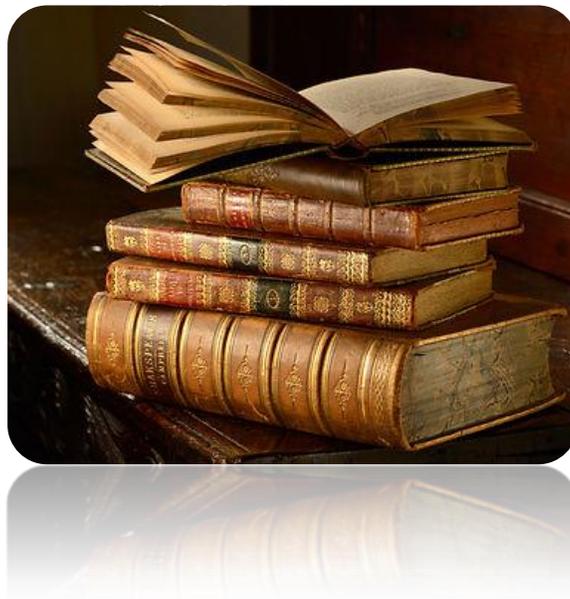




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## FROM THE EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR OF PUBLICATIONS

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# GIBSON GROVE: A SEGREGATED COMMUNITY INTEGRATED BY ARCHAEOLOGY

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## ABSTRACT

The history of the African American community in Cabin John, Maryland has never been fully explored until the community's oldest church burned down. From the ashes, came the story of a resilient community, which began in the 1880's and still exists today. Through utilizing a collaborative research approach the author was able to give voice to information that was once silenced and the project became a community archaeology project. This resulted in integrating various segments of a community that had previously limited contact with each other.

**Keywords:** Community Archaeology; Cabin John, Maryland; African American History, Critical Archaeology, Silence

The building of black neighborhoods is often forgotten in the histories of cities or towns. Segregation shaped the stories told about post-emancipation life, often silencing African American voices. In Cabin John, Maryland, a thriving African American community grew from the purchase of small plots of land and the establishment of the Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion Church. This article will explore how collaborative archaeology practices brought together a once segregated community and in the process, helped the African American community find their voice, which had previously been marginally recognized in the history of Cabin John.

Archaeologists have an obligation to the archaeological record as well as the communities the research represents. African Americans are often left out of the history books due to their impact on the development of a town, city or state being marginalized or not recognized. Archaeology can revise the history of America, where African American's role in the building and development of this great nation's communities are no longer marginalized. Through conducting community archaeology, the African American community is no longer the "research subject" but a partner in research.

Community archaeology is an effort by archaeologists to take the advancements made in public archaeology and progress further. Community archaeology seeks to incorporate local people in all aspects of the archaeological enterprise (Moser et al. 2002; Marshall 2002). In order to truly understand what community archaeology entails; we need to understand what we mean by community. Terms like public and local people are very broad terms yet community represents a more intimate group of people. A community is a social group of varied size who share common characteristics and is perceived to belong to a distinct segment of society. Though a community is

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one unit, an archaeological site generally has more than one community, which can lay historical claims to the site. This is what makes community archaeology a challenging experience.

As an archaeologist seeking to incorporate the community in all aspects of the project one must address and recognize all of the communities involved. Identifying the various communities sometimes may be as easy as working with the local town members and leaders; however, in most cases it is very complicated and requires some research into the history of the site. Establishing partnerships or collaborative relationships with the community groups involves dedication and work. The relationship, which develops between archaeologists and marginalized groups, is unique. “Therefore, we must be persistent, patient, and committed to engaging from the beginning with the descendant communities when constructing our research agendas (Battle-Baptiste 2008).”

When engaging in community archaeology, critical theorists, reflect on what their motivation is for conducting the project and how their personal experiences influence their knowledge base and how it reflects in their interpretations of a site (Leone 1986; Leone, Potter, & Shackel 1987; Potter 1994; Wilkie & Bartoy 2000; Palus, Leone, & Cochran, 2006; Wylie 1985). Critical archaeologists are keenly aware that “all knowledge serves interests” (Potter 1994, p. 36). In understanding that basic principle, archaeologists acknowledge the social ideologies that were governing the past and influence the present. Those ideologies silenced many key players in the past, yet through archaeology those key players are revealed.

## **CABIN JOHN HISTORY**

Cabin John is located along the Potomac River within Montgomery County, Maryland. The National Capital Beltway, Cabin John Parkway, and the Potomac River physically confine it. The area spans about 550 acres and is approximately four miles up-stream from Washington, D.C.

The first settlers of Cabin John were landowning farmers and later many entered into the commerce of the C&O Canal. In the 19th and early 20th centuries, Cabin John became a suburb to Washington, D.C. and a summer resort area. The community was connected to D.C. by a trolley line, which ran between Cabin John and Georgetown.

Joseph Bobinger and his family, immigrants from Europe, moved to Cabin John in 1860. His wife, Rosa, operated a refreshment stand out of their home. She sold cigars, tobacco, candies and other food items to the men that were working on the Cabin John Bridge. She developed quite a reputation for her cakes and chicken dinners. In 1870, John and Rosa purchased 100 acres of property stretching from the bridge to the river on the south side of Conduit Road, west of Cabin John Bridge (Offutt, 1995).

The Bobingers built a hotel, which eventually became one of Cabin John’s main attractions. The Cabin John Bridge Hotel began as a 25-room structure and quickly expanded. To accommodate the growing business, they bought additional property. Although the hotel would not allow guests to stay overnight, it had two large banquet halls, several private dining rooms, two lunchrooms, two parlors, a billiard room, a music room, a barbershop, and several bars. The family lived on the top floor. As they developed the landscape, the family added an elaborate garden in the rear of the hotel for people to walk through and gaze upon the river. In 1900, the family added an amusement park with a merry-go-round and a scenic railway (Armstrong 1947; Offutt 1995).

In 1912, the American Land Company bought a large tract of land and divided it into residential lots. This land became what is now known as the Cabin John Park community. Even though most of the inhabitants chose to use the land to build their summer homes, many began to move into the town and make Cabin John their primary residence. In 1919, the Cabin John Park Citizens Association was founded. The Association's primary focus was to ensure the community had basic services such as mail services, streetlights, and telephone service (Armstrong 1947; Offutt 1995).

In the 1940's, the Federal Government bought land in Cabin John and created a housing development for its workers at the David Taylor Model Basin. It built two developments; one consisted of 100 houses on the south side of MacArthur Boulevard. The other development was established off Seven Locks Road and consisted of 20 houses for African Americans (Armstrong 1947; Offutt 1995).

In the few historical accounts written in books about Montgomery County and Cabin John the African American residents of Cabin John are rarely discussed before 1940 (Armstrong, 1947; Offutt, 1995). The information known about the African American community of Cabin John was written in pamphlets and brochures by members of their community as it related to Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion Church.

## **THE GIBSONS**

In the late 1800s, one of the first African American families to settle in Cabin John were the Gibson's (Figure 14.2). The Gibsons were enslaved in Rappahana, Virginia on a plantation about 10 miles from Bull Run Creek. Sarah Gibson worked as a seamstress, while her husband worked as a wagon driver (Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion Church [GGC] n.d.: a; Young n.d.). Near the conclusion of the Civil War, the Gibsons escaped from their bondage when Union soldiers rode through the plantation and ordered them to leave. In the resulting frenzy, Sarah was unable to find her husband and was forced to leave alone with their two children (Young n.d.). Sarah relocated to Washington, D.C. and her husband's location was unknown.

In Washington, D.C. an African American church by the name of Shiloh Baptist Church served as a place of worship for African Americans, but it was also a place people could go in order to find their family and friends that they were separated from during enslavement. Shiloh provided the Gibsons with the opportunity to be reunited after nearly a decade apart (GGC n.d.: a; Young n.d.). Finally together again, the Gibson family moved to Maryland to work. They were hired by Frank Dallon, who lived on Cinnamon Tree Road not far from Potomac, Maryland. During the sixteen years they worked for Mr. Dallon, the family was frugal, saved their money and later bought property in Cabin John.

In 1880, Mr. and Mrs. Gibson entered into an agreement with Mrs. Amada Dowling to purchase her portion of Carderrock (Montgomery County Circuit Court (MCCC) 1880). In that same year Mrs. Dowling sold that same property to J.D.W. Moore (MCCC 1880). In 1881, the Gibsons entered into a mortgage agreement with Mr. Moore to purchase the Carderrock property from him (MCCC 1881). J.D.W. Moore also sold five-acre plots on Seven Locks Road to 10 different African American families that worked for him on his farm (Armstrong 1947; Offutt 1995). The

census maps of Montgomery Country from 1917 through 1949 show each family present on Seven Locks Road.

In 1898, the Gibsons decided to donate a portion of their property to be used for the construction of a church for the community. African Americans living in Cabin John established Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion Church in 1898. It was believed that Mrs. Gibson donated her property because God had always kept her and her family safe and together. The establishment of the church was her small way of giving back. In addition to building the church, she also decided to open a school, which was built next to Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion Church.

### **GIBSON GROVE A.M.E. ZION CHURCH**

The first Gibson Grove Church structure was a log cabin. In 1923, the same year as Sarah Gibson's death, the log cabin was replaced with the structure seen today (Figure 14.4). In 1998, the church celebrated its centennial anniversary and was added to Montgomery County's historical sites list. In 2002, Gibson Grove had its closing ceremony. The congregation had dwindled to only a few faithful members, and the church was having problems maintaining. In that same year, the A.M.E. Zion Church allowed a new congregation to take over the building once occupied by Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion. The new congregation became the First Agape A.M.E. Zion Church at Gibson Grove. Once the building was renovated and open for service, a few members of the former congregation joined the new congregation. In 2004, on Ash Wednesday, a fire broke out in the church building (Soladay 2004). Although the interior of the building was completely destroyed, the exterior was persevered.

