and* a man and, possibly, many other genders.

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Hate Speech and Authority Figures: Harms and the Need for Regulation

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Abstract

Hate speech is a term that can be used to refer to offensive, discriminatory, exclusive, hateful, and prejudicial speech. Th s defin tion is by no means exact, and does not capture the numerous understandings and defin tions of hate speech that have appeared in related literature. However, creating an exact universal defin tion of hate speech proves a daunting task. Regardless of the variations in defin tions, hate speech and hate speech legislation remain controversial topics that often arise in private, legal and political contexts. The term itself encompasses a wide variety of words, sentences and actions that are offensive and damaging because they target a person, or persons, based on characteristics such as race, gender, religion, etc. In the United States, hate speech is afforded protection under the Constitution, even though there are claims that it can be harmful both mentally and socially. The purpose of this article is to demonstrate the mental and social harms of hate speech, and to challenge the justifi ations for the protection that hate speech is afforded, with a focus on people who hold positions of influence and authority within society. The article argues that hate speech, when practiced by people in influential positions of authority, is not justifi d by arguments such predicated on personal autonomy, and furthermore, that the harms associated with hate warrant legislation to prevent those in powerful positions from engaging in hate speech. Th s article explores ideas from philosophers that focus on defini g hate speech, hate speech legislation, arguments for counterspeech rather than hate speech bans, autonomy, hate speech harms, and government speech.

Keywords: Moral and ethical philosophy, legal philosophy, hate speech, government speech

Introduction

Hate speech is a term that can be used to refer to offensive, discriminatory, exclusive, hateful, and prejudicial speech. Th s defin tion is by no means exact, and does not capture the numerous understandings and defin tions of hate speech that have appeared in related literature. However, creating an exact universal defin tion of hate speech proves a daunting task. Regardless of the variations in defin tions, hate speech and hate speech legislation remain controversial topics that often arise in private, legal and political contexts. The term itself encompasses a wide variety of words, sentences and actions that are offensive and damaging because they target a person, or persons, based on characteristics such as race, gender, religion, etc. In the United States, hate speech is afforded protection under the Constitution, even though there are claims that it can be harmful both mentally and socially. The purpose of this article is to demonstrate the mental and social harms of hate speech, and to challenge the justifi ations for the protection that hate speech is afforded, with a focus on people who hold positions of influence and authority within society. The article argues that hate speech, when practiced by people in influential positions of authority, is not justifi d by arguments such predicated on personal autonomy, and furthermore, that the harms associated with hate warrant legislation to prevent those in powerful positions from engaging in hate speech. In the fi st section, this article discusses what hate speech is, issues with defini g hate speech and how it is defi ed for this article. Section two lays out two examples of hate speech that showcase the stark contrast between common understanding

of hate speech and a type of hate speech that both Brown and Waldron argue can also be thought of as group defamation. Section three turns to the issue of who does the speaking, that is, whether and why public servants and people in positions of power are and ought to be held to a higher standard than private citizens. Section four turns to the autonomy argument for protecting hate speech. Section five discusses why hate speech legislation is the best option for dealing with hate speech. The fi al section outlines the criteria for legislation meant to deter those in authority figu es from engaging in hate speech while in the workplace.

What is hate speech?

Much of the discussion on regulating hate speech hinges on the difficulty of defini g what hate is speech is. Issues of scope accompany the worry that any law made to deter hate speech will not cover all instances of hate, but will also cover instances that are not technically hate speech. In an article titled "What is Hate Speech Part One," Alexander Brown notes that what hate speech means in a legal context may not match the layperson's perception (Brown, 2017). Though it is true that many legal defin tions do not match the average person's defin tion, coherent and consistent defin tions are needed in the legal context for legislation to be effective. Part of what makes hate speech difficult is how the term itself is named.

In his book *The Harm In Hate Speech*, Jeremy Waldron draws attention to additional issues that arise from the term "hate speech" itself. He argues that the "hate" part of hate speech often draws too much of the attention when considering

defin tions. In particular, the term "hate" leads people to believe that the presence of hatred is evidentially required for legal intervention. Waldron argues that this gives the false impression that it is thoughts and feelings that are in need of regulation, and not the speech itself (Waldron, 2012, p. 34). Brown also notes that this can cause confusion regarding legislation. If the legal system is searching for the presence of hate when an instance of hate speech occurs, it is too likely that it will fail in identifying hate speech, because there can be different emotions - or no emotions at all - accompanying an instance of hate speech. A racist joke is an example of an instance where hate speech occurs, but potentially without the emotion of hatred. When the presenter is making the speech, more than likely he or she would be laughing as they made the joke. So long as anyone participating in hate speech did so with any emotion other than hatred, or with no emotion at all, that hate speech legislation would prove to be ineffective. Beyond this, hate speech legislation should not aim to regulate people's emotions, but rather the effects of their words. By accepting that the word "hate" in the term "hate speech" is not meant to serve as a true description of what of hate speech is, we can allow for a defin tion that does not rely upon intent. Th s allows regulation to look beyond what was meant by the speaker, and towards what the actual consequences of the speaker's words were. The examples of hate speech discussed in this article are consistent with Brown's and Waldron's understanding that hatred or any other emotion, in particular, need not be present for hate speech to occur.

Other philosophers defi e hate speech for the purposes of addressing why it should be allowed and why it should not. They typically outline a more basic understanding of what hate speech is, without claiming that theirs is the one true defin tion. Their defin tions serve as examples of what hate speech can be, typically as it relates to the purpose of their inquiry. Marcus Schulzke defi es hate speech as speech that offends, excludes, and discriminates against people based on characteristics such as race, religion, sex, and sexual orientation. Maxime Lepoutre defi es hate speech as speech or other communications that deny those it targets their status as "free and equal citizens." Susan J. Brison gives yet another defin tion of hate speech as speech that vilifies and stigmatizes a person or persons based on characteristics such as race, gender, sex, etc. Brison also describes it as speech that creates hostile environments, and constitutes a type of group libel (Lepoutre, 2017; Brison, 1998; Schulzke, 2016). The terminology used in each defin tion varies slightly, but there are key themes to be found in each defin tion. The fi st is that hate speech involves what is often referred to in the United States as protected characteristics, i.e. race, ethnicity, sex, sexual orientation, and disabilities. They are protected because they are characteristics which cannot legally be the basis for discrimination. The second key theme is that each defin tion acknowledges hate speech as discriminatory and exclusive. One issue with the second theme is that while the words themselves can be discriminatory and exclusive, they may not always be. Instead, it is better to think of hate speech as having an effect that is discriminatory and exclusive. Because hate speech targets a person or persons based off of protected characteristics, it is also necessary to recognize hate speech as a

type of group defamation (Waldron, 2012; Brown, 2015; Lepoutre, 2017; Brison, 1998). Including defamation in the defin tion of hate speech means that the speech has a level of falsehood associated with it.

With the key features of these defin tions in mind, a defin tion of hate speech emerges as follows: hate speech is speech that is offensive, defamatory, discriminatory, and excludes members of society from being treated as equal to other members of that society. In addition, hate speech does not need to have any particular emotion associated with the words, and speech encompasses all form of communicative acts. Finally, hate speech targets people based on characteristics such as race, sex, gender, sexual orientation, religion, and disabilities. These are often referred to as protected characteristics in the United States, and this list is not exhaustive, as it can change. To better understand what this defin tion of hate speech looks like, this article demonstrates two different examples of hate speech that show the stark contrast between one form of hate speech and another, with a primary focus on coded hate speech.

Stereotypical Hate Speech vs. Coded Hate Speech

Stereotypical hate speech comprises the easily recognized and often very blatant forms of hate speech that are overtly racist, homophobic, sexist, anti-Semitic, and so on. It could be a single slur word, such as calling someone "faggot" or "nigger," or it could be a more complex use of speech, like a sign that reads "no gays" or a song about not liking black people. Stereotypical hate speech often contains slurs. Slurs are words that

relate specifi ally to a certain type of people and are well-known to be offensive. When a person hears someone using this form of hate speech, they understand immediately and unequivocally that it is offensive. The second type of hate speech occurs alongside what Maxime Lepoutre calls "coded speech" (Lepoutre, 2017, pp. 866–867). Coded speech happens when ordinary words begin to take on different, implicit meanings. Coded hate speech is hate speech that occurs in veiled statements that lack the obvious and blatant elements of the fi st type of hate speech. Coded speech relies on implication. The example that Lepoutre gives is of the term "food stamps." The phrase itself is sometimes associated with laziness. So when someone makes a remark about black people relying on food stamps, what they are really saying is that they are lazy (Lepoutre, 2017, p. 867). Coded hate speech presents the greatest difficulty for hate speech law because it requires a more in-depth investigation to decide whether what was said is truly harmful and defamatory. When people hear coded hate speech, they may not know that what they are hearing is offensive and harmful, because the hateful implications of speech have been encoded, or are implied.

To give a more in-depth example of coded hate speech, suppose a speaker made the statement that "gays have AIDS." While there is some truth to be found in this statement, since the disease has disproportionately affected gay men in America for various reasons, we could still classify it as coded hate speech, because the statement implies that all gay people have AIDS, and also that only gay people have AIDS. The statement is now not only untrue, but also misleading. The statement is harmful to the gay

community because it is false, misleading, and has the ability to alter people's perception of the gay community. In this case, it would be a negative perception. AIDS is a disease that carries its own stigmas. Some common misconceptions about the disease are that it can be spread by breathing the same air, hugging or kissing, and even sharing the same toilet seat (WebMD, 2018). AIDS can only be acquired through bodily fluids such as blood and semen. If a person believed the misconceptions about AIDS, and believed that all and only gays have it, then they would be led to avoid gays on the basis that it would protect them from getting AIDS. Even if a person did not believe the misconceptions, but did believe that gays had AIDS, that person is still holding a very stigmatizing belief about the entire gay community. The speaker has not only engaged in coded hate speech, but has also encoded the words "gay" and "AIDS" to be synonymous with one another.

When society holds such a negative perspective about a group of people, it causes those people to feel isolated and excluded. Because of this, they miss out on opportunities, relationship, and services. When the AIDS crisis of the 1980s began, those that contracted the disease experienced these exact results. In an NPR article titled "Caring for AIDS Patients 'When No One Else Would,'" Ruth Coker Burks discusses how she spent time caring for patients whose families had abandoned them. She describes how she witnessed nurses "drawing straws" to see which one of them would have to go take care of the patient. She also talks about how she had to bury patients through her own fi ancial means, because their families refused to have anything

to do with them (NPR, 2017). Even though more than three decades have passed since the events she spoke of, AIDS continues to be a much stigmatized disease. Coded hate speech is not always so easily recognized as overt hate speech. As demonstrated by the example of the AIDS statement, coded speech comes with multiple implications about its targets. The implications of these statements must be made explicit to better understand the type of harm they do to their targets. While both examples of hate speech harm their targets, coded hate speech is able to do so more effectively, because people may agree with the speech without ever doubting its wrongness, as it may not initially appear wrong. Th s is because coded hate speech can be mixed in with just enough fact that it creates a general statement, that people then treat as a universal statement. For something to be a universal statement, it must be true in all cases. It is logically acceptable to make an inference from a universal claim to a specific scenario. If a person believed that all gays had AIDS, then it would be logical to assume that anyone gay person they came into contact with would have AIDS. The problem in this example is that the general statement was barely true, and because of the way it was portrayed, it carried the illusion of being true. Had the speaker said that many members of the gay community have AIDS, its implications and harms would be altered. That statement no longer implies that all gays and only gays have AIDS. The actual truth of the statement was made more explicit, and regardless of the intention of the statement, the potential for harm that the fi st statement had is slightly diminished.

Harms of Hate Speech

Taking a closer look at the different types of harm that accompany hate speech, one pervasive kind of harm is damage to the targeted group's (or the individual's) mental health. Mental health research has proven that words can in fact harm (Leary & Haupt, 1995; Kross, Mischel, Smith & Wager, 2011; Teicher, Samson, Yi-Shen, Polcari & McGreenery, 2010). Th s is evidenced in cases of bullying and harassment which can cause the victims to have issues such as lowered self-esteem. People with low self-esteem are more likely to experience anxiety, depression, loneliness, jealousy, and behavioral problems (Leary & Haupt 1995). According to Leary and Haupt's study, low self-esteem has a relationship with social exclusion. When people have low self-esteem, they are more likely to do things to change other people's perception of them, such as following social standards and adopting the values of society (Leary & Haupt, 1995, p. 300). In the case of hate speech, this becomes problematic. If the views expressed by hate speech have spread far enough into society, the victims of hate speech would then be adopting those same values and standards. Th s would mean that they are adopting false and negative perceptions about themselves and the other people whose characteristics they share. It is unlikely that this would have a positive impact on their already lowered self-esteem. An example of this is when people try to change or deny their sexual orientation through acts such as conversion therapy. Numerous states in the US have banned conversion therapy. The American Psychological Association spoke out against attempts to change sexual orientation, because it presented signifi ant risk to the mental health of the individual. In addition to this, the failed attempts to change sexual orientation only served to "undermine self-esteem" (APA, 2018). As for a solution to raising self-esteem, this solution would only leave the person back where they started, with low self-esteem.

People who experience mental health issues have many resources at their disposal to combat those harms. Th s is one reason that it is difficult for mental health to be used as a justifi ation for hate speech legislation. The second reason is that the justifi ation rests upon feelings. The emotional harm that one victim of hate speech feels may be signifi antly less than another. For instance, one victim has low self-esteem and the other does not. The person with low self-esteem is already concerned with where they fit in with society. Being a victim of hate speech intensifi d the feeling of exclusion that they already had. The victim without a low self-esteem issue was unbothered. They were comfortable enough with their place in society that the words of the hate speaker had little to no effect on them. If the person with low self-esteem took advantage of the resources available to them, such as therapy, they could raise their self-esteem and be unaffected by further instances of hate speech, thus there would be no need for legislation. There is also the issue of gauging how much mental and emotional harm is enough harm to justify legal action. Because mental and emotional harms are just as difficult to gauge as a representation of hatred is, it seems likely that any legislation that relies solely on mental harm would fail to be effective. Yet there is more to the damages of hate speech than mental health.

Waldron claims that emotional harm is not the

type of harm that should be the focus of prevention for hate speech laws. Instead, he argues that legal avenues of hate speech prevention should focus on the social harms that occur when members of groups identifi d by protected characteristics are the targets of hate speech. He gives an account of this social harm in his book, where he describes the harm of hate speech as a social harm that influences the way other members of society view the victims or targets of hate speech. According to Waldron, hate speech laws are not meant to protect from offense: they are meant to protect dignity. He defi es dignity as not meaning self-esteem, but instead a "person's basic entitlement to be regarded as a member of society in good standing, as someone whose membership of a minority does not disqualify him or her from ordinary social interaction (Waldron, 2012, p. 105)." Over time, targets of hate speech, coded or otherwise, begin to be seen as unequal or lesser members of society. When members of society are viewed as less, the rights they should hold as members of that society become eroded. The erosion of rights is what happened to those with AIDS and what motivated equal rights movements such as the Civil Rights Movement. It becomes easier to justify denying people rights when those people are thought of as undeserving of those rights because they are unequal to those who have them. Th s harm is particularly acute when members of society who hold positions of authority and influence are violating their roles and responsibilities to all members of society by engaging in hate speech.

