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The Bicultural Hispanic Women

The publishers of Latina Magazine and Roper ASW (Roper Starch Worldwide, 2006) have released the results of a study on the Bicultural Hispanic woman. Beth Press, of Latina magazine, remarked,

According to the above-mentioned publisher and researcher, this study was long overdue for two reasons: First, marketers need to know how to segment the Hispanic marketplace in order to get the correct branding message across. Secondly, according to the 2000 U.S. Census, the largest growing segment of the Hispanic marketplace is the U.S. born or Bicultural Hispanic. Marketers need to know how to proportionally allocate their dollars to reach each segment. (¶2)

This study, profiling the bicultural woman with an interest in both American and Hispanic cultural values, helps advertisers and media whose work demands an understanding of the largest growing market segment in the United States: a segment characterized by the following:

(a) in the U.S., the Hispanic female population ages 16 to 49 is about 9 million, representing almost one quater of the entire Hispanic population;

(b) about 55 percent of the U.S. female population aged 16 to 49 is bicultural ; i.e, having both American and Hispanic values;

(c) bicultural Hispanic women--more than their non-bicultural counterpart-- are young, educated, affluent and independent;

(d) bicultural women are sought more often for advice about various product categories, "making them valued gatekeepers for others" (HispanicAd.com, 2004, ¶5);

(e) with regard to beauty and fashion, bicultural women will only settle for the best: More brand-conscious than Non-Bicultural women, bicultural women are willing to pay more for certain brand-name products;

(f) the Hispanic market's dynamic segment is not always attained using traditional Hispanic advertising;

(g) the media habits of bicultural women compare more with non-Hispanic women than with Hispanic women, tending to read newspapers, to go online, or to read magazines;

(h) bicultural women, like non-bicultural women, tend to either prefer English or to have no language preference in using the media;

(i) bi-cultural women are firm in their cultural heritage, even though they tend to make use of the English-language media;.

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Thoughts on Learning

Instructional Strategies

by Leo-Francis Daniels-Kaczmarczyk, C.O.

Introduction

Robert Marzano and others have recently claimed that if a school or institution wants to make meaningful gains in student achievement, they need to look at the program and the strategies employed in the student/teacher relationship. In an attempt to improve the quality of teachers, research (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001) reveals "instructional strategies" that work to improve student achievement. What, then, are these strategies? McREL researchers have identified nine categories of instructional strategies.

1. Identifying Similarities and Differences.

Knowing how to break a concept down into similar and dissimilar traits helps students to understand complicated problems by breaking them down, or analyzing, them into a simpler way. Instructors can, on the one hand, just present similarities and differences, and, then, allow for intelligent discussion and inquiry. Research shows that as the teacher will focuses on specific items while students encourage tend toward variation and broad understanding: It is help to represent similarities and differences, graphically (Marzano et al, 2001).

Applications:

(a) use Venn diagrams* or charts to compare and classify items.

(b) engage students in comparing, classifying, and creating metaphors and analogies.

2. Summarizing and Note Taking

Summarizing and note taking skills foster more understanding, since students are urged to analyze a subject, capturing the essence of what is and, then, putting it in their own words. This requires substituting some things, omitting some things, retaining some things, and knowing, basically, the components of the essential structure of the reality in question (Marzano et al, 2001).

Applications:

(a) show them how to summarize.

(b) in summarizing, get the students to express what is unclear, then, get them to clarify, and, finally, encourage them to predict the expected results, or consequences.

Research:

Taking more notes is better than fewer notes. Interestingly, verbatim note taking is not recommended, since it does not leave enough time to process the information. After showing students how to take notes properly, teachers should encourage students to review and revise their notes--notes can be the best study guide for the test (Marzano et al, 2001).

Applications:

(a) let the students make use of teacher-prepared notes; this will show them how to take notes

(b) each the student that they must have a consistent note-taking style. Each student will have his/her own style for taking notes.

3. Reinforcing Effort and Providing Recognition

Teaching students the importance of effort in fostering achievement and recognizing their actual work toward an identified degree and level of performance. Since students naturally understand and respond positively to serious strivings and being recognized, teachers, taking advantage of this, must make them see how effort and achievement are connected, or related. Research demonstrating that not all students, in fact, see the importance of effort, they can, nevertheless, learn to modify their thinking by acquiring positive attitude toward striving, working hard, and making a effort to achieve something (Marzano et al, 2001).

Applications:

(a) give success story examples of people who did well by not giving up.

(b) the students can keep a diary recording their weekly efforts and achievements, meditate on the implications, and quantify the good it has done.

Research:

Recognition is most effective when it depends on the achievement of a certain goal or standard; symbolic recognition is more effective than tangible rewards (Marzano et al, 2001).

Applications:

(a) create new way to personalize recognition; e.g., recognize with awards those who have done something worthy of recognition. Find ways to personalize recognition.

(b) when a student is having a difficult time:

- *pause* and talk about the problem,
- *prompt*, or encourage the student with advice improvement; and, finally,
- *praise* or bestow laudatory words upon the the student if performance improves.

4. Homework and Practice

Homework allows students to take their learning outside the classroom (Marzano et al, 2001):

(c) quantity of homework depends on grade level;
(d) parent involvement should be minimal;
(e) teacher should explain the homework to student and parent teacher/guardian;
(f) teachers should give feedback on all homework

Applications:

(a) have a homework policy with advice, e.g., schedule, time limit, etc., for students and parents;

(b) let the students know when they will have a test;

(c) let students know, specifically, what the homework

is for;

(d) make the feedback effective by changing the way it is delivered.