In 2008, the church raised money to renovate the church structure. However, renovation plans were halted after one of the members of the Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion Church, a descendant of the White and Crawford families, mentioned that her family had been buried on the church property years earlier. The fact that people might be buried on the church property presented a problem for the new congregation. Archaeology was the answer to their dilemma regarding the renovation plans.

### **COMMUNITY ARCHAEOLOGY IN CABIN JOHN: SILENCE, COLLABORATION AND PUBLIC INTERPRETION**

The Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion Church archaeological project began as a result of the community reaching out to archaeologists for help. In an effort to meet their needs, I took on their project. Yet I didn't do this alone, I met with the First Agape A.M.E. Zion church community frequently to discuss the project's development and to ask for their input on how it should proceed. I met not only with the church leaders but also with the church body in order to gain an accurate understanding of everyone's desires for the project. I used their concerns and ideas as guidelines for the development of the project design. Due to the unusual circumstance of the ownership of the property, I wanted the current church congregation to be left with a feeling of pride in taking on the legacy of their new property.

Archaeology at Cabin John consisted of community outreach, collaboration, excavations, and public interpretation. Community archaeology was a method through which the archaeologists and the community were able to work together to better understand the history of Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion Church. This follows a movement in archaeology in which archaeologists are working to make their research relevant beyond the confines of academia. There by addressing issues relevant to the communities impacted by the research; such as racism, segregation, and discrimination and how they affected the portal of their past. Chip Colwell-Chanthaphonh and T.J. Ferguson (2008: 1) states, “Collaboration in practice exists on a continuum, from merely communicating research to descendant communities to a genuine synergy where the contributions of the community members and scholars create a positive result that could not be achieved without joining efforts.” They go on to say, “Collaboration, then, is not a uniform idea or practice but a range of strategies that seek to link the archaeological enterprise with different publics by working together” (Ferguson and Colwell-Chanthaphonh 2008: 1). By utilizing various collaborative strategies with the descendant community of Cabin John, I was able to reconstruct the past lives of their ancestors.

The Cabin John community is made up of three separate groups: the current Cabin John residents who are; African American and European American, members of the Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion Church and their descendants, and members of the First Agape A.M.E. Zion Church. Each group had a stake in the community’s history, each with its own agenda. The current Cabin Johners were interested in the history of their neighborhood. The First Agape A.M.E. Zion Church wanted to gain more knowledge about the land they now occupy, the people who once lived on that land and the history of the previous African American residents. The descendants of the Cabin John African American community and the previous members of Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion Church were interested in the histories of their families to discovered and retold. Though the church community was the one to reach out for archeological help, they were not the only community members with whom we, the field crew and I, were going to have to collaborate. The White family, whom were descendants of the Crawford family and White family felt moving the skeletal remains of her relatives was of highest priority. An invitation was extended to the family to visit and/or come out and volunteer with the project any time they wanted. We wanted to the members of the White family to feel comfortable with the archaeologists and the work they we were conducting. In every stage of the research, components were continually added to involve the various communities in the interpretation and outcome of the project.

Because of the emphasis on collaboration, community archaeology is deeply frustrating, extremely time consuming, humbling, and challenging in unanticipated ways (Marshall 2002), but the end product is extremely rewarding. This form of archaeology creates an opportunity to ask questions which would not have been considered if it were not for the input of the communities in the archaeological investigations. It creates an avenue for communities to ask questions of the past that are relevant to their present, questions that empower silenced communities (Stahl 2004).

## SILENCE

Community archaeology helped reveal the voices of Cabin John's African American community that were silenced during Jim Crow and segregation. The remembering and forgetting of African American history is political and is shaped by the research process. In order to understand the role silence plays in Cabin John's past, the process of historical production has to be explored. As a participant in and an observer of the historical production process for Cabin John, the silences could be seen in the absence of information in the historical archives, oral history, and archaeology.

Archives are used as repositories for stored knowledge and information; they are places where documents are assembled into facts. The assembly of data into fact is a significant factor in historical production (Trouillot 1995). Archives are institutions set up to house various bodies of knowledge depending on their focus. An example of this is an institution focused on Maryland's history may not collect documents about a family that once lived in Maryland but resides in the District of Columbia. These institutions select bodies of information, which they consider important to preserve and maintain. The selection of data, which should be preserved, can result in forms of silence, particularly if the documents maintained are only relevant to particular people or events.

For example, Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion Church was built during the end of the reconstruction period. The history of the African Americans who established this church have generally not been added to the history of Cabin John specifically and the history of segregated towns in general. The only official church document retrieved was a Works Progress Administration interview (Mower and Cole 1937). The Federal Writers' Project of the Works Progress Administration (WPA) interviewed surviving ex-slaves during the 1930s. The purpose of these interviews was to learn about African Americans and their lives. In 1937, in Maryland a series of interviews were conducted to find out about African American churches in the state. Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion church was among the churches covered in this survey. Yet the interviewers only answered eight of fifteen questions on the church. The standard document included a range of basic informational questions about the churches such as; Name of the church, Denomination, Date of laps, Date organized, Architecture, etc. The question regarding the location of previous building location was answered incorrectly. It stated, "Previous building stood on the same site as present" (Mower and Cole 1937). The original church was located west of the new church structure built in 1923. This document was the only official document that could be retrieved on the church. This is important because when the initial background research was conducted, this document was used to corroborate the oral accounts given by the new congregation as to the location of the burials.

The Montgomery County Historical Society serves as the local archives for information pertaining to Cabin John. The bulk of information contained in the Cabin John section consists of newspaper clippings on various events that have taken place in Cabin John. Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion is represented in this section by a newspaper article on the church being nominated for historical status and later as First Agape A.M.E. Zion church burned down (Soladay 2004). The historical society also has the pamphlets and booklets produced by the Cabin John Association and in one of

the booklets two of Cabin John's African American community members were interviewed (Kyle 1976).

In 1976, Cabin John Association in celebration of the bicentennial wanted to produce a pamphlet about Cabin John. Ms. Elizabeth Kytte conducted 18 interviews of current and past Cabin John residents and turned the interviews into the book, *Time Was, A Cabin John Memory Book*. The book contains two interviews with African American residents, which is the only written text with detail information about Cabin John's early African American community. However, the texts are limited in that though the focus was supposed to be memories of Cabin John, the interviews developed more into accounts of the older women's lives. For example, in one account it begins with her life in Cabin John and then chronicles her life in the District of Columbia.

The general lack of information on the African American families and the establishment of the Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion Church in Cabin John can be interpreted as a silence in history. The historical archives are great resources in recounting the stories of the past. However, archaeology can fill the voids left by the historical record. Archaeology differs from the archives in that archaeology focuses on the lives of people through their material culture. For archaeologists knowledge is constructed at the trowels edge (Hodder 2003). By utilizing a critical approach around the excavation of site, knowledge of the past groups (gender, ethic, and class) will be obtained.

Yet there are also silences in the archaeological record. If knowledge is at the trowels edge, what happens if there is nothing at the edge of the trowel? There are unique situations where a site is excavated and there is no material culture to be found. This form of silence tells a different story often contrary to what we as archaeologists learned prior to the excavations. On occasions the knowledge gained at the trowels edge is no knowledge and it's this type of silence, which speaks loudest about what was taking place in the past at a given time and place. The lack of material culture opened a new window of dialogue between the archaeologist and the various communities. The archaeological finding suggested that very little activity took place on the church property. This line of evidence created new conversations between the archaeologists and the communities around the use of the property. The results also created questions about the historical record and its validity.

It is known that historical records contain bias based on the social context in which they are constructed. Critical archaeology utilizes an approach, which recognizes these biases and moves beyond them to create a revisionist past, which tells a more inclusive account of the past. Archaeologists working in partnerships with communities can take the silence of archaeology and use diverging lines of evidence to further explain their finds. Oral history becomes a great tool when partnering with communities, their interpretations and knowledge can often provide insight to the archaeological record.

In order to move beyond silence presented by the archaeological record, it prompted me to seek out the descendant community of Cabin John's African American community. I began by interviewing members of the White family and as I interviewed them I asked for contact

information to other families that also lived in Cabin John. With each new interview I would ask the interviewee if they had any contact information on any of the other families. And I continued until I felt like I had a large enough sample of all the families. Oral histories are viewed by many as a way of obtaining information about an historical event through one individual's personal account. Oral histories contribute to the historical production process of fact creation (Trouillot 1995). The people recounting the historical event or events are recalling information based on their memory of an occurrence. "Memory [is]...by definition a personal activity, subject to the biases, quirks, and rhythms of the individual's mind. If a remembered event is expressed verbally, the remembrance is of course slanted by the teller's choice of words and by his or her sense of how to shape a tale" (Fabre and O'Meally, 1994: 5). In addition, to account for the unconscious silences in a person's recounting of an historical event, one also has to account for the conscious silences in a person's narrative. As the person/ narrator is recounting their story of the past, they are choosing what information to tell and what information to omit based on their own biases of what is important. These oral accounts with their built in silences whether conscious or unconscious are the foundations of history making.

The interviews provided great insight to how the church property was utilized and information about the church and its congregation. With each person I interviewed I inquired about Moses Hall and the cemetery, yet no one was able to tell me any more than a few facts about the organization. No one referred to the lodge by its name Morningstar Tabernacle #88 Grand United Order Brothers and Sisters, Sons and Daughters of Moses, they only called it Moses Hall. Everyone stated meetings and dances were held in the hall. After several conversations I was sure it was a small mutual aid society that the community had created. Yet in a conversation with a member she said she was initiated in the District of Columbia (S. Harris, personal communication 2008). This small piece of information hinted that Moses Hall was more than a mutual aid society and larger than Cabin John. Through weeks of research, I learned that Moses Hall was one of numerous lodges belonging to a secret African American fraternal organization. The fact that it was a secret organization explains why there is limited information on the lodge and why those who were interviewed knew little more than the name Moses Hall. The persons interviewed were all children during the time of the lodges operation (except one person). It was the forgetting by the children or the absence of mention to the children about lodge business, which resulted in the silences now about the organization.