Though Waldron claims that hate speech legislation should focus on the social harms rather than the emotional or mental harms of hate speech,

it is not so easy to separate the two. People who are victims of hate speech are likely to feel both. As the views expressed by hate speech spread into society, the way they are viewed and treated by society increases in negativity, which then adds to their mental harm. The main difference in these harms, as far as Waldron is concerned, is that society only has a duty to protect one and that is their place in society. Yet there is much resistance to the idea of the government further regulating speech. That is because protecting the equal rights of all citizens clashes with protecting the freedom of speech of those same citizens. There are a few types of speech that are unprotected by the fi st amendment. They are defamation against an individual, threats of violence, and "fi hting words." The examples and defin tion of hate speech used thus far have demonstrated that hate is speech that can be a type of group defamation. For a defamation suit to be successful, suffici t harm has to be proved. When private members of society participate in hate speech, it is not thought to be a believable claim that their words carry enough importance to be truly damaging to an entire group. It is for this reason that hate speech legislation that aims to protect the social status of all its citizens needs to focus on those members of society who have the most authority and influence in society: those who are obligated, fi st and foremost, to treat citizens equally and protect their rights as equal citizens.

Why Regulating the Speech of Those in Power Matters

Those who hold positions of authority and influence in society, e.g. public servants, typically exercise that authority or influence over a wide

variety of people. They often come in to contact, or are responsible for and representative of, all members of society, regardless of what categories they fall under with respect to protected characteristics. Positions of influence include politicians, teachers, law enforcement offic s and any other public position that exercises authority and influence over their constituents. Politicians, although elected, are representative of all of the people in the society where they work. Teachers have a responsibility to all students who enter the classroom or school where they work. Law Enforcement Offic s have a duty to protect all members of a society that they serve. Each of these positions also requires the trust of those they serve. Those that they serve, trust that they will protect, inform, and represent them all equally and truthfully. The level of trust that accompanies these positions means that they carry what are called fi uciary duties. To have fi uciary duties means they are obligated to act within the best interests of those they serve. When someone with the fi uciary duty acts contrary to the best interests of another party, they can in some cases be held legally liable for any damages.

When a person who holds one of these positions engages in hate speech, stereotypical or coded, they are asserting that the groups of people they target are not on the list of individuals that they deem worthy of serving. Th s is considered a breach of duty, because there should be no exceptions to who they serve. A teacher employed for a school has a duty to teach all the students they are assigned. According to the Kansas Educator Code of Conduct pamphlet, Kansas teachers have certain responsibilities to students. The two that are most violated by a teacher

engaging in hate speech are the responsibility to advocate for fair and equitable opportunities for all students, and to provide professional education services in a nondiscriminatory manner (Kansas State Department of Education, 2014). Similarly, police departments outline what is considered police misconduct, giving police a set of rules they are not allowed to violate relating to how they do their job and how they interact with those they serve. Even though punishment for the violations of duty, responsibilities, and trust that happen when people in these positions engage in hate speech are legally enforceable, there is no legislation demanding that they are enforced, and sometimes they are enforced but not maintained. By not enforcing punishment for violations of duty, the trust of those they target becomes eroded, and because they are in influential authority positions, their speech can encourage others to behave in a similar manner. The message becomes clear: not everyone should be treated equal, and if people in a trusted position can behave in a certain manner, it is okay for those who look up to them to behave that way as well.

In addition to duty, there is a legal and constitutional reason for restricting hate speech at this level. In an article titled "The Equal Protection Implications of Government's Hateful Speech," Helen Norton argues that when members of government engage in hate speech as "government actors," they are essentially violating the Equal Protection Clause, depending upon how the equal protection clause is interpreted. The term "government actors" refers to people who are speaking as a mouthpiece of the government. An example that Norton gives of a government

actor or action is of a speech given by President Andrew Jackson. In the speech, Jackson made a statement that targeted African Americans, claiming that they were incapable of successfully forming a government and that when they were not being led by others, they would end up in a state of "barbarism"(Norton, 2012, p. 165). When Jackson gave this speech, he was addressing Congress and was speaking as the president, and therefore as an actor of the government. Norton gives two contexts in which the Equal Protection Clause can be interpreted. The fi st is anti-subordination, which argues that the equal protection clause exists to keep the government from engaging in acts that oppress groups based on protected characteristics. The second is anti-classifi ation, which means that the Equal Protection Clause's purpose is to prevent laws built around race-based classifi ations (Norton, 2012, p. 172).

Assuming that the fi st interpretation of the Equal Protection Clause is the correct one, it is clear how hate speech from authority figu es, or members of the government, would violate the Equal Protection Clause. When these figu es engage in hate speech, they are creating an environment that changes the social status of the victims. That social status is essentially what they should be protecting. Th s is the social harm that Waldron argued should be the focus of hate speech legislation. It is important to acknowledge that currently, government speech is not affected by the fi st amendment. According to the American Bar Association, if the government is "engaging in its own expressive conduct then the free speech clause has no application." But that is not to say that the government is immune from speech-related restraints. If the speech of the government violated other constitutional clauses, then the speech of the government could be restrained. In the case of government speech violating the equal protection clause, one would only need to prove that suffici t harm had been done by the speech. Yet, thus far, there is no law specifi ally preventing hate speech. Beyond the need to prove that hate speech does suffici t harm, there is the autonomy defense that stands as a roadblock to hate speech legislation.

Issues with Autonomy as a Defense

Some might argue that the opinions expressed by hate speech are the personal opinions which individuals are entitled to have, and that the fi st amendment affords them that protection. What a person is legally entitled to and what they are morally entitled to become separated in the case of freedom of speech. The Free Speech Clause prevents the government from restricting the speech of citizens, and yet there are numerous resources available that try to teach people that words can hurt. There are websites devoted to anti-bullying, generations of people in America grew up with the saying "if you have nothing nice to say, don't say it," and the most common religious text in the United States has a section that instructs its readers not to judge. People understand that on a moral level hate speech is wrong, but at the legal level, it is accepted as a right. People's acceptance of hate speech as a legal right is in part due to arguments based on autonomy. For the government to restrict their speech would be a restriction on their autonomy. The autonomy of the speaker and the listener are

often used, and very effectively, as a defense for protecting freedom of speech. The relationship between free speech and autonomy comes from the "open market of ideas" concept as explained by John Milton's and John Stuart Mill's concepts of utilitarianism (Slagle, 2009). If the government is restricting the speech of citizens, then ideas are not being freely shared, and people are not allowed to make judgments based on the best available information. Limiting free speech thus constitutes a violation of people's autonomy, but hate speech also has the potential to violate autonomy. Th s usually comes in the form of the listener's autonomy being violated by the speaker's hate speech. There are two ways that this happens. The fi st concerns undue influence on the willing listener, and the second concerns the unwilling listener.

Alexander Brown discusses autonomy in the workplace in his book *Hate Speech Law: A Philosophical Examination.* In the section on autonomy, he discusses how there are forms of hate speech that can be classifi d as "undue influence." He gives two accounts of undue influence that most relate to the central concerns with hate speech used by those in influential positions of authority. The fi st account is of a speaker who used false or misleading information to manipulate an audience's "mental process," and the second, "undue influence in terms of failure to discharge positional responsibilities" (Brown, 2015, pp. 62–64). In the second account, Brown is referring to those in positions of authority who are abusing those positions to advance an agenda or further personal views. He argues that it is considered undue influence because the listeners are "epistemically" dependent upon the speaker

for information (Brown, 2015, pp. 64–65). Th s means that listeners are relying upon the speaker for information, and have reason to believe in the reliability of the information, as it comes from an offi al source. If the speaker is engaging in coded hate speech which is false and/or misleading, then they are unduly influencing the minds and opinions of those listeners who depend on them for information. In this case, the autonomy of the listener has been violated because the speaker presented false and/or misleading information to influence their minds. Th s compromises the listener's autonomy, because it prevents them from making rational decisions.

For example, a doctor lies to a patient and convinces them that they have a life-threatening disease. Th s disease can only be treated by undergoing dangerous surgery that has a 50/50 survival rate. The patient is informed of this and chooses to undergo the surgery to survive the disease. The patient dies as a result of the surgery. Regardless of the doctor's motivation for the lie, he is responsible for the death because of the lie. The reason is as follows: the patient only chose to go through with the dangerous surgery because the doctor told them it was needed. They are not in a position to question the doctor's judgment, and are predisposed to trusting his judgment due to his position and respect for his knowledge. Autonomy requires a person to be able to make their own decisions, and though they made the decision to have the surgery, that decision was based on false information that motivated the need for the decision. Thus, their autonomy was compromised. The same can be said of the relationship between those in authority positions and their listeners. Although the listeners may be

willing, they willingly listen to those in positions of authority with the mindset that what they are being told is true. Th s presumption of truth is related to the fi uciary duties that come with these positions of influence and authority. When people in these positions engage in hate speech, they are sharing information that is untrue, which leads to abrogation of their fi uciary duties.

The second issue with autonomy as a defense is that the autonomy of the speaker confli ts with the autonomy of the unwilling listener. The unwilling listener, in the case of hate speech, can be considered the victim of hate speech. When a person of influential authority speaks, their words are often heard beyond the initial platform from which they spoke, and their words manage to permeate into society. Because of this, it is not as easy for the unwilling listener to simply ignore their words and avoid the social harms that accompany them. Consider the events concerning foreign language use in the United States during WW1. During the early 1900s, numerous anti-German propaganda campaigns were happening in America. These campaigns were led by both government and private organizations. One such campaign, led by the American Defense League, argued that the German language was not fit to be taught to "pure American boys and girls," and their reasoning for this was that the German language was the means through which Germany was attempting to "pervert American youth" (Leubke, 1980, p. 5). Another organization called The National Education Association claimed that teaching foreign languages was "un-American and un-patriotic." (Leubke, 1980, p. 6). Th s type of hate speech accompanied laws like a 1918 law in Texas that made it a criminal offense to teach

foreign languages in school (Racial Equality Tools). Because this speech was so publicized, the victims of that hate speech would essentially be unable to ignore it. The hate speech creates a hostile environment for its victims so that not only are they subjected to the speech and any action that follows, such as a law, they are also subjected to the changing perspectives of their fellow citizens. The speech has effectively violated their individual autonomy as it concerns how they present themselves in society, because the speech influenced society to view them otherwise. Essentially, their own freedom of speech and expression has been silenced by hate speech. If these were both cases of private citizens engaging in hate speech, then legally it would be permissible, due to the protection afforded by the fi st amendment; but when hate speech comes from those in positions of authority, they are not speaking or acting as private citizens, and should be held legally liable for the consequences of their words.

Regardless of how a person views hate speech on a legal or moral level, their ability and essential right to participate in unrestricted freedom of speech only holds true when they are acting as private citizens. The following examples are cases that demonstrate workplace restrictions on autonomy that are legally accepted, meaning that the restrictions are not considered a violation of the fi st amendment. Take, for example, the Hatch Act that was implemented in 1939. The Hatch Act prevents government employees from participating in certain political activities in the workplace, while on duty or when they are representing the government. In some cases, employees are restricted from these activities

even when they are off duty. The purpose of the hatch act is to prevent partisan activity in the government and to prevent members of government from influencing voter decisions. Some restrictions include not using social media to engage in political activity, not encouraging or discouraging political activity of people who have business with the department they work for, not asking subordinate employees to participate in political activity, and not wearing or displaying partisan items (OSC.gov). The penalties for violating the Hatch Act range from suspension to removal from the position in question.

The Hatch Act is not considered a violation of the fi st amendment. Justice Stanley F. Reed, who wrote the majority opinion for the Supreme Court case "United Public Workers v. Mitchell," said that the employee's right to free expression had to be weighed against "the requirements of orderly administration and administrative personnel" (Vile, 1947). The need for order outweighed free expression in the workplace, and the Hatch Act was upheld. The Hatch Act serves the purpose of protection from and prevention of undue influence as it concerns politics. When government employees accept their jobs, they accept this restriction on autonomy. However, government employees are not the only ones who accept restrictions on autonomy in the workplace. Another example of a workplace restriction is the recent case involving TV star Rosanne Barr, who was fi ed from her rebooted television show because she made racist comments on her own private Twitter account. The TV station chose to fi e her because of the comments, and they were within their legal rights to do so. The United States operates on an at-will employment

policy, meaning that a person can be fi ed from a job for any reason other than an illegal reason. Illegal reasons include fi ing a person based on protected characteristics. For employees of the private sector, the fi st amendment essentially does not carry over into their work. The reason for this is that the fi st amendment concerns what the government can do, not what private citizens (or companies) can and cannot do. The use of these examples serves two purposes. The fi st is to showcase that both of these examples lay the groundwork to a claim that free speech and autonomy are not unlimited while in the workplace. The second is to demonstrate that even though the government cannot restrict the free speech right of its citizens, it can restrict free speech for its employees, meaning that the government has the ability to restrict its own speech, and by implementing and maintaining use of the Hatch Act, the government has created the means by which to do so. Before discussing the full implications of these two claims, however, it is necessary to explore other proposed solutions to hate speech that do not include legislation

Issues with Other Options for Combatting the Harms of Hate Speech

Maxime Lepoutre makes an argument for the usefulness of politicians taking a verbal stand against hate speech. Her theory is that politicians have the ability to use their positions to speak out against hate speech, and that this would be an effective tool in combatting the damages of hate speech that carries with it less of a cost to freedom of speech (Lepoutre, 2017). Again, this is a concern for autonomy. By supporting

counterspeech as opposed to bans, a person's autonomy is protected because they retain the right to speak their opinion. There is no doubt that, just as a person in an influential authority position can cause a signifi ant amount of harm by using their platform for hate speech, they can also assist in combatting the harms of hate speech by speaking out against it. Even though it is an option, it is not viable as the only alternative or even a better alternative to regulating the speech of those in that position. There is no assurance that anyone will speak out, because if the goal is to protect autonomy, there will be no force to motivate counterspeech. The victims of the speech would only have to hope that someone else in power would respond on their behalf. In addition to this, if the authority figu e retains their position, counterspeech does little in the way of assuring the victim that the speaker's opinions will not carry over into their duties and actions. The speaker is able to send a message by engaging in hate speech; the response needs to be just as strong and more effective at ensuring the victim's equal status in society.

In his article "The Social Benefits of Protecting Hate Speech and Exposing Source of Prejudice," Marcus Schulzke argues that by allowing hate speech, those who hold those negative views are able to express them and can then be judged and condemned by society. The idea behind his argument is that bans essentially force people to hide, but by protecting that speech they are able to expose those views to society, and counterspeech allows for "persuasion and refutation" (Schulzke, 2016, p. 227). For the average individual who has not been elevated to any status of importance, Schulzke makes a reasonable assumption in how

society would handle their negative views. Yet, people often view the authority figu es of society with a sense of trust and admiration. They are leaders, and as such, people may believe that they have a reason for speaking the things they do. Th s becomes even more complicated when the speaker is using coded speech rather than overt hate speech. If a politician called someone a slur that is well known to be a condemned word in society, the backlash would be the type that Schulzke talks about. But when they use coded speech, those they speak to may not know that what is being said, and what they are choosing to believe, is hate speech. Because people trust those in authority positions, they may fi d reasons to believe that what they are saying is justifi d rather than condemn them for what they are saying. To condemn them for what they are saying would require a person to go beyond what they believe, which is that they trust this person and that what they are being told is true, and formulate a new belief. The idea of counterspeech is that it would give people the new information they need to formulate a belief that is contrary to what they fi st believed about the hate speaker and their message. Th s is unreliable as a means for combatting the social harms of hate speech. Human beings are naturally inclined to take in information that supports their belief system. Th s is called confi mation bias. Confi mation bias is defi ed as "the tendency to process information by looking for, or interpreting, information that is consistent with one's existing beliefs" (Casad, 2016). If the person already agreed with the speaker, or formed a new belief because of the speaker, they are going to be less likely to accept the information received from counterspeech, because it is contrary to the

beliefs they already have.