Research:

Students should adapt skills while they are learning them. Effectiveness of practice is reflected in speed and accuracy (Marzano, 2001).

Applications:

(a) give timed quizzes for homework; ask the student to report on speed and accuracy.

(b) give adequate time for the explanation and absorption of difficult concepts, setting aside class time for practicing.

5. Non-Linguistic Representations

Research shows that knowledge is stored linguistically and visually: The achievement increases in proportions as they use conjointly these two forms of knowledge retention. It has been recently discovered that the use of nonlinguistic representation both stimulates and increases brain activity (Marzano et al, 2001).

Applications:

(a) include both words and images along with symbols to represent relationships;

(b) make use of physical models and movement to represent data, or information.

6. Cooperative Learning

According to research, organizing students into cooperative groups renders a positive effect on general learning. If one is using cooperative learning strategies,

(1) make sure that the groups are kept small and

(2) do not use this strategy too often—use a systematic and consistent style (Marzano et al, 2001)

Applications:

(1) in forming groups, make use of a diversity of criteria, i. e., common experiences or interests.

(2) make sure the group size and objectives are varied;

(3) group work should be designed around the core components of cooperative learning:

(a) positive interdependence,

(b) group processing,

(c) healthy use of social skills

(d) face-to-face interaction, and

(e) individual and group accountability.

7. Setting Objectives and Providing Feedback

Students are given a sense of direction for their learning when objectives are provided. Goals, however, should not be tightly specified, but should be easily adapted to the student's own objective (Marzano et al, 2001).

Applications:

(a) establish a core goal for a unit; then, persuade students use their own special interest to personalize that goal;

(b) set up contracts with students to determine, in schema form students' specific goals to be attained along with the grade to be

received if they meet those goals.

Research:

Feedback generates positive results, most of the time. Teachers can never give too much feedback; teachers should, however, control how the feedback is formulated (Marzano et al, 2001).

Applications:

(a) feedback should be corrective;

(b) students' behavior should be evaluated in relationship to specific levels of knowledge--the rubric-method works well;

(c) make sure the feedback timely and specific;

(d) persuade students to take charge of feedback sessions.

8. Generating and Testing Hypotheses

Research shows that a deductive approach to this strategy is the most effective. Be it inductive or deductive, teachers should insist that students explain their hypotheses and conclusions with logical clarity (Marzano et al, 2001).

Applications:

(a) help the students to hypothesize by asking them what would happen if a well-known system or culture were suddenly changed, e.g., government, church, library system, etc.

(b) students could be asked to construct something with limited resources: a task would generate questions and hypotheses about feasibility.

9. Cues, Questions, and Advance Organizers

Cues, questions, and advance organizers encourage students to make use of something already known to elaborate on or enhance further learning. Research shows that such tools promotes analytical thinking, help the student to stay focused on what is most important, and are most effective when presented before a learning experience (Marzano et al, 2001).

Applications:

(a) if the teacher pauses shortly after asking a question, the student's answer will be more profound;

(b) the organizer should think ahead about what style he/she will use:

(c) talk about a personal experience;

(d) there are many ways to present information to a student before he/she actually "learns", or possesses, it.a brief text can be read, a graphic image can be created.

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*Venn diagrams: illustrations used in mathematic set theory. They show the mathematical or logical relationship between distinct groups of things, or sets. Venn diagrams show the possible logical relations between the sets.

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Teachers, Leadership, and Courage

by Leo-Francis Daniels-Kaczmarczyk, C.O.

Bowman (2004) wrote that teachers instinctively fear taking leadership roles because the essence of leadership lies in the capacity to deliver disturbing news and raise difficult questions in a way that moves people to take up the message without killing the messenger.

To be accounted good, a teacher must be courageous which, in part, means the

following:

Mark Twain observed, "Courage is resilience to fear, mastery of fear, not absence of fear" (Fitzhenry, 1993, p. 110). Whatever the circumstances occasioning courage, it, in some way, requires overcoming fear; e.g., bodily injury, death, fear of shame, fear of opprobrium, fear of other's critical opinions, fear of appearing foolish, or fear of being a coward.

According to Dean (2006), moral courage is called upon during times when doing the right thing

(3) goes against the status quo,

(4) would cause the person to suffer shame and

(5) requires withstanding discouragement from other people.

Moral courage compels or allows an individual to do what one thinks is right, despite fear of the consequences. Probably, the most significant and recognized of the threatening fears is the loss of one's ethical integrity; namely, the fear of one's authenticity if one does not act according to conscience (Putnam, 1997).

Promoting Courage

C. S. Lewis believed that of all the virtues, courage was the most valuable, for he saw courage necessary for maintaining and exercising the other virtues; and, so, he concluded that courage is "not simply one of the virtues, but the form of every virtue at the testing point" (Fitzhenry, 1993, p. 111).

Aristotle held that courage is developed by doing courageous acts (Aristotle, trans. 1962). Following along these same lines, some believe that, courage is a moral "habit" to be developed by practice (Cavanagh & Moberg, 1999). Similarly, Bandura's concept of self-efficacy is compatible with Aristotelian thought in that successful performance strengthens an expectation of further success (Bandura, 1977).

Building Courage

Practically speaking, Aristotle is very useful for building up courage, for he tells us, very simply, that we become courageous by being courageous.

I cannot imagine how a teacher in today's world could possibly be effective in the classroom without courage. Without courage the students and school would make mashed potatoes out of him/her.

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