Through recognizing silences and using them as curves in a circular process I was able to reconstruct the Cabin John's forgotten history. Each time I encountered a void I used it as directional to go to another form of knowledge and would continue revisiting knowledge bases in a circular pattern until I discovered the missing links. Then in turn taking the newly acquired information and continuing in the cycle until the community history was uncovered.

## **COLLABORATION**

In agreeing to conduct the archaeological research for First Agape A.M.E. Zion Church, I meet with their representatives frequently to discuss the project's development and to ask for their input on how the project was proceeding. I used their concerns and ideas as guidelines for the

development of the project design. Due to the unusual circumstance of the ownership of the property, I wanted the current church congregation to be left with a feeling of pride in taking on the legacy of their new property.

The church and the White family wanted the skeletal remains to be placed in Moses Hall cemetery. A week before the excavation was scheduled to start; I toured Moses Hall Cemetery in order to survey the area in which the bodies were to be repatriated. At that time, I was under the impression that this was a historic cemetery that was receiving proper care and maintenance. After a half-mile uphill hike, I walked into a mini forest overgrown with plants, bushes, poison ivy and bamboo; and trash scattered throughout the cemetery. I immediately called the pastor's wife and inquired about the entity responsible for the land's maintenance. The cemetery was privately owned by the Morningstar Tabernacle #88, and the last living member was an older woman whose family members were buried on the church property.

I toured the cemetery with another archaeologist and we noticed that there were roughly 30 visible graves. Though, as we walked through the brush, there were several more that were less visible and there were newer graves placed on top of older ones. We realized that in order to re-bury the skeletal remains of those buried on the church property we would have to identify the burials located in the cemetery. Cleaning and clearing the brush from the cemetery was the first step. I looked at this task as a way to have the different communities come out and interact while also working together for a common good.

The following week, I began my campaign to involve the community. I called a few of the former congregation members of the Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion Church and Mrs. Dove, the member of the Morningstar Tabernacle #88, in order to inform them of the archaeology project being conducted. I also asked for permission to clean and clear the cemetery for repatriation purposes. All parties agreed, and I asked them to inform some of their younger family members in case anyone wanted to volunteer to clean the graves. I went to Sunday service at the church to speak with the church congregation about what the archaeologists would be doing on the cemetery property and invited the congregation assist with cleaning up the cemetery.

As this project increased in size so did the size of the archaeological community. Since we would be conducting a cleaning project in the backyards of about 15 homeowners, I thought the current Cabin John community should be notified of what was going on. Until this point the only community involved in the project was the First Agape A.M.E. Zion Church and the White family (past and current African American Cabin John residents). Flyers were printed and placed in 100 of the neighbors' mailboxes closest to the church and Moses Hall Cemetery. The flyers informed the community of the archaeology project and invited them to observe or assist. In addition, Montgomery County Parks and Planning Archaeology Division was contacted and asked to send out an email to all their archaeology volunteers.

The second weekend in June 2008 was our "clean-up day." I thought this would be a chance for me to meet the community at large and ask them questions about the Cabin John area. The few who talked to me informed me that they had nothing to do with the trash; it was other people who trashed the cemetery. The blame for the state of the cemetery lay solely with other people. The church leaders and the archaeologists met to talk about the progress. In two days' time the

cemetery was only half cleared and the church decided to pay a company to clear the remainder of the cemetery. By the following week, the cemetery was cleared and we were able to identify more graves. Through working with the different groups the cemetery was cleared and this project began dialogues between the various groups. These initial dialogues resulted in more collaborative projects.

In the summer of 2008, archaeological excavations were conducted at the Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion Church. Excavations began the first week of June 2008. The site was surveyed and mapped. Based on the survey of the landscape and on oral reports, 2 areas were identified in advance where test pits would be placed. Nonprobabilistic sampling was utilized to sample the site; .5m squares were placed every two meters across the entire site. Within the first few days something strange was occurred. None of the STP's were yielding any articles. Over the next ten days, sampling was completed. The only artifacts that were recovered were nails and shingles left from the fire that threatened to completely destroy the church. Six 4x 4 meter squares were placed throughout the site. One was placed where the informant stated the graves were located. The other 5 were randomly spaced throughout the area in order to give the best sample of the site. All the test pits yielded window glass, nails, and shingle shreds; however two pits yielded other artifacts. Unfortunately, there were no indicators of any grave shafts on the current church property. A large portion of the church property was sold including the section where the original church stood. It was believed that the people were buried behind the old church structure pre-1912.

Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion Church was an important fixture in the African American community in Cabin John. The church played a very specific role as the religious center. Church services were held as well as funerals and meetings of the various church committees. However, the church did not hold social activities; all social activities were held at Moses Hall. The people in the community would go "to church and leave right after" (S. Harris, personal communication 2008). The lack of activity on the church property was reflected in the archaeological record. There were no artifacts indicating signs of activity on the property behind or on the side of the church building.

### **PUBLIC INTERPRETATION**

In the beginning, the main focus of the project was to locate the burials of the past church members and repatriate them in Moses Hall Cemetery. As an archaeologist who thinks critically about a site and its potential relevance to its community, I felt that in order to accurately interpret the site I had to reach out to the different communities which all had an interest in the way the Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion church was interpreted. Randall McGuire (1994: 182) stated, "If we recognize that the pasts we study are the pasts of living communities, then we must also recognize an obligation to serve the interests of these communities." By reaching out to the various communities that were a part of Cabin John's present and therefore its past, I uncovered a portion of their history that has for the most part gone untold. The history of Cabin John that I uncovered told the story of the silences present in the African American community and silences, which developed out of segregation of Cabin John.

I had constant contact with the church community that asked for the work to be conducted on the church, and we worked together on all decisions. I engaged the Cabin John Community Association and members of the current Cabin John community via outreach and email. On the “Community Archaeology Day,” the people touring the site were told the brief history of the church and were shown some of the artifacts from the site; yet no interpretations of the materials were provided. Many of the individuals (viewers) provided their prior knowledge of the site and thus created their own interpretations. By utilizing all of the information given, I was able to construct some bits of the Cabin John African American Community’s past.

An important aspect of the project was to talk to people whose families currently owned the property and those who owned it in the past. Mrs. Dove, a member of the Morningstar Tabernacle #88 gave me the names and numbers of many African American Cabin Johners. In the weeks that passed, I learned about a thriving community which was in many ways, autonomous from the rest of Cabin John. I conducted six interviews with representatives of four families, all of whom were members of Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion church. With each interview, I presented the finds of the excavation and asked questions about what was found or not found in order for them to provide their interpretation of the site. Interpreting the Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion Church Archaeological Site is a continual process; which has exceeded the original goal of cultural resource management and has grown into a project in which the voices of the African American community have emerged from silence.

### **INTEGRATING CABIN JOHN**

Before the introduction of archaeology, the greater Cabin John community was segregated. The current Cabin Johners recognized there was an African American community that once thrived in the area, but aside from the Gibsons, none of the other families were discussed. Everyone knew of Moses Hall but it was always talked about in context of the cemetery and the few meetings that were held on the property. Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion was the most recognized fixture of the once present African American community, yet it is no longer in existence. In its place is First Agape A.M.E. Zion, which has no ties to the community at large. Through collaboration with all members of the community, dialogues were opened between the three segments, who before had very little to do with one another. Yet, since I took a genuine interest in all the groups, and worked with each and listened to their concerns and questions, archaeology was able to help bridge the gaps between the groups.

Every archaeologist should share their data with the community so that everyone can gain insight from the findings, keeping in mind Maria Franklin’s (1997: 43) assertion that “...most of us have not given black society much reason to feel that archaeology should be important to them.” Archaeological data is essential to African American history, and as scholars working with such sites, we need to share the value of our work. There are responsibilities that come with understanding the importance of material culture studies, and how they help fill in the gaps of the written record.

As archaeologists, we have the power to not just to write history, but to create works of social action. “Those of us engaged in ‘making history’ especially of marginalized groups who have

limited visibility in the documentary record, need to reflect critically on our role in constructing history and on the power of that history in the present” (Stahl 2004: 52). Reflecting on what my work could lend to the history of Cabin John and African American Maryland history as a whole, I was determined to make sure their history was preserved. As a result, all of the oral interviews conducted with the older living members of the Cabin John African American community have been housed in the Montgomery County Historical Society. The histories of Cabin John’s African American Community, along with the story of Gibson Grove A.M.E. Zion Church and Moses Hall have all gained their place in Cabin John’s history. The Cabin John Association is working on establishing historical status for the Moses Hall cemetery. The community association has also agreed to periodically collaborate with various community groups to clean the cemetery. Due to the research and archaeological reports, the new congregation has a better understanding of the history of their property and the greater community at large.

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# **FACULTY DEVELOPMENT**

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## **REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

The purpose of this study was to examine faculty development practices at public community colleges. This chapter provides a review of relevant literature, which is divided into three major categories. The literature discussed in the first category examined the historical perspective of faculty development in higher education. The second category is a review of the three theoretical foundations of the components of Gaff's (1975) faculty development model: faculty development, instructional development, and organizational development. The third and final review category explores the scholarship of community college faculty development.

### **FACULTY DEVELOPMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION**

In the 1900s, Harvard University began offering faculty development to support faculty personal development and professional growth, which took shape in the form of sabbaticals to provide release time for respite (Eble & McKeachie, 1985; Schuster & Finklestein, 2006). As such, sabbaticals are considered the earliest form of faculty development in higher education (Sorcinelli, 2006).