In this event, the only people condemning them are the ones that do not agree or the ones that can be convinced. While attempts to convince people to form non-prejudiced beliefs, or change existing ones, are necessary and wanted to solve at least one issue with hate speech, they are not effective as the only solution. Counterspeech, further, does not send as strong a message on where the leaders of a society stand on hate speech as would legislation that ends an authority figure's ability to use their position to engage in hate speech. There is no guarantee that counterspeech will be effective at combatting the social harms of hate speech. Counterspeech does have some effectiveness, particularly in the private realm, in that it lets the victims of hate speech know that not all those in authority positions view them that way; however, it does not stop the hate speakers from using their influential platform to spread their defamatory views. Counterspeech will still be effective at making explicit the implicit statements that accompany coded hate speech, but it will be more effective if it is used alongside legislation that removes the authority figure from their position if they engage in hate speech of any kind.

Options for Legislation

If counterspeech cannot be relied upon to effectively combat the social harms of hate speech, produced specifially by those in authority positions, then the other option is legislation. One form of legislation would be to create a law similar to the Hatch Act that only applies to people in public service positions. As mentioned previously, when the government created the act, they created a means through which the government could restrict its own speech. Recall that the justifiation for the Hatch Act was maintaining order in the workplace, and preventing undue influence. Hate speech creates disorder in society and has the ability to unduly influence people. Creating legislation for public servants that specifially prohibits hate speech in the workplace is justifiable on those grounds. Ths legislation would not expand to private citizens acting as private citizens. It would only apply to people in public servant positions, paid for and representative of the government when they are at work, on-duty, representing their work, or speaking with the authority of their position.

Accompanying this type of legislation would be some sort of punishment for engaging in hate speech under those conditions. The Hatch Act' stipulated punishments ranging from suspension to termination from the position for individuals found to be in violation. The option for suspension allows for an investigation of the claims that they engaged in prohibited speech, and could also allow for alternative options such as a public apology in order to be reinstated to the position. If these guidelines were applied to hate speech, a public apology would work in the way that counterspeech does, only society is not judging the speaker for their belief: instead the speaker is doing it themselves. Not only would the victims of hate speech be subject to this, but those who agree with the speaker would no longer be encouraged by that particular person. If suspension and apology is accepted as a solution, there would also need to be limitations on the amount of times a person could go against this legislation before being fied became the only option. Legislation

is ineffective if a person is continually allowed to apologize, only to return to their position and continue doing that for which they apologized. Though there is no guarantee that when a person apologizes, they actually mean it, nevertheless there is still value to be found in apologies. For a hate speaker to publicly apologize for their speech would demonstrate that they value their position and duties more than freely speaking their opinion. Th s shows that they would be able to continue doing the job of upholding the values of equality, regardless of their speech. If they are not suspended, then they would be fi ed, which would demonstrate that the agency they work for takes the equal status of it constituents seriously. The only way for this to be truly effective is if, upon being established that they did indeed use hate speech, these actions were taken, and if the person is fi ed from the position, that they remain so. If not, the trust that needs to be established between citizens and those in authority positions becomes eroded. Allowing them to return to their jobs after breaking the rule undermines the effectiveness of the rule by demonstrating that a person can break it and receive no punishment.

The fi al and most extreme option is criminal punishment. Criminal punishment for a person who violates anti-hate speech legislation would include fi es and/or jail time. Th s is possibly the least viable option for this article's focus on hate speech legislation. To criminalize hate speech that does not explicitly incite violence violates autonomy far more than fi ing a person from a job. It sends the message that if you think this way, you don't get to participate in society, or that you have to pay to do so. The social harms of hate speech warrant removal from a position for those in authority positions, but lacks the level of violence that would be associated with criminal punishment. Losing a job, instead, says that you are free to speak what is on your mind, but not at work if it violates the values and duties associated with the position.

Firing a person or making them apologize for hate speech will not undo all the social harms of hate speech, and it will not treat the underlying cause of a person's need to engage in hate speech. What it will do is prevent that particular person from continuing to add to the social harm by indirectly sanctioning their hate speech. It will also reaffirm to the victims of hate speech that those who hold authority in society are dedicated to equality, and that those who support the views often found in hate speech will fi d no support from the leaders of their society. Th s last point is problematic for some (Lepoutre, 2017; Schulzke, 2016), because those members of society who agree with the hate speakers are in sense minorities themselves. They are outcast by society for their views. A problem though this may be, it is not the job of society's leaders to cater to their views: it is their job to protect their rights and status as equals alongside other members in society.

Conclusion

The ability to participate in hate speech comes at the cost of harming those it targets. The speech is derogatory, exclusive, and defamatory. For private citizens, the right to hate speech is a legal right afforded to them by the fi st amendment of the Constitution. Th s does not hold true for citizens in the

workplace, and it is critical that it not hold true for those working as public servants. Their words and opinion have more power, because their positions are influential and give them authority in society. Public servants have a duty to perform their responsibilities equally and in a nondiscriminatory manner. When they are allowed to engage in hate speech, they are violating this duty. By creating legislation that strips them of their positions when they engage in hate speech, they will be unable to continue contributing to the social harms of hate speech, and some of the damage can be repaired.

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Research Summaries

Black Men's Needs and Assets Assessment

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Introduction

In order to develop and implement effective treatments for mental health disorders and trauma, it is important to consider the perceptions of those who suffer mental health disorders or have experienced trauma. The impact of trauma and adverse childhood experiences is integral in understanding mental health. Much of the applied research concerning mental health and trauma aims to promote overall well-being and health in society; however, only a limited number of studies have included a sample diverse enough for generalizations to be made beyond the white population. There is a dearth of data regarding ethnic minority groups and their mental health and trauma. Th s study aims to address this by identifying the perceptions of mental health and available social support held by Black men attending Wichita State University (WSU).

Intense or prolonged adverse childhood experiences, or trauma, could obstruct brain development, causing magnifi d stress responses to stimuli (Perry, 2006; Read & Mayne, 2017). Furthermore, traumatic experiences could cause speech and walking delays, social awkwardness, and overall difficulty performing daily activities (Perry, 2006). Overall, neglected trauma can lead to mental and physical health effects, indicating needed attention for at-risk groups. Black and/or African American men are more likely to experience adverse childhood experiences than White men (Briggs, Quinn, Orellana & Miller, 2015), and are susceptible to experiencing intergenerational or historical trauma due to circumstances such as slavery, segregation, and racial discrimination throughout the history

of the United States (Perry, 2006; Else-Quest & Hyde, 2017). Th s may place them at higher risk for negative mental and physical health issues.

Additionally, Black and/or African American men may experience stigmas associated with both culture and gender roles, which may intensify the harmful effects created by such stigmas (Campbell & Long, 2014; Calvert, Isaac & Johnson, 2012; Berger, Levant, McMillan, Kelleher & Sellers, 2005; Genuchi & Mitsunaga, 2015; Nicholas, 2000; Rice et al., 2015). The issue is further magnifi d by the fact that Black and/or African American males' mental health is often underserved and underrepresented, possibly contributing to their being more susceptible to heart disease, stroke, cancer, diabetes, and death than White males (APA, 2017).

Few studies regarding mental health focus specifi ally on the Black and/or African American male population, and how the community could better serve their mental health needs according to the group's strengths, values, and perceptions of mental health. Th s pilot study addresses this gap by conducting a needs and assets assessment of Black and/or African American men attending Wichita State University (WSU), specifi ally focused on identifying group strengths, values, and perceptions of mental health. The purpose of this study is to determine if there are common, underrepresented needs and perceptions that may be essential to effective mental health care for Black and/or African American men. The questions this study aimed to answer were: What are preexisting sources of social support for Black and/or African American men? How do Black and/or African American males perceive mental health? And what are common help-seeking or coping behaviors displayed by Black and/or African American males?

Methods

An IRB approved survey of 67 questions comprises the primary method of data collection for this study. Questions included those from the standardized Perceived Stress Scale (Cohen, 1988), Youth Risk Behavior Survey (CDC, 2019), Kaiser Permanente Men's Family Health History Questionnaire (CDC, 1995), Life Events Checklist or LEC-5 (Blake et al., 1995), and the Adverse Childhood Experience Questionnaire (CDC, 1995). There were also seven open-ended questions. Eligible participants were recruited through university organizations and given the opportunity to take the survey. To be included in the study, participants had to identify as Black and/or African American, as well as male. Each

participant was provided a consent form and was notifi d of their ability to withdrawal at any time. A debriefi g statement was provided upon completion. Thematic analysis was utilized to analysis open-ended questions, while frequencies were calculated for other questions. Additionally, standardized analysis was used for the Perceived Stress Scale.

Results

Six of the 10 responses were eligible for analysis. All six of these participants were WSU students who identifi d as Black and/or African American, non-Latinx/Hispanic, cisgender males between 18 and 25 years old. All of the participants had not seriously thought about,

planned, or attempted suicide in the past 12 months. Seventeen percent of participants used marijuana more than 30 times within the past 30 days; 100% of participants had not smoked cigarettes or used any other recreational drugs in the past 30 days. Eighty-three percent of participants had struggled with their emotions or an emotional state in their lives. All of participants were comfortable talking about their emotions to others. Sixty-seven percent of participants had one or two people they were comfortable talking to, while 33% had more than three.

On the perceived stress scale, 33% of participants scored 19 (moderate stress), 17% scored 14 (moderate stress), 17% scored 23 (moderate stress), and 33% scored 13 (low stress). Eighty-three percent of participants had experienced at least three traumatic events within their lifetime. Eighty-three percent of participants experienced or witnessed the sudden death of a close one, and 83% experienced or witnessed a serious accident or injury. Half of the participants caused serious harm or injury to another, and 67% experienced or witnessed a natural disaster and/or explosion.

Seventeen percent of participants experienced physical abuse by a parent or other adult within the fi st 18 years of their life. Seventeen percent of participants did not feel loved or special to their family members, they often felt their family was not close or supportive of each other. Thi ty-three percent of participants' parents had gotten divorced within the fi st 18 years of their life. Thi ty-three percent of participants lived with a household member who was depressed, mentally ill, or had attempted suicide within the fi st 18 years of their life. One of the participants

had seen a psychologist or psychiatrist in their lifetime. When asked what they liked most about the experience, they responded "I didn't like it." When asked what they liked least about they experience they said "talking to someone I don't know."

Half of the participants described where they grew up as the "hood" or "ghetto," while 33% described theirs as "suburban" or "middle class." When asked who in the community, outside of the family, they felt most comfortable confidi g in, 67% of participants said friends or peers. When asked who they felt comfortable talking to about emotional issues/stress, all responded friends or peers, and 33% mentioned family. When asked where in the community, outside of the home, they felt most comfortable and safe, 83% of participants said school.

Discussion and Limitations

Supporting past research, the data collected for this study suggest that although the majority of these Black and/or African American men experienced traumatic events and adverse childhood experiences within their lives, they did not externalize traumatic symptoms (Briggs, Quinn, Orellana & Miller, 2015). Eighty-three percent of participants had experienced or witnessed at least three traumatic events within their lives, and likewise, 83% of participants had experienced at least one adverse childhood experience before the age of 18. Notwithstanding, All of the participants described never having suicidal thoughts, plans, or attempts in the past 12 months, and also reported never smoking cigarettes within the past 30 days. Only one participant described regular use of recreational

marijuana, and all of the participants did not use any recreational drug.

Considering the participants' adverse childhood experiences, half described living in a "hood" or "ghetto" area, and eighty-three percent had either been physically/emotionally abused, emotionally neglected, had experienced their parents' divorce, or had lived with someone with mental illness within the fi st 18 years of their life. eighty-three percent of these participants also had experienced traumatic events, such as the sudden death of a close one, a serious accident or injury, a natural disaster, or themselves infli ting serious harm on another. Additional data reported 83% participants had struggled with emotions or a mental state within their lives, and the majority of participants (67%) experienced moderate perceived stress. Th s suggests the trauma and adverse experiences the participants encountered may have contributed to mental distress and stress levels, but not externalized behaviors.

The survey also revealed that social support from family, friends, and school may be quality buffers against trauma and stress impacts, while traditional therapy may not be as effective for this population. Only one participant had been to therapy, and described disliking the experience completely. Nonetheless, when participants were asked who they felt most comfortable discussing emotional issues/stress with, 100% said friends or peers and 33% said family. When asked where in the community, outside of the home, they felt the safest, 83% of participants said school. Th s data suggests that therapy may not be reaching the Black and/or African American population, and when it does, it is ineffici t. It also suggests that efforts aimed at schools, peers, and family regarding general mental healthcare may be the ideal way to reach this population, and strengthen their preexisting sources of social support.

There were many limitations to the completion of the study. These included possible participant bias, time constraints (the study was conducted in under a year), and restricted participant eligibility. Each of these problems contributed to larger limitations, such as possible invalid responses, a small sample size, and the inability to run correlational analysis correctly. Despite this, there was still an evident pattern in the data. Ultimately, the study's sample could not provide any conclusive or generalizable data or interpretations, but it did suggest certain correlations and themes. Therefore, replication of such patterns and possible correlations in larger samples should be attempted in future research.

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Smiley-o-meters Display Children's Opinions of Books and iPad Activities During a Summer Literacy Camp

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Introduction

Smiley-o-meters are a survey method used widely in many disciplines to receive feedback from individuals' experiences. A given survey displays a horizontal row of faces representing different emotions. Individuals are asked to mark the emotion that best represents how they feel. Many studies use 1–5 Likert scales, such as those done by Hall, Hume and Tazzyman (2016), Sim, Horton, and Danino (2012), and Al-Wabil, Alabdulqader, Al-Abdulkarim, and Al-Twairesh (2010). Th s is done in order to give participants a neutral option in the center. A supporting word that describes the emotions is listed underneath each facial expression, (e.g. "fantastic" under a happy face). Smiley-o-meters are intended to be quick and easy to complete, while limiting the amount of necessary reading and writing.

For the current study, a smiley-o-meter was used before and after a child completed an intended activity related to literacy. By surveying children before, we gathered a measure of the expectation that a child feels before the activity. A survey afterwards indicates how they felt once they completed the activity, and whether their opinion changed. The purpose of the current pilot study was to integrate the smiley-o-meter in a summer literacy camp setting, and to view whether children's opinions changed from the beginning of a six-week summer literacy camp to the end.

Methods

Ten children (6 boys, 4 girls) participated in the Summer Literacy Camp. Participants' ages ranged from 6:2 (six years and two months) to 9:4 (nine years and four months), and all participants had completed either kindergarten, fi st, or second grade. All participants were also identifi d with language-literacy disabilities or difficulties with literacy in school. Recruitment methods included emails and flyer announcements to specific groups in the Wichita area. Materials for the study included a smiley-o-meter survey, crayons, and a clipboard. To identify when each survey was completed, a coding system was implemented. Before Book (BB), After Book (AB), Before iPad (BI), or After iPad (AI) were written on each survey. Dates were added to each survey and students were assigned individual numbers.

The summer literacy camp was held for six weeks during the summer, on Tuesdays and Thursdays, for 2.5 hours each day. Prior to the fi st day of camp, students were assessed and placed into groups. Each day, children completed reading activities, along with spelling and phonological awareness activities on an iPad. The current study was focused on the smiley-o-meters administered before and after book reading, and before and after the phonological awareness activities on the iPad. Students began camp as an entire group so they could get introduced to the book of the day. Certain steps were taken before children began to read, in order to gain a more accurate understanding of how a child felt about a particular book. As a group, children made predictions about what they would be reading, held child-to-teacher discussions, and engaged in a "picture walk." Once they were fin shed, they received a smiley-o-meter survey and were asked, "Before you read the book, how do you think you will feel about it?" They were instructed to mark the best response and write their identifi ation number on the survey. After surveys were filled out, the students separated into their designated groups to read and complete activities related to the book. Discussion and activities allowed more time for a child to analyze and understand what they read. Once they were done, a second survey was given to them. The phrase, "How did you feel about the book now that you have read it?" was used.

After the book activities were completed, students were split into two groups. One group did a spelling activity, and the other completed a phonological awareness activity on an iPad. Instructions were given to the children about what phonological awareness activity they would be doing. They also had an opportunity to practice before they began. Students received a smiley-o-meter survey to fill out and were asked, "Before you do the iPad activity, how do you think you will feel about it?" After they completed the survey, they began their iPad phonological awareness activity. Once they fin shed the iPad activity, they received another survey. They were asked, "Now that you have completed your iPad activity, how did you feel about it?" Each student completed their survey and the smiley-o-meters were collected in the AI group for that date.

Results

A Likert scale was used for scoring the responses given on each survey. They included the following ranks: 5 for "awful," 4 for "not very

good," 3 for "okay," 2 for "really good," and 1 for "fantastic." Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics for both book and iPad activities, and a total score across the six weeks was calculated. Scores from before and after children read a book showed that the total number of kids that ranked "fantastic" went up from BB (65) to AB (69). As a result of the increase in opinion on "fantastic," the remaining options decreased from BB to AB (e.g., "okay" score for BB was 11, the AB score decreased to 10). Based on the survey scores, children enjoyed the books they read. On the phonological awareness activities before and after, "Fantastic" scores improved drastically from BB (54) to AB (73), while the remaining neutral and negative opinions (really good, okay, not very good, awful) decreased (e.g. "really good" score for BB was 22, while the AB score decreased to 16). Overall, children enjoyed the phonological awareness iPad activities that they completed.

Discussion

Th s pilot study integrated the use of a smiley-o-meter in a six-week long summer literacy camp to gather children's opinions about books and iPad activities. They filled out a smiley-o-meter survey before and after they completed each activity. Steps were taken to ensure children had an opportunity to develop an opinion and understand the instructions before they completed their surveys to get the most accurate opinion possible. In general, participants in literacy camp rated the books higher after reading the book (AB) than before. Th s fi ding may suggest that children's opinions of books change from beginning to end. Participants' ratings after completing iPad activities increased drastically, which may indicate it would be benefic al for educational professionals to consider an iPad as a potential educational tool. In particular, it would be benefic al to allow children to make a choice between iPad and paper materials.

There were a few limitations to the present study that should be considered. First, this was a pilot study, and the sample size was small. Also, children may have been answering surveys based on how they believed adults wanted them to answer. Finally, some children had to miss some sessions due to unforeseen circumstances. They didn't complete surveys on days they missed, and those scores were not refl cted in the overall total. Future studies will reformat the smiley-o-meter by placing the most positive feeling on the left, and converting the scale to a digital format. The amount of surveys given will be reduced to only three points throughout summer camp. Finally, the sample size will be increased.

Conclusion

As mentioned previously, smiley-o-meters have been used for research purposes in a variety of settings. The current study integrated the use of smiley-o-meters in an educational setting during a pilot study of a summer literacy camp. Future research will use electronic smiley-o-meters in summer literacy camps to continue to gather opinions from children. Overall, children's opinions about books and phonological awareness activities on an iPad increased following the experience.

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Skin Wearable pH Sensor

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Introduction

The wearable technology market encompasses items that include smart glasses, smart watches, fitness and health trackers, and E-textiles [1]. To enhance the progression of health monitoring, the development of wearable biosensors is at the forefront of this market. Biosensors monitor the biofluids that are released from the body, and that contain biomarkers which can be utilized to monitor an individual's health. Sweat, a type of biofluid, can be collected non-invasively in many different areas of the body. Monitoring the pH level of an individual's sweat can alert physicians about a patient's biological tissue for wound monitoring, as an increase in pH can indicate a bacterial infection. Heart monitoring by utilizing the pH of sweat is also possible, as the concentration of pH in the sweat may be similar to blood. During ischemia pH can fall by 0.5–1 unit [2]. Most accessible sweat occurs at the eccrine sweat glands, found primarily on the forehead, scalp, axillae, palms, and soles [3]. Hydration, and how intense the activity is when monitoring sweat secretions, should both be considered.

Electrochemical detection is a process which measures changes in current or potential between a working electrode (WE) and a reference electrode (RE). A very common RE is a silver/silverchloride (Ag/AgCl) electrode. However issues with stability, durability, and potential drift when measuring pH may occur. To help alleviate this issue, Rahman and Ichiki discuss incubating the RE in a self-assembled monolayer (SAM) of 6-mercepto-1hexanol (MCH) for 24 hours at room temperature [4].

The type of biofluid under examination will determine the material utilized for the WE. Iridium Oxide (IrO_x) exhibits the highest sensitivity over a wide range of pH values, rapid response times, and

high durability [5]. A common method of measuring the relation of pH is through the Nernst equation. The Nernst equation is an important relation to understand changes in concentration potentials as well as reaction equilibrium constants [6]. The Nernst slope was utilized to compare sensor data with previous fi dings. A super-Nernstian slope of (-73.7 ± 1.2 mV/pH), is common for iridium oxide pH sensors [7]; however, a reading of greater than 59 mV/pH can be considered super-Nerstian [8]. Anodically electrodeposited iridium oxide film (AEIROF) is an option that has been explored. However limitations exist, such as good adhesion of the IrO_x to the substrate it is deposited onto [5].

One possibility that has been suggested [7] is to coat the WE with a 5% nafi n solution. Nafi n is a sulfonated tetrafluorethylene copolymer. The advantages of using nafi n are its biocompatibility, its excellent thermal and mechanical stability, and its anti-fouling properties. The disadvantages of the nafi n coating are decreased response times [9]. The objective of this work was to demonstrate that a responsive, stable, flex ble pH sensor could be developed with minimal equipment and chemicals, along with shortening the time to prepare the sensor, compared to previous methods.

Materials and Methods

Reagents

A pretreating solution known as RCA-1 was created to clean the platinum (Pt) wire before electrodeposition. The IrO_x solution to be deposited onto the WE was prepared by methods described in previous research [5]. The solutions to be deposited onto the RE include 1M $FeCl_3$ using Iron (III) chloride and 1mM 6-Mercapto-1-hexanol (MCH). The last chemical to be deposited on both of the electrodes was nafi n perfluorinated resin solution (5 % by wt.). To adjust the concentration of nafi n to lower percentages, 2-Propanol was chosen. Commercially available buffer solutions 4, 7, and 10 were used to test sensor pH.

Materials

Copper sheet, 3μm; Platinum wire, 0.1mm (0.004 in.) dia.; and 0.950 Platinum Round Wire, 20-Ga. were used for deposition of IrO_x. Silver

Wire, 0.25mm (0.01 in.) dia., was used for the RE.

Methods

A sample size of 60 sensors was developed to understand what processes are required for developing a pH sensor that has a quick response time, is stable, and can provide repeatable results. The fi st 20 RE were manufactured with a 3 micron (μm) Cu sheet, but the results did not follow previous experiments, and the remaining 40 RE utilized an Ag wire. Testing of the percentages of nafi n, testing different times for applying $FeCl_3$, and varying the amount of time to apply MCH continued throughout testing.

Table 1. Optimized RE manufacturing process

RE (Ag/Cl based)	RE (AgWire)
RE Treatment	No etch
$FeCl_3$	3 min
MCH Duration	6 hours
Nafion Conc	1.00%

The fi st 35 WE were manufactured using 3μm thick Cu sheet. During this process of manufacturing, testing of etching the Cu strip was conducted. The results did not conform to results from previously published literature, and the remaining 25 WE were manufactured with Pt wire.

Testing continued to determine the best method for IrO_x adhesion. RCA-1 cleaner, varying percentages of nafi n, and pretreating the WE with pH 7 buffer were continued throughout testing to optimize the WE performance.

Table 2. Optimized WE manufacturing process

WE (IrO$_x$ based)	WE (Pt wire)
WE Treatment	RCA-1
Nafion Conc	1.00%
pH 7 presoak	24 hours

Results

Testing of the pH sensor's response, stability, and reproducibility was conducted on a digital multimeter. The sensors were tested following a protocol to eliminate testing bias. During initial testing, the appearance of the Ag did not appear uniform after applying $FeCl_3$, and therefore the time of submersion was changed from 1 minute to 3 minutes, as seen in Figure 1A. During experimental testing, results were not as expected, so testing the effect of submersion of the electrodes in a pH 7 buffer was conducted. Figure 1B shows the effect of pretreating the sensor in a buffer of pH 7 before testing occurs. One of the objectives of this experiment was to shorten the time to manufacture the sensor. Figure 1C shows

that similar results can be obtained by decreasing the time during which the MCH is applied from 24 hours to six hours.
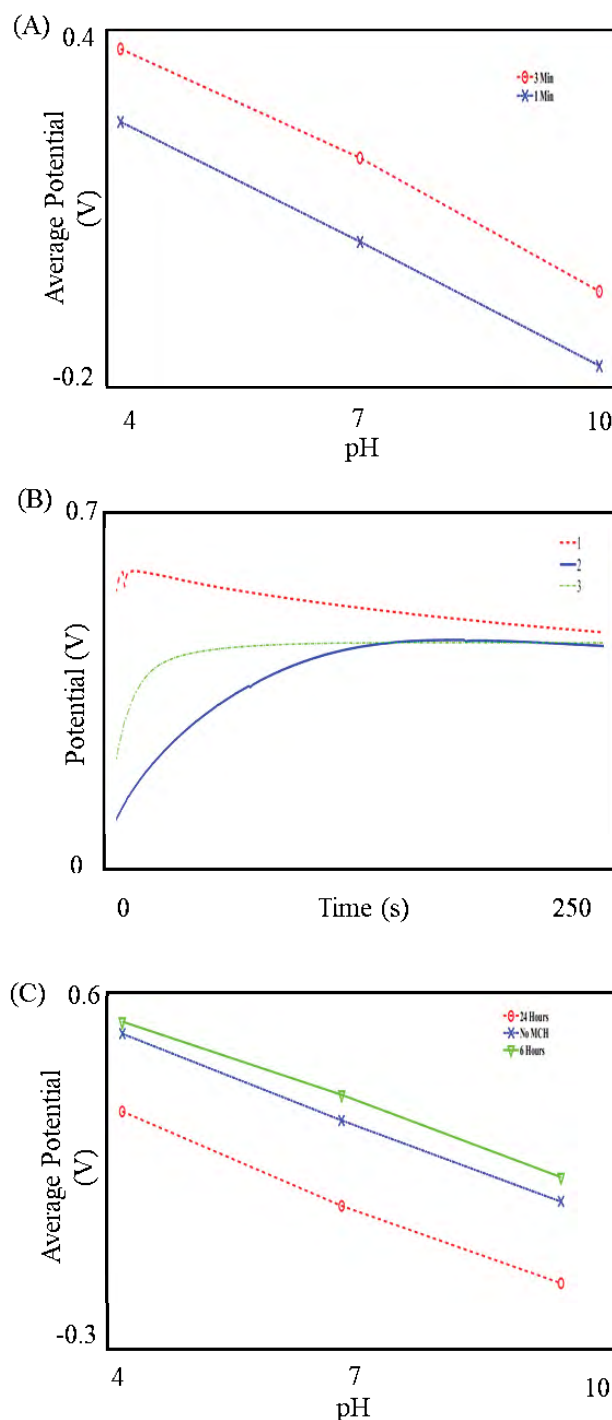

Figure 1. (A) Results of submersion into FeCl3 1 minute vs. 3 minutes. (B) 1. RCA-1 Treated, no pH 7 treatment 2. Neither RCA-1 treated or

treated with pH 7 buffer 3. RCA-1 treated and pH7 buffer. (C) Treatment times with MCH.

Observing the Pt wire after testing under an optical microscope, it could be seen that the adhesion of the IrO_x had imperfections and was not uniform, as demonstrated in Figure 2. After cleaning the Pt wire with RCA-1, the IrO_x layer did not show any imperfections Figure 3.

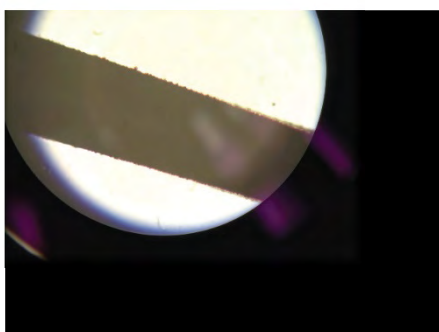**Figure 3. WE after RCA-1 cleaning.**

Figure 3. WE after RCA-1 cleaning.

Figure 4A demonstrates that there are no detrimental effects from cleaning the WE with RCA-1. Figure 4B shows the response time of the sensors with different percentages of nafi n.
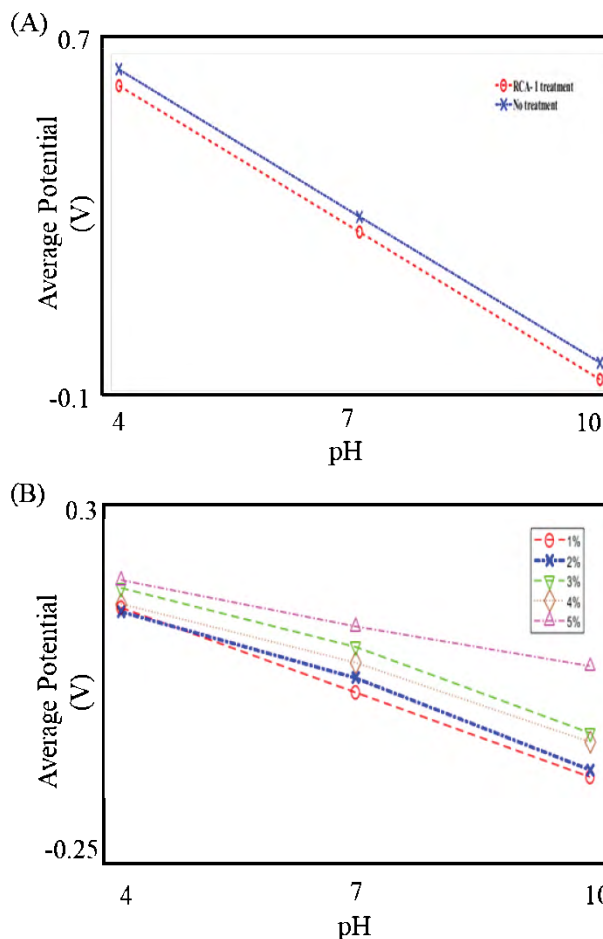

(A)

(B)

Figure 4. (A) Results of RCA-1 treatment. (B) Results of different percentages of nafion on the slope of the line.