Between the end of World War II and the early 1970s, the number of college and university professors tripled (Schuster & Finklestein, 2006). As the number of professors increased, the significance and purpose of faculty development programs were questioned (Eble & McKeachie, 1985). The changes in higher education produced new types of faculty development programs. In 70 years, faculty development programs transitioned from sabbaticals as respite to include a variety of activities and special programs that attempted to improve institutional effectiveness (Alstete, 2000; Eble & McKeachie, 1985; Schuster & Finklestein, 2006).

Researchers observed that the expansion from a focus on sabbaticals to a focus on instruction was done to address the disciplinary expertise and pedagogical skills of faculty (Alstete, 2000; Centra, 1978; Nelsen & Siegel, 1980). According to Nelsen and Siegel (1980), in the early 1970s, American higher education shifted from a focus on students to a focus on faculty. They provided three important factors which drove the change in faculty development: (a) administrators concerned about decline in faculty turnover, (b) student involvement in faculty and teaching, and (c) faculty personal interests. Ten years later Gaff and Simpson (1994) claimed:

At a more conceptual level, faculty development has moved slowly from a fragmented, often misunderstood, and peripheral position to an integrated, better understood, and more centrally located position of importance within the institution. It is on the verge of becoming fully institutionalized in American higher education. (p. 173)

In the changing environment of higher education the premium placed on quality teaching continued to grow, and the need to fully utilize skills and talents of faculty increased (Caldwell & Sorcinelli, 1997, Lail, 2009); hence, researchers sought to identify ways to characterize faculty development in higher education (Amey, 1999; Bergquist & Phillips, 1975a; Centra, 1975; Brancato, 2003; Diamond, 2002; Nelsen & Siegel, 1980; Toombs, 1975).

Sorcinelli (2006) categorized the history of faculty development in higher education by decades which they called “The Five Ages” (p. 2). They proposed that faculty development was a key strategic lever for ensuring institutional quality and supporting institutional change. They observed that within the context of today’s higher education environment, faculty development was essential to both the individual faculty member and the higher education institution as a whole. The authors explained that faculty development is an emerging issue for colleges and universities:

To meet shifting expectation for which they may not be fully prepared faculty may need academic support systems and professional learning opportunities beyond those traditionally offered. Providing institutional support for faculty facing changing contexts and new demands becomes an essential strategic choice. We believe that the contours of change require us to rethink how we approach, organize, and support faculty development. (Sorcinelli, 2006, pp. xvii-xviii)

The “Five Ages” of faculty development serve as a framework to examine historical direction for faculty development. Table 2 displays the basic characteristics of the “Five Ages” of Faculty Development.

Table 1

*“The Five Ages” of Faculty Development*

Years	Category	Change
1950 to 1960s	Age of the Scholar	Few colleges and universities had formal programs aimed at promoting faculty members professional development, and there were few studies of faculty development efforts.

Mid 1960s through 1970s	Age of the Teacher	Foundation support spurred campuses to create faculty development programs.
1980s	Age of the Developer	External funding heightens interest in measuring the outcomes of teaching and faculty development efforts.
1990s	Age of the Learner	Faculty development proposals and recognition were created within education associations, professional societies, and internal consortia.
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Early twenty-first century Age of the Network Faculty developers were charged with task to enhance the purpose of faculty development.		

Source: Sorcinelli et al., 2006

McGriff's (2000) perspective on faculty development was slightly different from Sorcinelli's. McGriff stated, "The key concept to faculty development as a transforming agent of colleges and universities is accepting, understanding, and managing dynamic changes brought about by external an internal factors" (p. 35). Furthermore, he identified four areas that heightened the ongoing need for faculty development in the twenty-first century: (a) the changing socio-demographics of students, (b) faculty and administration, (c) the effect of societal demands for graduates, and (d) the need to adapt technology to meet current instructional practices. Other contemporary researchers, Murray, 1995; Schuster, Wheeler, & Associates, 1990, have found that faculty development has been on the higher education scene for several decades; however, its impact in the classroom is not readily apparent (Murray, 1999, para. 2).

### **Theoretical Underpinnings of Faculty Development Practices**

Simply describing the many sources of faculty development does not fully convey the scope of the program goals or complexity of the decisions why institutions of higher education design, develop, and deliver faculty development programs. Knowledge of the theoretical underpinnings of faculty development programs provides support for program goals and purposes of faculty development practices at community colleges.

Over the past 30 years, researchers have offered several theoretical frameworks for the nature and scope of faculty development in higher education (Bergquist & Phillips, 1975b; Diamond, 2002; Gaff, 1975; Sorcinelli, 2006; Sprouse et al. 2008). These researchers found that faculty development, instructional development, and organizational development are the major theoretical frameworks that guide faculty development practices. Millis (1994) explained:

Faculty development can take many guises. Distinctions have traditionally been made between three terms: (a) faculty development (activities such as classroom visits or one-on-one counseling intended to improve the teaching skills of an individual faculty member); (b) instructional development (activities such as media support or curriculum design focused on the student, the course, or the curriculum); and (c) organizational development (activities such as campus wide retreats intended to improve institutional resources or climate). In practice,

however, these definitions overlap, and virtually all activities affect the individual faculty member. (p. 454)

### **Faculty Development**

The theoretical perspective of faculty development is rooted in human development (Gaff, 1975; McAfee, 2008; Merriam & Clark, 2006). According to Knowles (1990), adults in all professions have an internal desire for continued learning. He observed that adult learners are self-directed, and adults are motivated to learn as they experience needs and interests.

Community colleges respond to the long-term, ongoing training needs of their faculty by offering program and services to promote faculty growth (Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Rouseff-Baker, 2002; Sydnor, 2000; Welch, 2002). Gaff (1975) said, "Substantial numbers of faculty will accept when offered opportunities to improve personal development" (p. 17). There are many programs offered at community colleges in which faculty can receive training. Watts and Hammons (2002) stated "A key challenge for faculty developers is to recognize that professional development should be to improve the faculty individual performance by focusing on the whole individual and not just the part that relates to his or her job" (p. 25).

Diamond (2002) identified four major outcomes of faculty development: (a) demonstration of the institutions' concern for the individual; (b) improvement in the productivity of individual faculty members through improvement of their teaching effectiveness; (c) facilitation of focused change with more emphasis on what students learn and less on what the faculty member covers; and (d) improvement of faculty attitudes toward teaching. Although it is important to focus on the development of the individual faculty, it is equally important for community colleges to recognize the important role that instruction plays in meeting the learning needs of a diverse student population (Barr & Tagg, 1995; Lail, 2009; McClenney, 2004; McPhail & McPhail, 1999; Mueller, 1991).

### **Instructional Development**

According to Merriam et al. (2007), instructional development is anchored in learning theory. Hill (2002) advanced the notion that learning theories have two major values: (a) language and conceptual frameworks to interpret and explain the learning that takes place and (b) frameworks to look for solutions to problems associated with learning. O'Banion (1973) noted the formal preparation of community college faculty appeared to be a missing link in the community college. He critiqued that these programs were "grossly inadequate" and taught by "narrow, subject-matter specialists" (p. 84). O'Banion's critique is supported by community college scholars who have suggested that instruction can be improved by creating faculty development programs to assist faculty in developing new teaching skills and strategies (Burnstad, 1994; McAfee, 2008; Murray, 2002; Van Ast, 1999). Gaff (1975) concluded, "If faculty development focuses on faculty, instructional development focuses on the conditions of learning, particularly courses and curricula" (p. 10). He defined instructional development as "the systematic and continuous application of learning principles and educational technology to develop the most effective and efficient learning experiences of students" (p. 47).

The POD Network (2007) depicted instructional development as a three-pronged approach for improving instruction. Based on their framework, instructional development focused on the course, the curriculum, and student learning. In this context, instructional development is different from faculty development in that the intent is to engage faculty in redesigning and developing curriculum and identifying new teaching strategies (POD Network, 2007, para. 1). The intent behind instructional development is to encourage faculty to work together to advance instructional accountability and institutional goals (Murray, 2002; POD Network, 2007).

America is undergoing an economic, political, and social revolution that will require transformation in traditional educational delivery systems at community colleges (Bailey & Smith, 2006). This transformation includes changes in the way community college faculty teach and the way students learn (Carter, 1998; Cox, 2009; McGriff, 2001). Previous studies have indicated that the traditional graduate school program curriculum does not adequately prepare individuals to pedagogically respond as faculty to the teaching and learning challenges brought on by the open-door policy and mission of the community college (Amey, 1999; Austin, 2002a, 2002b; Lail, 2009; Pollard, 2005; Sprouse et al. 2008). Faculty and administrators generally concur that understanding what and how faculty are teaching can strengthen the community college mission (Gaff, 2007; McPhail & McPhail, 2006; Townsend & Twombly, 2007). With demands on community college faculty to be accountable for student success, there is also increased pressure to improve teaching practices at community colleges (Bragg, Kim, Barnett, 2006; Cambridge, 2005; Hunt, 1993; Miles & Wilson, 2004; Romano, Gallagher, & Shugart, 2010; Simpson, 2002; Syed & Mock, 2008). Developing a cadre of professionally trained faculty for their new roles and responsibilities in the community college classroom requires ongoing faculty development (Austin, 2002a, 2002b; Cambridge, 2002; Smith, 2007). In review of the changing roles of faculty and the changing and increasing diversity of student populations at community colleges, it is apparent that classroom practices must adapt to the varied interests and learning styles of students to improve student learning outcomes (Syed & Mock, 2008).

Amey (1999) argued that because faculty must use different teaching and learning approaches to meet the needs of today's diverse learners, instructional development is a key component of faculty development practices. For example, faculty must determine ways to improve instruction through the use of technology (Amey, 1999; Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Floyd, 2003; Foote, 1997; Keengwe, Kidd, & Kyei-Blankson, 2009; Medlin, 2001; Waiwaiole & Noonan-Terry, 2008). According to these scholars, faculty must be provided avenues to explore and integrate the newest technologies into their courses. In addition, Cohen and Brawer (2008) identified instructional media training as a current practice in instructional development for assisting faculty to meet the needs of the nontraditional classroom environment. Medlin (2001) contended that strategies to enhance instructional development practices with the use of technology will continue to plague higher education, as institutions struggle to answer the question, *How do institutions develop course materials inclusive of the needs of the current diverse student population?* The answer to faculty resistance to the adoption and integration of technology into lectures continues to be an ongoing discussion of faculty developers (Keengwe, Kidd, & Kyei-Blankson, 2008; McGriff, 2001).

## **Organizational Development**

Organizational development is derived from organizational theory (Priem & Rosenstein, 2000). According to Jones (2004), organizational theory describes how a company operates in the environment (i.e., self-impact) and how the environment affects the company's operational agenda. French and Bell (1990) proposed that organizational development transitions over a period of time. Murray (2002) observed that some faculty development programs have made little progress in connecting their organizational development program goals to the community college mission. Priem and Rosenstein (2000) called for creating an effective institutional atmosphere in which faculty and faculty development personnel jointly link the mission to faculty development practices. Moore (1997) found that there was little evidence that faculty development programs were a major instrument for institutional change or improvement that was linked to the accomplishment factors that are consistent with the college mission and goals.

Organizational development strategies can be beneficial toward the enhancement of faculty development programs at community colleges. Although virtually every community college has some mechanism in place that might be called faculty development, the program goals and purposes vary widely in type and resources (O'Banion, 1994). Murray (2002) stated, "The most common thread running through the literature is that most faculty development programs lack goals—especially goals that are tied to the institutional mission" (p. 91). To date, the literature suggests that much of the efforts to promote faculty development have targeted the personal and professional growth of faculty, but such programs fall short, because they do not connect these programs to organizational development strategies (Laursen & Roueche, 2009; McAlpine, Amundsen, Clement, & Light, 2009).

## **The American Community College**

According to Cohen and Brawer (2008), one of the strengths of the American higher education system is the community college, defined as "any institution regionally accredited to award the Associate's degree in Arts or the Associate's degree in Science as its highest degree" (p. 5). The origin of the American community college dates back to Joliet College, in 1901. William Rainey Harper, president of the University of Chicago, is credited with creating the first two-year college in America in response to the increasing number of underprepared students who were entering higher education (Deegan & Tillery, 1985; Piland & Wolf, 2003; Vaughan, 2000).

In 1947, a seminal report from President Truman's Commission on Higher Education recommended that a network of low-cost, public, comprehensive two-year colleges be established (Boggs & Carter, 1994; Quigley & Bailey, 2003). This landmark report identified the role for community colleges in higher education. Quigley and Bailey (2003) indicated that the Truman Commission Report reexamined the higher education system, recommending the removal of any barriers to attaining a college education, such as denying admission based on race or sex. They suggest that the Truman Commission Report led to the open-door policy of the American community college and provided access to all those seeking admission to public colleges. Miller, Finley, and Vancko (2000) contended that the report was integral to the development of the community college, as a segment of the U.S higher education system. In a

short period of time, community colleges became a dynamic force by making significant contributions toward meeting the needs of diverse student populations within local communities (Quigley & Bailey, 2003).

According to the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC, 2008a), there are over 1,173 two-year colleges in the U.S., 987 of which are considered to be public institutions. Within the U.S., most urban, rural, or suburban residents have a community college, branch campus, or extension center that is an hour's drive or less from their homes (AACC, 2008a). Katinsas (2003) stated, "Community colleges have distinct characteristics that vary based on control, type, and location which tell a unique story of the significant contribution that community colleges make to the American Higher Education system" (p. 7). Hardy and Katinsas (2006) posited that a classification system for two-year institutions provided a way for community colleges to demonstrate their diversity in enrollment and location.

With community colleges' open-door mission and their location in local communities, there are major differences between community colleges and four-year colleges and universities. Dougherty (1994) explained the difference between community colleges and four-year colleges and universities this way:

Several key features of community colleges apparently lead them to provide greater access to college than do four-year colleges. Typically, community colleges are closer by, whereas many four-year colleges are located in distant rural areas. They are cheaper to attend, if only because they are commuter schools. And because of their open-door admissions ideal, they are more willing to take non-traditional students: high school dropouts, the academically deficient, vocational aspirants, and adults interested in leisure education. (p. 35)

As the mission of the community college changes and adapts, so too should community college faculty have opportunities to change and adapt their approaches to teaching (Sell, 1982). Further, faculty development can help provide training opportunities for faculty renewal, while simultaneously meeting demands of accountability and fostering curriculum and instructional innovation (Sell, 1982). The unique mission and evolution of the community college provides an essential context to better understand faculty development practices in that setting (Grant & Keim, 2002).

### **Faculty Development at Community Colleges**

The response to the need for faculty development at community colleges began in the 1970s (Murray, 1999; O'Banion, 1973; Watts & Hammons, 2002). Cohen and Brawer (2008) indicated that the demand for in-service training reached its peak in the 1970s as the expansion of community colleges subsided. Many scholars have expressed several viewpoints about how community colleges have responded to the need for faculty development. In 1995, Murray surveyed faculty development at Ohio community colleges to examine the relation, if any,

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between professional development and reward structures. He later replicated the same study for

community colleges in the State of New York in 1998. In 2002, Murray expanded his study to include a broader population of public community colleges. Hasting-Taylor (2006) conducted a study to assess the goals and influences, challenges, of faculty development practices at Wisconsin community and technical colleges.

O'Banion (1981) wrote that the purview of faculty development expanded from just a focus on instruction to a focus on organizational development. Watts and Hammons (2002) argued that the overall effectiveness of community colleges could be enhanced through its faculty development programs. Fugate and Amey (2000) contended that a change in the increased diversity of students entering community colleges called for new instructional practices tailored to meet the needs of the ever increasing student populations. These findings suggest that demographic changes were factors contributing to increased attention to faculty development.

According to Watts and Hammons (2002) faculty development at the community college became crucial as this sector of higher education was faced with challenges of public accountability, teaching high risk students, changes in institutional governance, and the need for faculty to embrace technology to improve their instructional strategies. Moreover, Watts and Hammons's (2002) observations about faculty development practices was expressed this way, "No singular event heralded the start of the movement; it simply developed out of the rapid growth that community colleges were experiencing at the time" (p. 5). Wesley (2005) cited several factors that contributed to the need for faculty development at community colleges: (a) the graying factor (b) need for enhanced technological skills, (c) heterogeneity and under preparedness of students, and (d) a shift in pedagogy practices.

By their history and tradition, community colleges are committed to serving a broad range of students of all races and typically have support programs to help these students (AACC, 2010; Cox, 2009; McClenney, 2004; Rendon & Valadez, 1994; Townsend & Twombly, 2007). Trained and talented faculty members have played a major role in the college's ability to respond to students' needs (Austin, 2002a). More than in the past, some scholars argue that expanding the role of faculty development is not optional for community colleges, but integral in the overall development of faculty to meet the needs of a diverse student population, and contribute to institutional effectiveness (Community College Survey of Student Engagement [CCCSE], 201; Grant & Keim, 2002; Murray, 2000, 2002).

### **FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE FACULTY DEVELOPMENT**

Several contributing factors (e.g., mission, diverse student populations, and the changing role of community college faculty) propelled faculty development into the forefront of a nationwide discussion among community college educators (Barr & Tagg; 1995; Bellanca, 2002; Bettinger, & Long, 2009; Bragg, Kim, Barnett, 2006; Eddy & Beach, 2005; Grant & Keim, 2005; McPhail & McPhail, 2006; Murray, 2002; O'Banion, 1981, 2003; Toombs, 1975; Wallin & Smith, 2005). These forces influenced the current process of teaching and framed the key basis for designing and implementing faculty development.

First, it is evident that the mission of the community college is expanding. If the mission of the community college shapes the programs and services of the institutions, then community colleges may want to better understand the need and impact for faculty development to assist faculty in individual professional growth (Alfano, 1994; Grant & Keim, 2002; McPhail & McPhail, 2006; Murray, 2002; Wallin & Smith, 2005; Watson, 2005). Faculty development activities may ensure that faculty remain current in their disciplines and create an effective environment for faculty to remain aware of institutional policies and procedures (Grant & Keim, 2002; Oromaner, 1998). Murray (2002) postulated that community colleges must connect faculty development to the mission of the community college. Murray stated:

The menu of choices should be tied directly to the institutional mission. Faculty should be allowed to select from a menu of activities that meet their goals and the institutional goals. In this way, both the institutions and faculty can grow in ways that ultimately benefit the students they serve. (p. 92)

Grant and Keim (2002) argued for the development of a comprehensive approach to faculty development: “In essence, if community colleges are to recruit and retain quality faculty, a formal, comprehensive development program to orient, enculturate, renew, and develop all faculty is crucial to the success of institutional missions and individual faculty goals” (p. 805). In other words, faculty development has emerged as an important issue in the community college. Alfano (1994) posited:

Community colleges currently face some the most difficult challenges in their history. Increases in student enrollment, budgets and heavy workloads, have created tremendous pressures on the faculty, staff, and administrators of community colleges. Faculty and staff development projects are sometimes the only avenue to relieve pressures by allowing community college faculty to link with professional colleagues, to modify and improve instructional material and delivery, and to keep the spark of creativity and enthusiasm alive for themselves and their students. (Summary, para. 1)

Second, the ever-increasing diversity of the student population at community colleges has brought an unprecedented number of nontraditional students to their doors (McClenney, 2004; Miller, Finley, & Vancko, 2000; Murray, 1999; Kim, 2002; Townsend & Twombly, 2007). Due to the increase in student diversity, the contemporary community college now enrolls many students who are underprepared for college level courses (Berg, 1999; Bettinger & Long, 2009; Cox, 2009; McClenney, 2004). Although many community college educators are very proud of the open-door policy, established by the Truman Commission Report of 1947, today the open-door mission brings new and different challenges to teaching a non-traditional student population (Bueschel & Venezia, 2006; Brown, 2003; Gerardi, 1990; Levin, 2004; McPhail & McPhail, 1999; Murray, 1999; Rendon & Valadez, 1994; Sanchez, 2000).