Discussion

The sensors developed during this investigation provide insight into what manufacturing steps are necessary for optimization of a skin wearable pH sensor. Future directions for the research group will include determining the best platform to mount the pH sensor for wearable sweat analysis, as well as development of the wireless data retrieval through near fi ld communication (NFC).

Conclusion

Developing a lightweight, wearable sweat sensor to monitor the biomarkers contained within sweat can enable individuals to have a more detailed understanding of their body. Utilizing fewer components and chemicals allows for the sweat sensor to be more biocompatible with the users, and allows for the device to be reusable. Advancing the sensor into a wireless platform will enable more facile retrieval of data from the sensor. The information gained from the device described here can have very benefic al implications for healthcare professions, as the patient's data can be shared via the internet, not requiring an office isit for a consultation.

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Assessing the Functionality of the Support Groups in Kansas Website through an Analysis of its Improvements

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Introduction

Support groups provide a form of care to at-risk communities that medicine cannot. Groups tend to unite ostracized individuals, belonging to these communities, who previously felt isolated. Whether the support is acquired online or in-person, research shows the benefits of peer support among similar individuals. Self-Efficacy Theory and Social Support Theory are two psychological theories that provide evidence for the benefits of support groups (Gonzalez, Goeppinger & Lorig, 1990). Self-Efficacy refers to a person's belief that they will be successful at a task because of their perceived abilities. Th s is a crucial concept to understand when consumers are determining if they should join an online or in-person support group. Bender (2013) explicitly states that self-efficacy is the reason why participants prefer in-person support groups, compared to online support groups. Though the virtual and in-person support groups have a similar structure, there are personal benefits to each format. While online support group formats grant access 24/7, and create a space for participants experiencing rare illnesses, they do not make accommodations for support that is tailored and diverse (Houlihan & Tariman, 2017). With online support groups, participants disclose as much information as they would like. Th s causes a lack of group connection, since consumers are not able to physically see each other. Regardless of the structure of the support group, the support gained therein allows consumers to feel connected and encouraged.

The empirical research conducted for this study highlights the usefulness of, and proposes needed

improvements to, the Community Engagement Institute (CEI) website, entitled "Support Groups in Kansas." CEI is an affiliate organization of Wichita State University (WSU) that provides services to the community, and to organizations, through its six centers and four initiatives. Usefulness and improvements were measured using the following three questions:

1. What are the demographics of Support Groups in Kansas users?
2. Are the website's content and functionality meeting the needs of its consumers?
3. What areas could Support Groups in Kansas enhance to maximize the website's full potential?

To further evaluate, a 26-question survey was created and distributed at community events, through the Support Groups in Kansas Facebook page and website, and to CEI employees, as well as being posted in facilities around WSU campus. The 26-question survey allowed for a further analysis and exploration of the three fundamental questions previously mentioned. Data was analyzed using frequencies and descriptive statistics. 20 participants listed the following as needed improvements to the website:

1. Improved search functionality (challenging to navigate)
2. Consistency when updating support groups within the database
3. Having a campaign that would increase site traffi

Data, Methods, and Procedure

The main experimental procedure for this study consisted of a survey, created and distributed via Qualtrics Survey Software. The survey included three preliminary screener questions, six demographic questions, nine questions about website functionality, and eight follow-up questions concerning the website. After meeting the participant survey criteria, participants were asked to select all website features (calendar, news, resource, and search) that they have used before. Once selected, the survey was manipulated so that the required questions only pertained to the participant's personal experience. After completing these questions, participants were prompted to answer the eight follow-up questions.

Recruitment of participants occurred in six ways. On the Support Groups in Kansas webpage, there was an active link and an advertisement encouraging visitors to take the survey. Other means of advertising included using the Kansas Support Group Services Facebook page, sending emails to staff members and attending a staff meeting at the Community Engagement Institute, speaking at community events, and posting flyers on the Wichita State University campus. Distribution of flyers occurred at conferences that Community Engagement Institute staff members attended. Once the survey had ended, the data were analyzed using SPSS and Excel. Google analytics was used as a comparison tool. Because of the utilization of Google analytics, the researcher was able to compare the user

history of the website to the results of the abbreviated survey.

Results, Limitations, and Discussion

The results do not show much variation in responses. Participants tend to have a positive outlook on the website, with only a few critiques. The services provided through the website appear to be mainly used by caretakers or services providers. Th s inference is made from the responses that were given in the follow-up section. Survey participants were aware of the website because of school, work, or because their goal was to actively gather information about topics covered by the website. Because of the small participant pool, the data provide limited explanation and exploration of the website. Based on the critiques given below, Support Groups in Kansas should strongly consider modifying their approach to how they gather online traffic and how they present and maintain their website. Though most of the feedback was positive, the information could be misconstrued if most of the survey participants were those that worked at The Community Engagement Institute, which is possible due to recruitment methods.

The Community Engagement Institute is an affiliate of Wichita State University, which is one of the largest colleges in south-central Kansas; this should be used to the websites advantage. Promoting the website to students and employees on campus should defin tely be explored, especially since Wichita State is a commuter college, and has strong ties to the city of Wichita. WSU is a hub of the city, and brings in community members from all walks of life.

If the Community Engagement Institute would like to take this research further, this study suggests the formation of a solid plan of action, along with a team that is solely dedicated to the improvement and development of the website. To adequately ensure that Support Groups in Kansas is meeting the needs of the majority of its consumers, it is pertinent to conduct a larger research project that analyzes the complete website, or specific eatures within the website.

The Community Engagement Institute is a small but important facility that takes on a wide range of tasks, but the website has not been developed for a signifi ant period of time as of the writing of this piece. For the website to reach its full potential, not only should there be dedicated staff, but also proper funding adequate to the maintenance and development of the website. However, it would be essential to conduct a brief survey that would answer the questions of the website's importance to the organization, and this study provides that preliminary step.

According to Google Analytics, the website Support Groups in Kansas receives substantial new foot traffi daily. However, most users never leave the homepage. Th s fact could have resulted in a potential hindrance in the survey data. Though Google Analytics is a useful tool to compare data sets, it counts all clicks and stores them as data; therefore, the researchers who frequently visited the website could potentially skew the comparison data.

Another limitation involved the fact that before participants were able to start the survey, they were required to answer if they have ever used the website. By not putting a disclaimer and properly defini g what "use of the website" meant,

it is possible that some data were not gathered when they could have been. By not stating that viewing the homepage and subsequent features is considered using the website, and not just using a service from the website, potential participants could have been turned away based on a misunderstanding of the criteria for participation. The survey also did not include a demographic question about the consumer's gender. That data would have been useful to incorporate during analysis, in order to see what support groups, content, and resources could be included to create a more inclusive website.

Conclusion

Support groups have value that reaps lasting benefits for consumers and recipients of mental healthcare. Having the Community Engagement Institute develop a website, with the sole intent of providing content, resources and group information to the citizens of Kansas that are seeking support, is an important part of Kansas becoming a state defi ed by its innovation. However, as with any good idea, there is always room to progress, which is what the Support Groups in Kansas website needs. The website is now more important than ever, and with the increase of mental health and addiction awareness, maintaining a consistently updated, quality website is crucial. Finding avenues to collaborate with local organizations and institutions, along with conducting larger-scale research, could bring the needed notoriety and improve the website's functionality. The initial research questions—

1. What are the demographics of Support Groups in Kansas users?
2. Are the website's content and functionality meeting the needs of its consumers?
3. What areas could Support Groups in Kansas enhance to maximize the website's full potential?

—have been answered by the survey analysis presented here. For the purposes of the website, it can be concluded that the content and functionality do meet the needs of most consumers, but that to maximize the website's full potential, the Community Engagement Institute will need to conduct further research, and explore ways to improve the search feature of the website specifi ally.

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Church Sisters vs Sorority Sisters: Black Women in Cabin in the Sky and School Daze

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Introduction

The purpose of this study is to critically compare the role of Black women in classic African American films; specifi ally, I look at Vincente Minnelli's *Cabin in the Sky* (1943) and Spike Lee's *School Daze* (1988). The study observes each film's effect on the perception of Black women, in media and in society, by looking at the type of character roles offered in the films, the stereotypes that these roles either embody or refute, and the overall changes in the roles (and the representation of those roles) over time. Th s study also acknowledges that the long-term effects of the role of African American women in films are being currently studied. Therefore, my main purpose is to get a modern perspective from American college students, viewing these films generations after their initial release dates.

Th s study observes a focus group of three participants—two European-American females and one European-American male—over a period of two weeks. Participants were asked to view both *Cabin in the Sky* and *School Daze*, then answer online surveys about each film. After the survey, the participants were guided through a debriefi g about their personal views on the films. Their responses were recorded, transcribed and coded to search for similar themes. In general, participants preferred the universality of *Cabin in the Sky* to the niche appeal of *School Daze*.

Representations of Black Women in Film

In 1851 at the Women's Rights Convention in Akron, Ohio, Sojourner Truth noted that "Nobody ever helps me into carriages, or over mud-puddles, or gives me any best place! And ain't I a woman?"[1] She was drawing attention to the lack of inclusiveness within the mainstream discussion of women's rights. Her words also highlight the fact that societal views on appropriate behavior for women are often targeted at white women, and disregard black women. Th oughout history, American media has offered four common representations of black women: the "Mammy," a large black woman with pitch-black skin that loves her master's kids more than her own; the "Aunt Jemimah," who evolved from the mammy image, but focuses solely on cooking; the "Sapphire" image, which evolved later and represents a bossy, black woman who is verbally abusive towards her emasculated husband; and fi ally the "Jezebel" or "bad black girl" image, a slender, light skinned and racially mixed woman who is also a hyper-sexualized temptress of white men.[2] Each representation is dehumanizing in its own ways, and all have continued into modern times through ongoing, racialized media representations.

Popular Black films such as *Cabin in the Sky* and *School Daze* portray black women through an objectifi d viewpoint that stems from society's misperception of them. For example, *Cabin in the Sky* pits the mammy-like Petunia Jackson against the jezebel Georgia Brown. Likewise, *School Daze* pits the darker-skinned, non-sorority-pledge girls with "bad" hair against the lighter-skinned sorority girls with "good" hair, or weaves. The darker-skinned girls also invoke the sapphire image by being portrayed as unyielding towards the black men, while the lighter-skinned girls are viewed as more sexually desirable, available, and docile.

Cabin in the Sky (1943)

Cabin in the Sky is notable as a film that contains representations of various kinds of Black women, in addition to being mass produced by white executives for a mainstream audience. Often, representations of Black women in film fall into two major categories: a dark-skinned mammy type, and a light-skinned jezebel or temptress type. The darker-skinned woman is often viewed as the "good girl" or the humble type, while the lighter-skinned woman is more arrogant and representative of a "bad girl." Dr. Mia Mask, a professor of film who teaches African American Cinema at Vassar College, notes in her book *Divas on Screen* that:

Sex, in mainstream films… was referred to coyly but rarely dealt with honestly. The projection of sexual innocence by performers Sandra Dee etc.—who laid bare the Oedipal fantasy of "daddy's little girl"—typifi d the contradictory ideals inherent in the regimes of sexuality. These contradictions—including the virgin-whore dichotomy—existed in African America cinema, too. In the 1940s, films like Cabin in the Sky (1943) propagated the dichotomy of "good girl" (Ethel Water's character Petunia Jackson) versus

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[1] Retrieved from https://www.nps.gov/articles/sojourner-truth.htm

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"bad girl" (Lena Horne's Georgia Brown.)[3]

Highlighting differences in sexual expression and how they correlate to women's skin color has been a profitable strategy for films throughout history. The Vincente Minelli film *Cabin in the Sky* catered more to white audiences and their views on Black culture and entertainment. Their idea of the "good Negro woman" indicated a darker-skinned, mammy-like, church-going housewife that was essentially a maid to her husband. Their idea of the "bad Negro woman" was a lighter-skinned, and implicitly mixed-race, Black woman that was slim and unmarried.

School Daze (1988)

Spike Lee's *School Daze* is based on his own college experience, and focuses on two groups of Black middle-class college students: members of Gamma Phi Gamma Fraternity Incorporated, and the non-Greek black students ("Greek" refers to members of the fraternity/sorority community). The class-based and social differences are shown in how the Gamma Rays, the women's auxiliary of Gamma Phi Gamma, dress, as opposed to how the darker-skinned non-pledges dress.

Candice Jenkins notes that when African American narratives take up the matter of Black class privilege, they frequently make recourse to the trope of a "black" body infiltrated by whiteness, with the lighter-skinned characters often representing a higher social class.[4] Perhaps not surprisingly, the names of the students in this film are seemingly white and upper-class: Vaughn, Rachel, Julien, and Jane. Meanwhile, the names of the lower-class characters include

Mustafa and Buckwheat, names that conjure up racial stereotypes and highlight the characters' class statuses. The lighter-skinned women in *School Daze* are clearly the more sexually desirable and available girls on campus. Interestingly, this viewpoint of black women is common in films about black people from the white gaze, like *Cabin in the Sky*. However, when films by Black people for Black people, like *School Daze*, rely on this same dominant view, it's more likely to draw criticism from the larger Black community.

Survey and Focus Group Results

The methodology of this study is straightforward, and was designed as a qualitative investigation in two parts: participants would fi st view a film, and then they would immediately answer a computerized survey offered through Qualtrics. The survey included both multiple-choice and short answer questions. After completing the survey, participants were led through a short "question and answer" debriefi g session with the research assistant, and their responses were recorded via a cell phone app. Participants were randomly selected based on sign-up from the SONA System, and eventually three student participants—two females and one male, all of European descent—were observed. The researcher recorded and later transcribed the verbal responses of the participants.

The participant responses to the online survey yielded some interesting and unexpected fi dings. *Cabin in the Sky* rated more favorably among the participants when compared to *School*

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[3]Mask, Mia (2009). *Divas on screen*, page 17

[4]Jenkins, Candice M. (2018). New bourgeoisie, old bodies: Performing post-Civil Rights Black privilege in *Tar Baby* and *School Daze*. *Criticism, 58*(4), 621-645.

Daze. This could result from the fact that *Cabin in the Sky* was made to appeal to a mass audience, rather than specifially Black moviegoers. Indeed, some participants found themselves at a loss when trying to comprehend *School Daze*, due to the lack of cross-cultural appeal. Common observations included disliking the portrayals of Black women from both films. One participant felt that the female characters were limited to only "good" or "bad" girls, a fi ding that aligns clearly with previous research on representational dichotomies in Black films.