Record numbers of first-year students at public community colleges are required to take remedial courses (Cox, 2009; Shults, 2000; Wright, 1985; Young, 2002). For example, Gilroy (2010)

found that 63% of first-year community college students enroll in remedial education courses. Rendon and Valdez (1994) and Miller and Kissinger (2007) observed that diverse student demographics challenges community colleges to provide programs and services that incorporate the diverse learning styles of students. Sanchez (2000) posited that the current composition of the community college student body is represented by increased numbers of minority students, English as Second Language (ESL) students, immigrants, and first-generation students. This change will require that the teaching environment for community college faculty must adapt to meet their needs (Cox, 2009; Lail, 2005; Van Ast, 1999).

The student demographics have not only changed the faces inside the classrooms, but these demographics have also placed a different set of faculty and institutional expectations on community colleges (Chen, 2009; CCCSE, 2010; Kiefer, 1997; Outcalt, 2000; Waiwaiole & Noonan-Terry, 2008; Windham, & O., 1996). In describing the contemporary community college Quigley and Bailey (2003) noted:

After several decades of growth, community colleges now face a particularly challenging environment. All of the following factors are threatening established patterns of community college-activities and potentially altering the role of the college within the wider landscape of higher education: changes in pedagogic and production technology, state funding policies, the expectation of students, parents, policymaking, demographic trends, and the growth of new types of educational institutions and providers. (p. 70)

Laursen and Rocque (2009) claimed that faculty development can address first-and second-tier needs of the learner by providing opportunities for ongoing career and professional growth for faculty. Faculty development shows significant promise as a means to improve student success as a response to calls for increased accountability at community colleges (CCCSE, 2010; DiazLefebvre, 2006; Laanan, 2002; Judd, 2006. Given the increased attention to faculty engagement and outcomes assessment at community colleges, faculty development may even help community colleges attract resources necessary to promote higher levels of student success (Laanan, 2001; Layne, Fryod, Simpson, Caso & Merton, 2004; Rendon & Valdez, 1994). Despite the recent interest in faculty development programs, some researchers found that pedagogical changes in programs and practices have not been sustained (Diamond, 2002; Gillespie et al. 2002).

Third, few community college faculty have been trained to teach at the college level (Fugate & Amey, 1999; Lail, 2009; Sprouse et al. 2008). Fewer yet have been formally engaged in curriculum development; consequently, community colleges have found it necessary to implement faculty development to address changes in instructional delivery modalities (Amey, 2000; Cross, 1986; Rafkin, 2000). Schrum et al. (2005) noted that faculty development can be a means to assist faculty in remaining current in their discipline to meet the diverse needs of students at the community college.

According to Murray (1999), community college faculty are faced with many instructional and

organizational challenges, but none more difficult than tailoring instructional pedagogy to a diverse student population with individuals from different ethnic, cultural, socioeconomic, and academic backgrounds. Twombly (2004) raised a similar argument by suggesting that community college faculty are challenged to provide instruction for an increasingly diverse student population with broader ranges of academic preparation. Although this diversity is welcomed by the community college, diversity sometimes creates a unique pedagogical challenge for community college faculty (Mueller, 1991; Murray, 1999; Waiwaiole & Noonan-Terry, 2008; Young, 2008). Twombly (2004) provided the rationale that a community college faculty must employ flexible and creative teaching methods to reach the diverse learning styles and interests of its students. In addition, she argued that internal and external demands are required major changes in the community college curriculum.

Many community colleges are responding to the calls for curriculum redesign, by providing a wide range of faculty development programs, such as the Professional Development Program for New Faculty (PDP-NF) at Montgomery College in Maryland. These three-session workshops provide professional development activities in the topical areas, such as infusing technology and curriculum, assessment, classroom management, culturally responsive pedagogy, and adult learning models (M. Newman, personal communication, September 27, 2010). Stern (2003) highlighted the online faculty development program offered at Valencia Community College in Florida, where asynchronous online format captures the participation of full-time and part-time faculty. She explained that an online option for faculty development activities provides a flexible schedule for faculty to enhance their pedagogical skills. According to Smith (2007) faculty development program at North Shore Community College, provides a range of faculty development activities linked monthly two-hour faculty/staff meetings. Ongoing faculty development activities sponsored by individual colleges are frequently viewed as a means to help faculty, especially full-time faculty—become more effective teachers (McElhany, 2007; Townsend & Twombly, 2007).

It is essential that community colleges undertake aggressive efforts to ensure that qualified faculty development coordinators are in place to design, implement, and evaluate faculty development programs (Lieberman, & Guskin, 2003). The literature suggests that at many community colleges, faculty development is left in the hands of senior level academic administrators (Murray, 1998; Nwagwu, 1998; Sorcinelli, 2006; Sydow, 2000).

### **FACULTY DEVELOPMENT COORDINATORS**

Cohen and Brawer (2008) claimed that the greatest need in the area of faculty development was for faculty to emerge as specialists in the areas of curriculum development and assessment. Their hunch was that these leaders would come from within the ranks of practicing instructors. They stated, “Few individuals [faculty developers] with those instructional skills can be expected to appear as new employees” (p. 457). Gaff and Simpson (1994) emphasized that typically faculty development coordinators were drawn from a pool of faculty who took on the assignment in addition to maintaining their teaching role. More specifically, Nwagwu (1998) and Sydow (2000) indicated that faculty development coordinators serve dual roles—that of faculty developer and that of senior-level administrator. Contemporary researchers (Murray, 1998; Nwagwu, 1998;

Sydow, 2000) considered faculty development to be more effective when chief academic officers or deans of instruction are involved.

Lieberman and Guskin (2003) argued that as the role of faculty changes the role of faculty developers' changes as well. They noted:

Much like librarians, faculty developers will have to shift their thinking from being providers of good and important technical services to professionals whose work is critical for the transformation of the institution . . . To accomplish these critical functions faculty developers must perceive themselves as change agents. Rather than directing support activities to individual faculty, faculty developers will also need to take responsibility for supporting administrators and faculty leaders, who have some sense that significant change is needed, by providing access to new conceptions of educating students, new institutional forms to enable them to occur, and the change process needed to accomplish both. (p. 263)

Hopple (1991) examined the effectiveness of professional development at community colleges. Hopple found that 45% of 281 reporting community colleges and 34% of 156 reporting technical colleges indicated the title of faculty developer varied and fell under the auspices of development coordinator, director, or development committee which reported to the chief instructional officer. Grant and Keim (2002) in their investigation, *Faculty Development in Publicly Supported TwoYear Colleges*, found that at least 52% of faculty development coordinators were senior-level administrators.

The findings from the Sorcinelli's (2006) study revealed that 60% of the study's participants reported that they served in dual roles of director and faculty member. They explained:

It is not unusual for individuals responsible for faculty development at their institutions to hold more than one position. Those with faculty status as well as an administrative title may be perceived as more credible on issues of teaching and learning because of their direct involvement in the classroom. (p. 32)

Watts and Hammonds (2002) suggested that the length of service of faculty development coordinators was typically two or three years; however, they argued that the length of service of a faculty development coordinator is not as important as the instructional and organizational skill sets to implement change. Most recently, Eddy and Beach (2005) examined the length of service of faculty developers, which they divided into three categories: (a) new professionals (i.e., less than four years); (b) established developers (i.e., four to nine years); and (c) experienced professionals with over 10 years in the field. The gaps continue to exist in the literature pertaining to the exact number of year's faculty development coordinators were employed in their position and the impact that the number of years as a coordinator has on faculty development programs and services at their institutions.

Watts and Hammons (2002) stated:

The coordinator of professional development whether full time or part time, is obviously a key person in the success of the program and should be selected with certain skills and attributes in mind . . . He or she should also have a nonthreatening personality, an understanding of adult learning, and some training or expertise in human relations, group process, instructional design, organizational development, and strategies for implementing change. (p. 9)

Graf, Albright, and Wheeler (1992) listed seven abilities faculty development coordinators should possess to be effective. They included these abilities: (a) to engage in needs assessment activities; (b) to design and develop strategies that promote individual, pedagogical, curricular, and organizational growth; (c) to organize and implement specific programs, projects, and studies; (d) to plan and deliver oral presentations; (e) to conduct research about teaching and learning and the evaluation of instruction; (f) to produce print and non-print communications; and (g) to establish and maintain consulting relationships.

### **FACULTY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM BUDGETS**

When Roueche and Roueche (1993) examined funding for faculty development programs their research revealed that funding to support faculty development remains one of the least prominent budget items at the majority of higher education institutions. The authors stated, “It is clear that faculty development has not been featured prominently in the budgets of the majority of American colleges and universities” (p.114). McClenney’s (2007) study, *Faculty development getting results*, indicated that adequate funding was crucial for the sustainability of faculty development programs. McClenney’s comments echoed Eison and Sorcinelli’s (1999) observation that applying for grants for faculty development efforts is both timely and competitive. Sorcinelli (2002) expressed ideas about funding and teaching learning centers. She stated the following:

A related issue that merits discussion is funding for the center...while centers can get started with modest funding (I opened the Center for Teaching with an operating budget of \$5,000), improving teaching costs [*sic*] money. Funds for orientations, conferences, teaching technologies, faculty release time, and outside speakers can quickly add up . . . We find that funds readily come our way if we continually build a track record of quality programming in areas that are deemed important by students, faculty, and academic leaders. (p. 17)

Grant and Keim (2002) found that faculty development programs appear to be reasonably wellfunded. Their findings indicated that more than 90% of two-year colleges received financial support for faculty development from multiple funding sources, including state funds, grants, and local budgets. Forty-three percent allocated more than 1% of their total budget on faculty development (Grant & Keim, 2002, p. 803). Funding to support faculty development continues to be an ongoing discussion in higher education (Sorcinelli, 2006).