Participant responses also touched on the historical context of the two films, incorporating the time period of their release in some of their responses. Most students noted that the ideologies of race represented in the films are products of their respective times, but only one student acknowledged that these issues are still present in media and society today. This seems to suggest a racial or cultural difference in interpretation of media representations, and how they affect Black women on and off screen. Further study and a wider sample would be needed to support this inference, but it is something to consider, because the three participants were all white college students between the ages of 18 and 32. If there is a disconnect between recognizing that past issues still exist in current times, that might impact the rate of change in what is shown in media.

Conclusion

Media is refl ctive of our world, and vice versa. We see stories about empowered and versatile white women in various media every day, and these new characters refl ct the societal privileges most white women have or have earned overtime. Yet Black women in film rarely escape the divisive colorism or jezebel/mammy dichotomies of the past. Therefore, Black female characters are rarely fully realized. These disparities often dictate casting decisions in supposedly progressive films, favoring lighter-skinned Black actresses in leading roles or as love interests over darker-skinned Black actresses.

To quote doctor Kimberle Crenshaw, "When feminist theory and politics that claim to refl ct women's experiences and women's aspirations do not include or speak to Black women, Black women must ask, "Ain't we women?"[5] We must also ask this question about the types of films and media that we consume. However, as suggested by the initial fi dings of this study, there is hope that change will come. Despite the racial differences, participants were able to identify the inaccuracies and injustices in the portrayals of Black women in both films, and explain why the portrayals were problematic in some way. Participants also felt that it was a mutual responsibility of both the film industry to allow more diverse representations in film, and of the public to demand quality and diverse representations of many characters and identities. These fi dings suggest that we may express some cautious hope when it comes to transformations in racialized media representations within American culture.

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Caregivers' Perceptions of WSU's iSLP

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Introduction

The practice of interprofessional education (IPE) is an effective method used to teach pre-professional students the strategies for—and the value of—collaborating with other disciplines. Previous literature shows the positive effects of IPE on caregivers, as it focuses specifi ally on the child's needs. Interprofessional collaboration within IPE among healthcare professionals and students is essential to ensuring patient safety and quality outcomes for patients and their families. Interprofessional education is expanding in higher education allied-health programs because of its benefits. When exposed to this type education, students learn who they are as professionals, gain appreciation for other professional viewpoints, learn to communicate effectively, and gain valuable experience that can be carried over into the workplace (Carlson et al., 2002). It is essential that healthcare education programs offer authentic, fi ld-based IPE experiences for their students (Howell, et al., 2012; Prelock, 2013), because IPE benefits students, professionals, patients, and family members alike.

It is crucial that service providers acknowledge the important role that parents play in the education and/or healthcare team. Interprofessional teams that take advantage of information, experience, technology, and a culture of teamwork, ultimately provide increased value for patients and families (Furgeson et al., 2015). In these situations, goals can be achieved, and the families respond favorably to the positive changes they see in their child's development—and, thereby, the family system (Cooper-Duffy & Eaker, 2016).

A review of the pertinent literature indicates that while families have reported benefits from interprofessional care for their child, there continues to be limited opportunities available (Howell, et al., 2012; McNeilly, 2013). The purpose of this study was to obtain parents/caregivers perceptions of an interprofessional structured learning program (iSLP), which is offered through the Department of Communication Sciences and Disorders (CSD) at Wichita State University (WSU). Th s study was approved by the WSU Internal Review Board (Study #4360). Four parents of children that participated in iSLP were invited and agreed to participate in this pilot study. All were mothers of children who enrolled in and completed the intervention program. All of the mothers had also actively engaged in the iSLP process, along with their child, for two academic semesters.

Methods

Data was collected via semi-structured, face-to-face interviews conducted by a trained graduate student researcher and an undergraduate McNair Scholar. The 45–60 minute interviews took place at a location chosen by the parent participant (i.e., either the family's home, the WSU Speech-Language-Hearing Clinic, or a public place of the parent's choosing). Prior to the interview, the parents read and signed an informed consent form.

The purpose of the interviews was to gain information about the parents' thoughts and feelings regarding their experience participating in the iSLP. The researchers were interested in gathering fi st-hand accounts of how parents experienced interacting with professionals and students from multiple disciplines during the intervention process. Researchers were also interested in understanding their overall satisfaction with the process, and asking for suggestions to improve the process in order to better serve children and families in the future. To obtain this information, the interview questions were structured as follows (Fig. 1):

Figure 1: Interview questions

1. Tell me about your experience with iSLP.
   a. What did you feel you came away with from the process?
   b. what did your child come away with from this process

2. How did the process affect you?
   a. How do you feel the process affected your child.
   b. How did the process affect your family?

3. Did the process impact how you think about your child?

4. How did the process impact the future you see for your child?

5. Would you have liked to add or change anything about the process?

The interviews were recorded and transcribed by a trained graduate student and the McNair scholar. Calculations for inter-rater reliability were conducted, and both researchers discussed any miscalculations until an agreement of 90% or above was achieved. Transcriptions were analyzed and coded into categories by selecting recurring words or phrases related to parents' perceptions

of iSLP. A total of 13 themes were established: Clients in iSLP (mostly dealing with number and inter-client interactions); Structure (of the program); Outcomes/skills gained; Favored Interprofessional nature; Observation room; Resources in Wichita (availability); Outcomes hoped for; Family tools; Process helped family; Positive impact on child's future; Impacted how caregiver thinks of child and their future; Effects of iSLP in Preschool/Early childhood; and (things to) Add or change about the process. To begin the interview process, each participant was asked to describe her experiences with iSLP. To expand upon these responses, the mothers were asked to discuss what they felt they and their child had gained from the intervention process.

Results

The mothers overwhelmingly favored the interprofessional nature of the program. By observing the professionals working together, the mothers began to realize how each developmental factor affected the other (e.g., how motor development affects communication and vice-versa). All mothers appreciated the structure and consistency of iSLP. They acknowledged the importance of the individual schedules that the children used each session. These schedules provided the children with information they needed to know, and helped them understand what was going to occur each day, and in what order. They also liked the small number of clients that were being served within iSLP.

Tools and strategies were acquired by mothers through on-going interactions with program coordinators. They enjoyed the ability to stay in the observation room to watch their child, and the opportunity to visit with the faculty who coordinated the program. These parents reported that they appreciated professionals guiding them through what they were watching their children do in the classroom, answering questions about what was happening, and providing them with ideas about how they could implement those strategies in their home. Because of the opportunity to have a strong relationship with the professionals, they received the appropriate tools to use at home with their child.

iSLP had a positive impact on the entire family system: participants acknowledged that the interactions of all family members increased as their child's communication skills expanded. Children were perceived to be ready for PK 3–5 year programs following completion of iSLP. Parents indicated that iSLP helped the children know how to manage a classroom routine. They also stated that iSLP provided the children with the skills they needed to be successful. Positive outcomes and skills gained by each child were celebrated by the participants and researchers alike. All participants spoke about the confide ce they felt their child had gained. The mothers all indicated that their child had gained communications skills (i.e., vocabulary, the ability to say what they wanted/needed). They also mentioned an increase in social skills and the ability to interact with others.

Mothers felt hopeful regarding their child's future and overall well-being. Each mother said that they were now able to view their child's future with a new perspective; that is, they have no concerns and are confide t their child will grow up like a typical developing child. They are now able to look forward and "dream" about what the prospects are for them, rather than worry about the need for ongoing treatment.

Discussion and Conclusion

The mothers who participated in this pilot study shared positive feedback about the experiences they had, along with their child, in iSLP. Parents perceived a bright outlook for their child's future. They expressed appreciation for the positive outcomes that resulted from their time in iSLP. They also felt confide t that their children were better ready to engage in a preschool program. Many of the parents discussed how the skills that the children had developed improved their ability to relate to their child and, in turn, the child's ability to relate to other members of their family. Th s perspective has been reported in previous literature by parents who have had the opportunity to work collaboratively with their child's intervention team (cf. Sylverter, et al., 2016). Furthermore, this provides support for the importance of authentic, fi ld-based interprofessional learning experiences for students who are enrolled in allied-health and education programs. As documented in the literature, students who participate in IPE experiences are more likely to seek out and engage in IPP in the workplace (Kester, 2018).

Mothers shared that the iSLP program had a positive effect on their family system. They supported this by saying they had learned to use tools and strategies that they could implement in the home. Using these tools increased opportunities for the child to communicate with the whole family (e.g., with siblings, or during family conversations). Furthermore, it helped reduce worry, and increase confide ce that their child would be successful and develop more typically. As reported by Furgeson, et al. (2015), teamwork and shared values help to create a positive, safe environment. Th s type of intervention culture serves to create a safe and productive environment for children and families.

Interprofessional education and interprofessional practice are supported in the allied-health and education literature (ASAHP, 2018; McNeilly, 2013, Prelock, 2013). This pilot project sought to gather parents' perspectives on their experiences with an authentic, fi ld-based interprofessional learning experience, designed to serve children 2–4 years of age with complex communication needs, including those with ASD, and their families. Parents often express appreciation and pleasure when team members collaborate and include them as valued members of the child's care team (Furgeson, et al., 2015; Prelock, 2013). Th s pilot project supported these data, as parents reported positive outcomes for their child, themselves, and their family. However, given the limited number of participants in this study, additional data should be collected from families who complete iSLP in the future, to identify additional themes and/or reach saturation.

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Nationalism in American Legislation

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Introduction

America was founded as a country open to any immigrant who wished to become a citizen, as illustrated by the motto proclaimed on the American Seal: "Out of many, one." However, nationalistic rhetoric in recent years has eroded the spirit of this motto by promoting stereotypes and legislation that favors Whites, and harms nonwhite ethnic groups. Nationalism is problematic, because legislation written to assist at-risk communities often results in unintended negative outcomes, particularly in poor and minority communities. This paper will examine the relationship between White nationalistic rhetoric in legislation, and its effects on minority populations.

Background

Nationalism is a political ideology that places the interests of the home country above the rest of the world, and advocates forgoing individual self-interest (Walter, 2003). This line of thinking enjoyed massive popularity during the 20th century, and has played a role in the propagation of massive wars and tensions between nations. In America, nationalism presents itself as sentiments, ideas, and nostalgia that Americans use as a base to define their relationship with the United States. This is seen in present day examples, such as President Trump's campaign slogan "Make America Great Again," and his policies designed to put "America First," even to the detriment of other countries. Because the majority of the American population is White, nationalism often manifests itself in the United

States as White nationalism.

White nationalism is the belief that, as a race, Whites should seek to develop and maintain a White ethnic identity within the state or nation. White nationalism uses the mechanisms of political power to ensure outcomes that are favorable to Whites, and promote the White ethnic identity. According to Perry and Whitehead (2015), White nationalism uses the political system or process covertly to achieve White racial purity and exclusivity. Th s type of nationalism supports political policies that oppose welfare aid to poor and minority communities, and any sort of affirmative action policies in public life. Additionally, White nationalism may result in policies that actively promote Whites over other groups. According to Walters, if a dominant group controls a government or state, they often marginalize groups outside of the majority, and enact policies and legislation that benefit the majority at the expense of marginalized groups. In the past, these policies often stemmed from White supremacist ideology, which is considered more radical, and consists of the belief that the White race is superior to all other races, and should be the dominant race. President Obama's political accent may have triggered backlash in the form of increased feelings of White Nationalism (Walker, 2011).

Th s project aims to explore the rise of White Nationalistic rhetoric in the United States by examining past Senate debates regarding legislation during the Contract with America and Tea Party Movements. Contract with America was a Republican grass roots movement lead by Newt Gingrich. Th s idea came about in 1994 at the Republican conference in Salisbury Maryland

Gingrich et al., 1994). Contract with America is a reaction by Gingrich, a congressional representative at the time, to 40 years of Democratic control of the House and what he felt was the weak response to it by Republicans. The Contract with America proposed five guiding principles: individual responsibility, economic opportunity, limited government, personal responsibility, and security at home and abroad. Echoes of these principles can still be found in the Tea Party Movement (TPM), which was also a grassroots movement (Tope, 2015). Unlike Contract with America, the Tea Party Movement was a bottom-up (rather than top-down) populist movement. Beginning in 2009, TPM was propagated by a network of right-leaning activists with no clear leader. The goal of the current TPM is to reduce the size of the federal government and its impact on the individual citizen's daily life. Th s concept is closely related to the founding principles of Contract with America, which also aim to reduce the federal government and return power to the state. When put into practice, these ideals tend to produce legislation that appears benign, but refl cts and strengthens White nationalism through rhetoric and policy implementation.

Data and Results

The Welfare Act of 1996 was selected for analysis as key legislation representative of the Contract with America Movement. Th s Act refl cts one of the ten major tenants outlined in Contract with America: reduction and change of the welfare state. Open Senate debate for the Welfare Act was four days; House debate was 16 days. The Affordable Care Act was chosen because of the visceral reaction it produced

within members of the Tea Party. The resistance towards the Affordable Care Act within the Tea Party refl cts that movement's fear of government overreach. Open Senate debate for the ACA was 24 days; House debate was 47 days. Data analysis involved isolating terms associated with White nationalism, running frequency analyses using NVivo qualitative data analysis software, and producing comparative tables (see tables 1 and 2) representative of the usage in the terms during both periods of debate previously described.

Table 1

Frequency of Terms Related to White Nationalism in Senate Debate

Term	Welfare Act	ACA
cheat	0	0
defic t	6	62
dependency	22	0
government spending	118	278
immigrant	27	0
law and order	191	133
minority	4	70
states' rights	505	267
welfare state	1237	217
Length of open debate	4 days	24 days

Table 2

Frequency of Terms Related to White Nationalism in House Debate

Term	Welfare Act	ACA
cheat	0	2
defic t	19	147
dependency	77	22
government spending	391	1238
immigrant	29	2
law and order	847	326
minority	42	42
states' rights	1306	479
welfare state	6700	466
Length of open debate	16 days	47 days

Discussion and Conclusion

In general, the hypothesis that the terms identifi d as White nationalistic would be found more often in 2009 than in 1996 was not supported. Th s may be due to limitations in the methodology. The use of exact word match may have been a limiting factor. Also, the word choice may have been insuffici t. The identifi ation of phrases may have produced different results. Using known White Nationalistic phrases and their variations could have produced a more robust analysis. For example, the word cheat was not found at all in Senate debate and only twice in House debate regarding the ACA. When referring to government social programs, the concern is often about giving money to those who have not earned it. As discussed in the literature, this can be indicative of White Nationalistic rhetoric because of the imagery around who is hardworking. Other phrases that convey the same message could be defraud and take advantage of which were phrases present in the debate. The terms dependency, minority, and immigrant were also used infrequently, while phrasing related to those concepts may have been more prevalent.

Previous research indicates that there is something happening in the American political discourse

that is leading towards an increase in White nationalist sentiment. If not addressed, this may have detrimental effects on American democracy and the constituents it serves. A better way to measure the presence of White nationalism in legislation would be to measure the outcomes of legislation, and control for variants in implementation. For example, when states have latitude to implement a piece of legislation, such as the case with the Welfare Act, the impact on minority populations can be measured. It is important that we take this into consideration so that, as a public, we have a better understanding of how well-intended legislation may be undermined through differential implementation.

Future research regarding this topic should examine themes related to White Nationalism, instead of attempting to achieve an exact word match. Also, understanding the use of White nationalistic rhetoric at the individual level may provide a deeper understanding of White Nationalism in American legislation. Controlling for the political lean and party affiliation of each congressman should therefore provide a clearer picture of White Nationalistic rhetoric in legislation. Examining a congressman's political campaign and TV appearances may be even more illustrative than their legislative debate.

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Impact of Foreign Aid on Governance, Quality of Life, and the Economy

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Introduction

Since the end of World War II, economic aid has frequently been used as a foreign relations tool. It was originally utilized to combat the spread of communism and help grow markets for U.S. industries (Ruggie, 1982). Th oughout the decades, the areas of focus for foreign aid changed, shifting from a focus on industrialization and urbanization, to the current use of Structural Adjustment Lending. After the fall of communism, the aim of foreign aid became more focused on developing the economies of countries, rather than pushing political concerns. However, the literature regarding foreign aid is filled with debate over its effectiveness.

Many studies show that foreign aid has been effective, but a similar amount of studies show otherwise. Experts that believe foreign aid has been effective argue that foreign aid has saved millions of lives, through economic development and the eradication of diseases (Sachs, 2006). In contrast, many studies have found foreign aid ineffective in various ways, from causing corruption in the recipient country, to making the country reliant on external economic stimulus, thereby affecting their potential for sustainable growth (Easterly, 2001). Another side of the debate posits that there has not been proper data collection and follow-up to analyze the effects of foreign aid accurately (Banerjee & Dufl , 2011). Th s study aims to replicate results from a previous study while also looking at the relationship between foreign aid, government, corruption, and the well-being of each country's population.

Methods

Variables

For this study, the time period spanning 1990 to 2015 was analyzed. The study expands upon variables included in a previous, related study, and the result is the following list of variables. The independent variables were:

- Gross Capital Formation as a percent of GDP (GCF)
- Net Offi al Development Assistance (NOO)
- Net Offi al Development Assistance per Capita (NPC)
- Population Growth (PG)
- Urban Population Growth (UPG)
- GDP per capita (GPC)
- GDP per capita in 1990 (GPC1990)
- Political Stability and Absence of Violence (PSA)
- Regulatory Quality (RQ)
- Rule of Law (RL)
- Median Age (MA)
- Population 15-64 (FS)
- Population 65 and over (SO)
- Total Population (TP)
- Expected Years of Schooling (ES)
- Mean Years of Schooling (MS)

The dependent variables were:

- GDP per capita growth (GCP)
- Health Development Index (HDI)
- Control of Corruption (CC)
- Government Effectiveness (GE)
- Education Index (EI)

Data sources

Data were extracted from the World Bank Open Database and the United Nations Development Programme. Data sets were downloaded onto, and formatted with, Microsoft Excel. Additionally, Stata software was used to further format and run statistical analysis, such as ordinary least squares regressions.

Results

An ordinary least squares (OLS) regression and a fi ed effects regression were run for all of the dependent variables. The fi st OLS dealt with the dependent variable GDP per capita growth. The independent variable NOO was positive and signifi ant at the 5% level while controlling for key variables. Th s implies that the more NOO there is the greater the GDP per capita growth is. The correlation was .13, indicating a weak relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Despite observing the results of many fi ed effects regressions on GCP, there does not seem to be any clear relationship between the dependent and independent variables. The only signifi ant variable was gross capital formation (due to collinearity, the variable for GDP per capita in 1990 was excluded).

Next, an OLS was run on the Control of Corruption variable. Our NOO variable was negative at the 5% level, while controlling for key developmental and governmental variables. Th s implies that as NOO increases, GDP per capita growth increases. The correlation was .76, indicating a moderately strong correlation.

The urban population growth, political stability, and education variables were removed from the fi ed effects regression due to insignifi ance. Our NOO variable was positive and signifi ant at the 5% level, while controlling for GDP per capita and relevant government variables. Th s implies that the more NOO there, is the higher the GDP per capita growth over time.

The foreign aid variable for our Government Effectiveness dependent variable was positive and signifi ant at the 5% level, while controlling

for developmental and governmental variables. Th s implies that as NOO increases, Government Effectiveness improves. Our OLS regression had a moderately strong correlation at .79. For the fi ed effects regression for Government Effectiveness, NOO had a negative coeffici t and is signifi ant at the 5% level, while controlling for governmental and educational variables. Th s implies that the more NOO there is, the less effective the government becomes over time.

The foreign aid variable for the HDI dependent variable was positive and signifi ant at the 5% level, while controlling for key variables. Th s implies that the more NOO there is, the greater the HDI index is. The OLS regression was moderately strong, with a .75 correlation. For the fi ed effects regression of HDI, NOO has a positive coeffici t and is signifi ant at the 5% level, while controlling for key variables. Th s implies that the more NOO there is, the more the HDI index improves over time.

The foreign aid variable for the Education Index was positive and statistically signifi ant at the 5% level, while controlling for key variables. Th s implies that the more NOO there is, the higher the Education Index is. The correlation was .183, indicating a weak correlation. For the fi ed effects regression for the Education Index, the foreign aid variable was positive and statistically signifi ant at the 5% level, while controlling for key variables. Th s implies that the more NOO there is, the more the Education Index improves over time.

Discussion

The results of this statistical analysis reinforce the current literature dealing with foreign aid,

insofar as the results are not totally indicative of a one-way correlation between foreign aid and quality of life. The OLS regression for GDP per capita showed that population growth had a negative effect, capital formation a positive effect, education a positive effect, initial GDP a negative effect, and foreign aid a positive effect. Th s mirrors very closely the results of other studies. Additionally, the fi ed effects regression of the same variable seems to be indeterminate. There were no clear relationships between GDP per capita growth and other key variables. The regression on the Control of Corruption variable shows that the foreign aid and regulatory quality variables are negative. However, these variables are positive for the fi ed effects regression. Th s supports the theory that when more foreign aid is given to impoverished countries, corruption tends to increase as well, but that foreign aid accomplishes its purpose and lowers corruption over time. The OLS regression on Government Effectiveness shows that more foreign aid is given to effective governments. Interestingly, it also shows that as political stability improves, and violence decreases, governments become more effective.

These results may be due to the widespread violence in developing countries. It may take a strong military ruler to provide stability to their country, but doing so reroutes resources that the government would use to help the populace in other aspects. The foreign aid variable is negative for the fi ed effects regression: this corresponds to the literature arguing that governments become dependent on foreign aid, and thus become less effective. The political stability variable is positive, implying that stability in a country

promotes a more effective government. The OLS regression for the HDI had a positive coefficit for the foreign aid variable. Foreign aid continued to be positive for the fi ed effects regression, but government effectiveness and political stability were negative. Th s implies that the more effective and stable a government becomes, the worse the quality of life for the population becomes. Th s may be due a tighter grip of the government on the populace, which the government adopts in order to provide stability and effective policies.

The OLS regression on the Education Index shows that more foreign aid is given to countries with a higher education index, and countries with a higher gross capital formation and GDP per capita have a lower index. However, for the fi ed effects regression, foreign aid is still positive, but so are gross capital formation and GDP per capita. Th s implies that the more capital and the larger the economy, the better the education becomes over time.

Conclusion

Th s study provides valuable insight into the effects of foreign aid. It reinforces the current literature that posits that the impact of foreign aid on economic growth is indeterminate, but provides a more nuanced understanding of other variables that foreign aid effects. It shows that foreign aid may be given to relatively corrupt governments, but also that it helps eliminate corruption over time. Additionally, more foreign aid is given to effective governments, but over time these governments become too dependent on it. It shows that foreign aid is given to countries with a better HDI and helps improve it over time. Lastly, foreign aid has a positive impact on a country's education.

Based on the fi dings of this study, it can be argued that the distribution of foreign aid needs a new approach. It is not clear how foreign aid impacts economic growth, but it is clearer how it impacts governments and quality of living. Thus, foreign aid should be focused on the quality of living and education of the population, instead of on funding governments that ultimately develop a dependency. Th s should be done until it is clear what factors directly impact economic growth, so that countries offering foreign aid can invest in those factors.

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K–12 Computer Science Education via Scratch: Summary

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Introduction

The research presented here compiles and analyzes literature on the justifi ation and implementation of computer science education in K–12 (kindergarten through twelfth grade) classrooms. It also considers the implications of using a popular educational tool, Scratch, in these classrooms. Scratch is a visual programming language developed by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) Media Lab, and was publicly launched in 2007. In the current piece, demand for computer science education will be measured, the benefits of implementing computer science curricula at the K–12 level will be examined, the effectiveness of Scratch as an educational tool will be analyzed, and observations will be drawn from current examples of the topics being discussed. Ultimately, this research intends to estimate the value of K–12 computer science education, and provide suggestions on developing and applying a K–12 computer science curriculum.

Literature Review

The Bureau of Labor Statistics (2018) reported a projected growth of 13% in computer and information technology occupations from 2016 to 2026. Th s is 44–60% higher than the average growth rate of all occupations for the same timeframe (5–9%). Despite this, computer science and information technology degree programs experienced a decline in enrollment and graduation in the 2000s. Some of these programs suffered decreases greater than 50% (Becerra-Fernandez, Elam & Clemmons, 2010). In addition, women are poorly represented in the fi ld, making up only 25.6% of computer and

information technology employees according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2018). Looking into improving computer science enrollment and employment, research has suggested that exposing students to computer science activities at a young age generates better perceptions of, and interest in, the fi ld. Students are also better able to make connections between computer science topics and other fi lds of work. Not only does this apply to boys, but to girls as well (Tran, 2018).

In addition to improving enrollment and employment, research shows a variety of benefits from successful computer science education, including benefits that extend beyond those exclusive to the fi ld. Some of the concepts that computer science is associated with include the scientific method, innovation, literacy skills, resilience to failure, and an understanding of larger societal impacts (Fluck et al., 2016). In order to capitalize on these benefits, researchers suggest using computer science tools to support lessons in non-computer subjects (Hagge, 2017; Tran, 2018). Additionally, a diverse approach has also been shown to improve results in computer science classrooms, so the benefits are universal (Orfanakis & Papadakis, 2016).

One popular computer science tool, Scratch, was developed with the hope of instilling greater computational skills and self-expression in children. Scratch is a visual programming language developed by the MIT Media Lab. There exists research weighing the strengths and weaknesses of using visual programming languages for computer science education. One study, by Kaucic and Asic, argues that visual programming is more effici t for education than text-based programming. They also suggest that

visual programming environments keep students motivated and prevent them from becoming bored. There is also the added accessibility of not needing to struggle with the complex syntax of text-based programming languages (2011). Th s added accessibility should not be understated, according to another study by Idlbi. Th s study suggests that teaching programming to students is difficult because inaccessible, text-based languages require a signifi ant amount of time spent learning complex syntax, and are therefore unable to connect with the interests of young programmers. Visual programming languages, which allow students to focus on concepts rather than syntax, may alleviate these issues (Idlbi, 2009).

Finally, researchers have sought to determine if using Scratch allows students to transition well into the text-based languages that are used more professionally. Idlbi suggests that examining students' skills against interesting programming tasks in Scratch creates opportunities to make that transition (2009). Another research team put a Scratch curriculum to the test. They cautiously give their support to the notion that visual programming tools like Scratch allow students to transition to text-based programming (Grover, Pea & Cooper, 2015).

Discussion

Building on the ideas presented in the previously discussed literature, this review supports the implementation of interdisciplinary computer science curricula utilizing Scratch in K–12 classrooms. There is an unmet demand in the workforce and marketplace for those with computer science education and computational

skills. Compounding this is a large gender gap, meaning that women are poorly represented in the fi ld. It has been suggested that this is because of unwelcoming perceptions of computer science among women (Sax et al., 2017). To improve these perceptions, research argues in favor of beginning computer science education at a young age. One strong recommendation is to implement computer science in an interdisciplinary fashion, which should in turn develop interdisciplinary skillsets, which—like computational skills—are increasingly in demand among employers.

When selecting the tools to use in K–12 computer science curricula, this research deems Scratch a worthy tool for the job. As a visual programming language, researchers suggest that it is more effici t for teaching, because of its accessibility and ability to appeal to children's interests. Not all researchers are fi ding that Scratch usage results in increased programming skills, but even those who don't will nevertheless often recommend it for educational purposes, because of its ability to raise interest in computer science among K–12 students. Perhaps most importantly, there is evidence supporting the idea that students are able to transition well from Scratch to the more professionally used, text-based programming languages. When creating computer science curricula, Scratch should defin tely be considered among any other existing tools.

An educational module based on these concepts has been developed and implemented the curriculum in K–12 schools in Wichita, Kansas and the surrounding areas, through the Engineering Outreach division of Wichita State University. The curriculum was developed in 2017, and has reached roughly 300 students per year since that time. Additionally, teachers and librarians within the Wichita and Derby school districts have been trained on computer science curricula in primary schools, utilizing this module.

Th s curriculum seems to be successful, based on the experiences of those involved. Most students and teachers have a positive reception; students get excited about Scratch, and continue to pursue it and learn new skills outside of the classroom. They are expressive, involved, and social about their experiences. However, most importantly, they are able to solve complex problems with logical thinking while working as part of a team. Sometimes it can be challenging to motivate students to try new features in Scratch, or to experiment with new solutions to intimidating problems. Also, not all students have equal reception and retention of all material. The team has found that usually only a small portion of the students seriously push themselves to excel and show a genuine interest in the fi ld of computer science. However, this is perfectly acceptable within the structure of the curriculum, as not everyone needs a college-level computer science education. Lastly, this curriculum is heavily limited by the time with students, and as a result, is not able to incorporate all recommendations made in this research.

Conclusion

Th s research has found that there is a signifi ant pool of literature dealing with K–12 computer

science education, but there are still numerous gaps to be filled. Computer science is an important fi ld, and it has received much discussion in recent years. Scratch is one result of this discussion: a tool specifi ally developed to meet many of the needs laid out by the literature on this subject. What remains is the related curriculum: it should be perfected based on the guidelines presented here and elsewhere, and subsequently implemented into schools across the nation and beyond.

Most literature agrees on the importance of, and need for, computer science education, especially in K–12 schools. Many authors also provide notes of caution, however. Curricula should be created with the utmost care in order to develop better perceptions and confide ce among young students of all varieties. An interdisciplinary method is recommended to build a variety of useful skills in students. Th s research regards Scratch as an effective tool to be used in education. Scratch is accessible, versatile, and built for modern learners. In addition, Scratch is totally free and cloud-supported. The curriculum examples of many teachers, and of Wichita State University's Engineering Outreach program, appear to be fi ding success already. However, there are still aspects of implementation that need to be investigated in order to maximize that success. In conclusion, this research, through the examination of existing literature and the researcher's own experiences putting the ideas of that literature to the test, confide tly supports K-12 computer science education via Scratch.

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Improving Health Equity in Female Adolescence and Womanhood in the State of Kansas

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Introduction

Women's health outcomes have an overarching effect on the health and wellness of communities as a whole. The purpose of this study is to establish a well-appointed board of directors to identify the most important health disparities for women in the state of Kansas. Based on survey responses presented here, the Board of Directors of the Women's Health Network of Kansas will construct a network of providers and organizations who will work in the patient's interests to bridge the gaps in women's healthcare. Women's health encompasses all aspects of care; however, this study will focus on mental health, reproductive health, and health literacy and education.