## FACULTY DEVELOPMENT MODELS AND COMPONENTS

A variety of faculty development models have been proposed over the years (Bergquist & Phillips, 1975a, 1975b; Cohen & Brawer, 2008; Murray, 2002; Stern, 2003; Wach, 2007). Bergquist and Phillips (1975a) were among the first to offer some conceptual ideas about faculty development. Their model delineated three components of faculty development: (a) instructional development, (b) personal development, and (c) organizational development. The authors reported that instructional development was a primary dimension, and personal and organizational development together constituted a secondary dimension. During the past several decades, faculty development programs at community colleges have taken the form of several different models. In addition, Brown, Hugstad, and Hugstad (1991) highlighted seven key faculty development program attributes. They suggest an effective faculty development program must be educational, comprehensive, goal-oriented, flexible, varied in approaches, linked with personnel, and continuous.

Cranton's (1996) perspective of faculty development models was different from the Brown, Hugstad, and Hugstad's (1991) model. Cranton stated, "Faculty or professional development must include reflective practice to guide the educator along a path to insightful decision making" (p. 25). Cranton further proposed that classroom action research projects and collaboration across disciplines were critical elements of faculty development activities.

Sides-Gonzales and Byrd's (2002) study *Pathways to Excellence* examined the goals of faculty development programs at community colleges using four distinct components: (a) teaching and learning, (b) technical skill-building, (c) leadership development, and (d) personal growth. They concluded that the overall goal was to provide an in-service faculty development program with a venue for employee growth and achievement.

Schrum et al. (2005) explored the benefits of online faculty development training models for community college faculty. They pointed out that faculty development models, with an online option, may motivate faculty and increase faculty participation. Fulton, Noonan, and Dorris (2004) conducted a study to identify the effectiveness of a web-based faculty development module. Based on their contention, web-based learning existed not just to meet the needs of students, but also to facilitate pedagogical strategies for faculty. They concluded:

Web-mediated professional development is pedagogically promising in that faculty can work together to explore issues over time, access internet resources, observe and participate in mentors' and peers' virtual classrooms, and work with international experts. Participants can be more active and more reflective in conversations, which is helpful to all and especially significant for new or introspective staff members. (para. 2)

The researchers observed that online faculty development can be both inexpensive and effective as it meets a faculty's needs at times and locations that are convenient for participants (Summary, para. 3).

## Faculty Development Activities

It is clear that until the most recent decade, faculty development was synonymous with in-service workshops for individual teachers to enhance personal interests (Cohen & Brawer, 2008). Gaff and Simpson (1994) argued that one of the main reasons for in-service activities was to upgrade each participant’s knowledge about the curriculum and to study the psychology of her or his teaching and counseling skills. In examining the reasons faculty attend professional development programs, Schmuck and Runkel (1994) noted that faculty chose the workshops they wished to attend and went to them as free agents in search of professional development. Roueche, Roueche, and Milron (1993) identified faculty development activities as “activities (e.g., regularly scheduled formal and informal interactive events, and independent reading) that should be continuous throughout the academic year for all faculty” (p. 116). In addition the authors suggested that “for faculty development efforts to be effective, there must be ‘something in it for faculty’—that is, there must be mechanisms by which faculty are motivated by, involved in, and enthusiastic about their effort” (Roueche, Roueche, & Milron, 1993, p. 117).

Millis (1994) offered a narrower view of faculty development by proposing that faculty development efforts should be coordinated by faculty and should not include activities for entire staff and administrators. He advised a faculty development approach could include faculty newsletters, faculty discussion groups, individual consultation opportunities, workshops or seminars, mentoring programs, classroom observations, career counseling, research assistance, and sabbaticals. Grubb and associates (1999) maintained faculty is most concerned about faculty development activities which benefit faculty personal growth. In contrast, Diamond (2002) pointed out that faculty development activities can expand from just focusing on faculty personal interests to include instructional and organizational development activities. Moreover, Diamond noted that faculty development should also focus on improving the teaching skills of individual faculty and not limited to his or her personal growth. Diamond (2002), developed a model gleaned from the POD Network (2007) to identify the content of faculty development areas that focus on personal growth, instructional development activities, and organizational development activities (see Table 3). Table 3 illustrates Diamond’s model of faculty development, instructional development, and organizational development activities.

Table 2

### *Faculty, Instructional, and Organizational Development Activities*

Faculty Development Activities	Instructional Development Activities	Organizational Development Activities
classroom visits by professional development staff	course and curriculum design	workshops and seminars

personal consultation	implementation an evaluation	individual consultation with administrators and faculty members
workshops and seminars	incorporation of information and educational technologies into coursework	use of video to analyze teaching styles and techniques

Source: Diamond, 2002

Chism, Lees, and Evenbeck (2002) determined that faculty development has not risen to the forefront of priorities at community colleges as a necessary requirement for faculty. They concluded:

Effective faculty development involves working with the natural cycle of teaching change that characterizes faculty growth. Through providing activities, support, challenges, and resources at critical intervals, facilitators of faculty development can maximize their potential to foster change . . . When faculty development is successful in this way; informed innovation in teaching becomes part of the fabric of the institution. (Summary section, para.1)

### **CHALLENGES FOR FACULTY MEMBERS AND FACULTY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS**

According to the findings from the Sorcinelli (2006) study, challenges facing faculty and faculty development programs included, balancing multiple roles, changing faculty roles, and studentcentered teaching at all institutional types, with the exception of community colleges, who indicated that teaching underprepared students was the top challenge facing faculty and faculty development programs.

Brancato (2003) noted that higher education has faced numerous challenges, resulting in a sense of unpredictability and uncertainty among educators, and these challenges ultimately pressure institutions to address the demands of students, society, and organizations. The author said, “Faculty is challenged to confront demands and reflect on their current practices, knowledge, and skills to enhance students’ learning” (p. 24). Wetherill, Burton, Calhoun, and Thomas (2002) identified similar challenges in reference to teaching and learning, stating, “A critical challenge to improving the quality of teaching and student performance outcomes is to reconsider how faculty are initially trained and provided opportunities for professional renewal and retooling throughout their career” (p. 54).

Stolzenberg (2002) indicated that community colleges are challenged with identifying faculty development activities on an ongoing basis. Over 25 years ago, Eash and Lane (1985) reported in their overview, *Evaluation of a model of faculty development: Implications for educational policy*, that one major challenge of faculty development was identifying a means to motivate faculty to attend and participate. In addition, the authors outlined four additional challenges that hinder the ongoing daily operations of faculty development activities:

- a socialized professoriate that has fixed attitudes of performance expectations and responsibilities;
- weak program planning systems of the responsible academic administrators, which are haphazard and short ranged;
- lack of development capital and fiscal incentives for programs; and resistance of traditional structure (e.g., departments and colleges) to overall academic planning. (p. 134)

Eash and Lane's (1985) findings have been supported by contemporary researchers as well. For example, Smith (2007) described several challenges community colleges face when attempting to involve faculty in faculty development. Smith determined that time and resources continued to be significant influencers of faculty development programs. Smith advised the following:

- Faculty workload of five courses plus advising and community service raises questions about when faculty can fit it into their schedules.
- Meeting time is difficult to fit into teaching schedules. Faculty members who must attend a meeting and cannot find someone to cover their course are left with few options.
- Cost to attend conferences can be prohibitive, especially if the college does not reimburse for travel, meals and/or transportation; compensation or stipends for attending a session are not always available, making it impractical for faculty to attend professional development sessions.
- Over the course of a year, there may be multiple opportunities to attend a conference or workshop. Having multiple options and then deciding which session to attend can be complicated and confusing. (p. 35)

Notably, Smith mentioned barriers related to adjunct faculty engagement in faculty development activities; he found that adjunct faculty:

- are not integrated into the life of the college and therefore they are not aware of faculty development offerings;
- may not be on the college e-mail directory or the regular phone system, so it can be difficult to contact them;
- don't receive the college newsletter; and most work full-or part-time in another career, and scheduling sessions can be difficult. (p.25)

Laanan (2001) asserted that simply providing faculty development programs was not enough; community colleges must respond to the call of accountability by implementing strategies for faculty development practices. If the goal is not to simply provide faculty development activities but to facilitate faculty development to promote student success and other institutional effectiveness, it is crucial for community colleges to become more strategic about their faculty development offerings (Bailey, 2003; Watts & Hammons, 2002). For example, what are the goals of faculty development programs? What types of outcomes assessments are assigned to the faculty development programs? Community college faculty development programs can be a

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pivotal force in helping to create ways for faculty to work with students to promote student

success (CCCSE, 2010; Syed & Mojock, 2008). Levine (2004) viewed faculty development programs as a challenge for community colleges. He speculated:

The demand for professional development programs can be expected to soar in an information economy in which the half-life of knowledge is growing shorter and shorter and workers are required to continually upgrade their skills and knowledge. Two-year colleges will be seen as a particularly good source for professional development in technical, vocational, and service fields. Beyond individuals seeking instruction, business, government, and the not-for-profit sector also will ask two-year colleges, which have earned a reputation for social responsiveness and speedy action, to assist them in creating contract programs for their workers. (p. 2)

Grahek (2007) argued for the need to incorporate global pedagogy into the curriculum, especially because accrediting organizations are rapidly transforming the concept of faculty development in higher education by requiring institutions to identify and measure teaching effectiveness; however, Carducci (2002) presented a compelling argument against a *one-size-fits-all* approach to faculty development initiatives, noting that such programs ignored the unique challenges, needs, and goals found among community college faculty members (Conclusion, para. 14). These challenges place pressures on administrators to identify and implement strategies and tactics necessary to make available, promote, and reward successful completion of faculty development opportunities (Murray, 1995).