The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) defies mental health as including "our emotional, psychological, and social well-being. It affects how we think, feel, and act. It also helps determine how we handle stress, relate to others, and make healthy choices. Mental health is important at every stage of life, from childhood and adolescence through adulthood" (CDC, 2018). Poor mental health can have both physical and psychosocial ramifications if not attended to appropriately.

Reproductive health is inclusive of all stages of female sexual development, from pubescent to post-menopausal. The physicality of reproduction is not solely associated with sexuality, but also the healthy growth and development of women from adolescence to womanhood. Reproduction is also a consideration for maternal health, infant health, and infertility prevention. The full gamut of reproductive health includes reproductive organs in varying states of healthfulness and illness. Women

of childbearing age have specific health concerns, while women in post-menopausal stages may experience a shift in ocus to cancer and hormonal imbalance.

Health literacy is defi ed as "the degree to which individuals have the capacity to obtain, process, and understand basic health information and services needed to make appropriate health decisions" (Ratzan & Parker, 2000). Varying levels of health literacy have outcomes, both positive and negative, for women's health, and improvements in health literacy rates must be given the appropriate attention from health collectives to ensure that patients are receiving the appropriate care commensurate to their needs. The data from the Sedgwick County Health Department indicate the infant mortality rate in Sedgwick County for African American infants to be 18.8 per 1,000 live births (Project Imprint, 2018). Th s staggering statistic is more than three times the national average of 5.8 infant deaths per 1,000 births, as reported by the CDC (CDC, 2019). These data refl ct the immediate need for an improvement in health literacy as it relates to appropriate healthcare for women of reproductive age, especially minority women.

Methodology

There are 16 board members in total, and their convergence from differing organizations and providers imparts a variety of experience and contributions that are valuable to creating a network of individuals qualifi d to address women's health concerns. The board meets every quarter at the Wichita State University Hughes Metroplex. These ongoing meetings are pivotal to maintaining a focus on the needs of women within the greater Sedgwick County area, and to keeping abreast of newly identifi d areas of concern.

After each quarterly meeting, participants completed a debriefi g survey through Qualtrics, a statistical analysis software. The fi st survey inquired about demographic information, and future surveys will focus on continued interest among board members in the mission of the network. Surveys will give an opportunity to share innovative processes for bridging identifi d gaps in healthcare, and offer a call-to-action by having participants provide organization and provider connections for network membership. The current phase of the study is strictly focused on the identifi ation of women's health needs and network development based on board member responses.

Results

The survey results confi med that there are a multitude of disparities for women's healthcare within the state of Kansas. Of those reported, mental health, reproductive health, and health literacy and education were areas of particular concern, and are therefore the focus of this study. The researcher's goals were to establish a board of directors that would be representative of the populations of both Wichita and Kansas as a whole. All board members come from varied backgrounds of experience, and are all community stakeholders.

The majority of respondents were female (77.78%, n=7) and aged 45 to 54 (33.33%, n=3). Reported education status showed that all participants have advanced postsecondary

degrees (100%, n=9), and each participant reported full time employment (100%, n=9). The greatest demographic variation was within the age groupings: 15 to 24 (11.11%, n=1), 35 to 34 (22.22%, n=2), 35 to 44 (22.22%, n=2), 45 to 54 (33.33%, n=3), 55 to 64 (11.11%, n=1), and 65 and over (0%, n=0).

Discussion and Limitations

These demographic limitations indicate that the scope of the study must be expanded geographically to include the greater Kansas area. Greater survey participation from board members, and eventually network members, is necessary to produce truly representative results. Th s will ensure that investigators are capturing ongoing changes in women's health issues, which are gleaned from participant survey responses. Demographic measures show that the board needs to include members over the age of 65, in addition to members who have high school education, some college, or bachelor's (rather than advanced degrees), as these variations may reveal different levels of health literacy. Employment status reported null values, suggesting that the board needs to include representatives who are employed part-time, retired, and unemployed. An emphasis on retired and unemployed

groups is crucial, as their healthcare access can be limited due to a lack of insurance coverage, which may cause further impediments to healthcare access. The viewpoints of participants from the aforementioned categories would help signifi antly expand the diversity of the board of directors of the Women's Health Network, in turn increasing the board's ability to represent the health needs of women across the state of Kansas.

Racial diversity is also a limitation of this study. Participants were not asked to disclose race in the fi st survey, but this question will be added to future surveys to ensure a diverse spectrum of racial and cultural perspectives. Wasserman et al. (2019) address continued health disparities, particularly for minority women, and the detrimental effects they have on the decision-making processes of healthcare practitioners in all aspects of care, including topics forming the focus of this study. To this end, the project also plans to include underrepresented, gender diverse, and rural populations in the future. Populations of women with intellectual or developmental disabilities will also be considered. It is critically important to give a voice to as many groups as possible, to guarantee that the network's outreach is all-encompassing.

Conclusion

Th s study indicates that there exists a need for provider and organization action within the Kansas area, in order to close the gaps in women's healthcare that exist. The board of directors of the Women's Health Network has been diligent in identifying the needs of the women in the city of Wichita, and are working to form a network of providers who will serve women in all aspects of care, with a particular focus on mental health, reproductive health, and health literacy and education. With the help of community members, researchers expect to see a decrease in the number of underserved women, and an improvement in overall healthcare and treatment.

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Effects of Violent Literature on Aggression

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Introduction

Previous research indicated that violent media may affect aggression and hostility levels, especially in children. From violent films to video games, and even violent lyrics, research has examined the overall effect these mediums can have on a person's level of hostility. However, there seems to be a lack of research regarding literature, and what effects reading violent literature can have on hostility levels. Some research supports the idea that violent films and video games increase hostility in individuals. Researchers Ivory & Kaestle (2013) have focused on the profanity found in violent video games, and the effect that strong language has on individuals, including their levels of aggression. Their study looked at the effects of swearing, used by characters in a fi st-person shooter game, on players' aggressive emotions, accessibility of aggressive thinking, hostile expectations, and other responses. The participants for the study were over 300 university students. The students recorded being more hostile after playing the video game with swearing than they did after playing a game without swearing. The researchers concluded that swearing in video games could affect aggressive behavior, and they say it is important that more research be done on these effects.

The idea that violent media increases aggression is common among many professionals and adults. A survey conducted by Bushman, Gollwitzer & Cruz (2015) recorded the responses from media researchers, parents, and pediatricians about their opinions on whether violent media increases aggression in children. The survey asked about all different forms of media that contained violence. The majority of responses indicated that violent media increases violent behavior. Violent video games and

violent movies were deemed to have the highest effect on children, while violent literature and comic books were thought to have the lowest effect on aggression. Violent video games and films get a lot of attention due to their visual nature, but as Ivory and Kaestle demonstrate, non-visual cues like swearing can impact aggression. If that is true for those types of media, can it be the same for individuals that read violent literature?

In schools, there are some regulations for what reading material is acceptable for students to check out from school libraries. Researching the effects of violent literature on hostility and aggression would help schools to implement good policies, regarding violent literature, that will benefit adolescent students in their choices of reading material. Ultimately, this study aims at a deeper understanding of the long-term and short-term effects of violent media on individuals, through the collection of survey data from college-aged participants.

Methodology

Participants

Participants for the study were psychology students enrolled at Wichita State University (WSU) during the 2019 spring semester. They were recruited through convenience sampling, using the SONA system. Before participants could complete the study, they were required to accept the informed consent form, and confi m that they were at least 18 years of age. 122 Wichita State students (70.4% female, 29.5% male) participated. The study plan and materials were approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Wichita State University prior to any data collection. Surveys were available through SONA for a total of three weeks.

Survey and Measures

A 93-item survey recorded demographic information, self-reported emotions, and self-reported responses to different situations. After the participants read either a violent chapter from the book *Fight Club* (1996) by Chuck Palahniuk, or a neutral chapter from *Made From Scratch: How*

to Start and Operate a Successful Container Plant Business* (2003) by Louise Placek, they were asked to fill out the Anderson State Hostility Scale. The Anderson State Hostility Scale was used to assess the participants' aggressive emotions. A 35-item questionnaire was also administered, consisting of 5-point Likert scale agree/disagree questions. The scale had an equal number of positive and negative emotions that were presented in random order. Of the items, 11 positive items were reverse scored, and the sum of the scores were calculated to determine the level of hostility: the higher the score, the more hostile emotions the participant was feeling.

Procedure

After answering the demographic questions that were also included with the surveys provided, participants were randomly assigned to read either the violent chapter or the neutral chapter. After reading, they were asked to answer two comprehensive questions over the chapter they read. Th s was done to ensure reading comprehension prior to measuring aggression and hostility. Following the comprehensive

questions, the participants were asked to complete the Anderson State Hostility Scale. After filling out the questionnaire, the participants were debriefed. The scores on both questionnaires would produce an overall hostility score that would determine whether the participant felt more or less hostile after reading the given chapter. The scores were compared between the two groups–those that read the violent chapter, and those that read the neutral one.

Results

A comparison of means, using an independent sample T-test, revealed that there was some difference in the mean hostility scores of those that read *Fight Club* compared to those that read *Made from Scratch*. The dependent variable was the aggression score of the State Hostility Scale. The independent sample T-test showed there was no statistical signifi ance for the means ($P >.05$). The mean aggression score for female students was higher than the same score for male students. When comparing means between class standing, sophomores recorded the lowest mean (M=64.04), followed by seniors with (M=64.85), juniors (M=66.96), and freshman with the highest mean (M=67.80). Results are illustrated in Figure 1.

Fig. 1: State Hostility Scale scores for males and females, by class standing
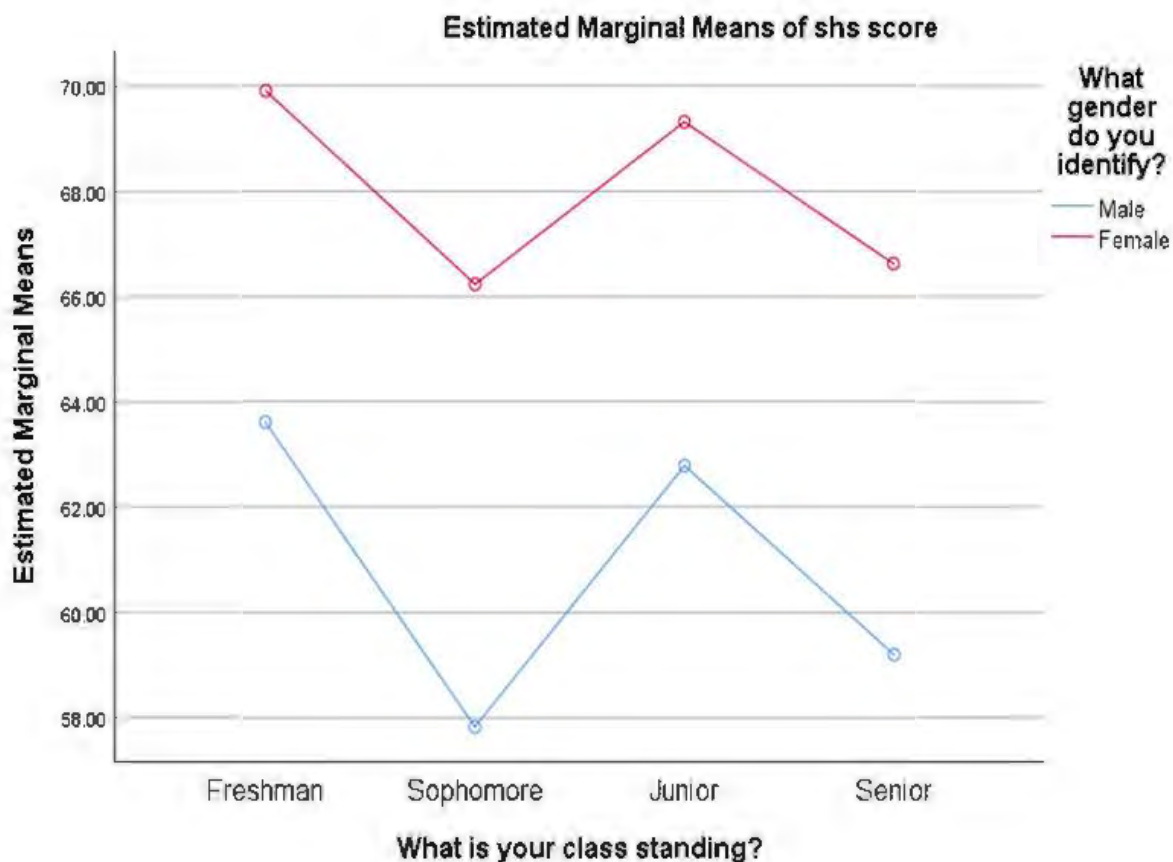
Discussion

Results from the study showed that violent literature may have some effect on aggression levels; however, in this study, the effect was not found to be statistically signifi ant. Th s suggests a need for further research. There does not seem to be support for any difference in the effects of reading violent literature on aggression when considering class standings. While freshman did have the highest mean hostility score (M= 67.8), sophomores had the lowest mean hostility score (M=64.04), meaning there is not a steady, one-way increase or decrease over the span of a student's time in school. Th s may not support the idea that younger individuals are more susceptible to increased aggression after being exposed to violent media. One of the more surprising results from the study is that female participants across all class standings had higher hostility scores than the male participants. However, there was an overwhelming proportion of female students (70.4% female) to male students (29.5% male), which may have played a role in this disparity. It is notable that past research using the state hostility scale yielded similar results (Anderson 2003).

Limitations

The disparity of gender representation (more females than males) may play a role in skewing or not entirely representing the whole population. There was also a disproportionate number of White/Caucasian students compared to other ethnicities: this could limit potential results, as the outcomes may differ with a signifi antly more diverse population. Using a convenience sample, as opposed to a random sample, also presents some limitations; notably, it won't be a fair representation of the whole population. Since the participants were all students at Wichita State University, convenience sampling hinders the scope of results for students from other parts of the country, or from universities with more students.

The selection of the chapter from *Fight Club* is perhaps not the quintessential representation of violent literature. It captures only a physical altercation between characters, but does not present any other forms of violence, e.g. domestic violence, sexual assault, harassment, war, etc. Th s limits an understanding of what kinds of violence may have more of an effect on individuals. There could be other chapters or excerpts from other literature that might contain more "perfectly" violent material, and that would provide more nuanced results. Finally, the neutral chapter taken from the *Made from Scratch* manual contained some pictures alongside the excerpt, something lacking from *Fight Club*; this could have impacted how students responded to that piece.

Conclusion

While research exists regarding the potential impact of violent media on aggression, it is important to investigate whether violent literature, specifi ally, could yield similar results. Th s study demonstrated that there is some potential effect on individuals when they read violent literature. While it was not found to be statistically signifi ant in this instance, it would be advantageous to further explore this issue. The results also showed that there may be more of an increase in aggression for females when

reading violent literature, since the female participants averaged higher hostility scores across all class standings. Th s is another area that could use further investigation. With more research, we can achieve a greater understanding of how violent literature affects aggression, and what society can do to help limit those potential harmful effects.

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