### **Current Practices and Emergent Directions of Faculty Development Programs**

Recently, faculty development coordinators identified several factors driving change and shaping the future of faculty development. Among the factors noted were developing and sustaining the vitality of all faculty members: newcomers, mid-career, seniors, and part-timers; the increasingly diverse student body (Burnstad, 2002; Lail, 2009; Rendon & Valedes, 1994). Another factor is the changing paradigm for teaching, learning, and scholarly pursuits (Barr & Tagg, 1995; O'Banion, 2003; Van Ast, 1999). Lail (2005) expanded on earlier comments by Barr and Tagg, (1995) and Van Ast, (1999) as discussed in her article, *Are new faculty prepared to teach diverse learner?* She explained:

Yet a major curricular revolution has emerged. We have certainly heard a call for the pivotal shift from teacher-centered instruction to learner-centered learning, which is generating new teaching-learning models. With this call comes urgency—that all community college faculty become as skilled in the detection, identification, and implementation of diverse student-learning styles and challenges as they are in their discipline contents. (p. 32)

O'Banion (1994) identified seven interrelated trends that created opportunities that made the

1990s a promising time for faculty development at community colleges: (a) continuing public and political pressures to improve the quality of higher education, (b) an increasing level of competition for funding, (c) a rise in educational consumerism, (d) changing faculty demographics, growing diversity in the student body, (e) an expanding base of useful, relevant research about college teaching and learning, and (f) a rising level of faculty development expertise.

Fulton, Noonan, and Dorris (2004) observed the literature regarding the role of faculty professional development was clear. They concluded that a quality faculty development program ought to improve a faculty members' ability to (a) facilitate student learning, (b) build a community of education professionals, and (c) help faculty assess their teaching outcomes and their students' learning outcomes. Watts and Hammons (2002) argued that change was a major force in shaping the focus of faculty development. They found the following:

Community colleges are continuing to change in response to community and societal changes and those who lead, teach, and provide support in those colleges will need to continually grow and change as well. Professional development has provided and will continue to provide the necessary programs to meet those growth needs. Although there are challenges and although its form and substance may change, professional development appears to be a permanent fixture in community colleges. (p. 10)

Rouseff-Baker (2002) asserted that ongoing faculty development programs, faculty leadership teams, and a supportive administration will help manage many challenges community colleges faced in the twenty-first century. A later study conducted by McElhany (2007) indicated a widespread concern from faculty regarding the need to embrace web-based course delivery. She suggests faculty are reluctant to teach online. Faculty development can be one venue to provide faculty with strategies to teach on line, as well as to provide a means to train faculty on pedagogical strategies to infuse technology into the lecture.

Gappa, Austin, and Trice (2007) observed that many institutions are taking innovative approaches to faculty development. The authors suggests that a dual access approach, both on and off campus, and allows faculty to participate in faculty development activities that best match their interests and their circumstances. Dusick and Yildirim (2000) noted that an online mode, as well as faceto-face workshops, provides a flexible approach to increase access for faculty to participate in faculty development activities.

### **SUMMARY**

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine faculty development practices at public community colleges. The literature review summarized and explained faculty development in higher education. The chapter summarized the three contemporary theories which undergirded faculty development practices in this study: faculty development, instructional development, and organizational development.

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# POLICE REFORM: WHAT SHOULD BE DONE

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## ABSTRACT

Since the unfortunate deaths of Trayvon Martin, Michael Brown, Eric Garner, Walter Scott, and most recently Freddie Gray, Tamir Rice, and numerous others, America has demanded police reform through protest, civil unrest, and riots as a response to these tragic and unfortunate in custody police homicides. Many students, citizens, politicians, and clergy have since called for police reform and greater accountability. Many argue that Black men have historically and in present times bearded the brunt of police brutality and excessive force as a result of such unconstitutional practices as racial profiling, and law enforcement encounters that lack the 4<sup>th</sup> Amendment requirements to establish reasonable suspicion to stop, and investigate, or probable cause to arrest.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the issues concerning police reform. It will examine who is responsible for police policy, accountability, and the culture of policing over the past several years. Social, economic, and political issues regarding policing will be discussed as well as examined.

**Keywords:** U.S. Constitution, 4<sup>th</sup> Amendment, economics, politics, culture, reasonable, brutality, excessive force, corruption, family, and faith based institutions, education, and social control

## POLICING HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

When should police be able to use deadly force? What should constitute reasonable suspicion or probable cause? What type of individuals should be allowed to become police? How should they police? Should police reflect the community that they serve demographically? Who is responsible for police reforms? These are just some of the questions that have been discussed in legislative chambers, in the media, in churches, our schools, and at community forums. America has not discussed policing with such intensity since the turbulent 1960's during the height of the Vietnam War, Civil Rights Movement and the Due Process Revolution. The 1960's was an important time in the history of the United States for many reasons. Aside from the protest by students against the war in Vietnam on our most visible campuses across this nation in addition to the Flower Child/Hippie and the Black Militant Movements in cities like Chicago, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington DC, Detroit, and Los Angeles, just to name a few. Equally important was decisions

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handed down by the U.S. Supreme Court dealing with primarily, decisions that protected the 13<sup>th</sup> and 14<sup>th</sup> U.S. Constitutional amendment rights of minorities.

Chief among those Supreme Court decisions were Terry v. Ohio and Miranda v. Arizona. These decisions, as well as many others, were important because they affected both citizens and police alike. As with many complaints in the Black community and other Minorities, police were alleged to have subjected them to unreasonable investigatory stops, searches and seizure of property, and seizure pertaining to arrest. During the 1960's and throughout the 70's there have been state and federal laws enacted to ensure that fundamental fairness in the administration of justice is applied equally. However, the question then and now remains, why aren't these state and federal protections enforced? And when they are not, why isn't federal and state officials more vigilant in correcting and ensuring that these protections are taken more seriously? Does the problem rest with the criminal justice system or is the problem more expansive and profound?

### **BALTIMORE'S RICH HISTORY**

Baltimore, Maryland is a United States independent port city founded during the colonial era. It is home of our nation's national anthem "The Star Spangled Banner written by Francis Scott Key" It's the largest independent city in the United States of America. Founded in 1729, Baltimore is the second largest seaport in the Mid-Atlantic region. Historically, Baltimore's Inner Harbor was once the nation's second largest port for incoming immigrants, second only to New York City's Ellis Island. Until the late 1960's Baltimore was once one of the country's largest manufacturing and industrial cities. Baltimore is the home of the world famous research institution, the Johns Hopkins University. It is also the home of such prominent Universities as the University of Maryland, which boast a medical, dental, and law school. It also has one of the world's leading STEM programs, most notably the Bio-Tech program that is a leading program in producing some of the world's most notable scientist and researchers. University of Baltimore, Loyola University, College of Notre Dame, Morgan State University, Coppin State University, Saint Mary's Seminary.

Baltimore is home to the Baltimore Orioles, winner of three World Series (1966, 1970, 1983) and the Ravens Super Bowl Champions (2001, 2012) and was once home to the legendary Colts that went to two Super Bowls and won one in 1971 while in Baltimore (1969 played & lost to New York Jets, 1971 won beat the Dallas Cowboys). The Colts also won two consecutive NFL Championships, (1958-1959). The 1958 championship game against the New York Giants was the first sudden death overtime game ever played in professional football and is regarded by most football historians as the *greatest game ever played*. The city was once home to the Baltimore Bullets of the National Basketball Association (NBA), (that went to the championship game in 1971 and lost to the Milwaukee Bucks), and other major sports franchises.

Baltimore's professional sports teams have produced many Hall of Fame sports legends such as Johnny Unitas, John Mackey, Lenny Moore, Raymond Berry, Willie Lanier, Brooks Robinson, Frank Robinson, Eddie Murray, Cal Ripken, Jr., Jim Palmer, Ray Lewis, Jonathan Ogden, Wes Unseld, Earl Monroe, and many more!

Baltimore has a rich cultural history as well. Producing some of the most noted artist, poets, writers, journalist, and scholars. Native Baltimorean and lifelong city resident HL Mencken is perhaps the most important social critic in our nation's history

### **CURRENT/CONTEMPORARY ISSUES**

The complexity in the answer lies in the fact that police officers are sent into communities across this country every day with a mandate to prevent and control crime. They are ordered to make arrest, conduct stop and frisk on individuals that they believe are about to commit a crime or just engaged in criminal activity, and arrest offenders based on probable cause. Politicians and senior level commanders place great pressure on first line supervisors (Sergeants in many jurisdictions) and mid-level managers (most often Lieutenants and Captains) to produce crime reduction results in communities that have been plagued with abject poverty, dysfunctional schools, poor and absentee parents, and an illicit drug economy. According to politicians and the community, all of the crime problems must be addressed while obeying the U.S. Constitution's Bill of Rights and the road blocks and limitations that the constitution places in front of the police.

However, politicians and many other social agencies rarely look at issues such as depression and abject poverty as the primary cause that leads to other anti-social behaviors and psychological disorders that can account for crime and violence as a way to cope, deal with frustration, and solve problems. In the aftermath of Freddie Gray's police in custody death violence has increased exponentially. Many law enforcement professionals argue that hostility in communities that experience high rates of crime, dysfunctional families, and extreme poverty struggle to control their emotions and express their frustrations through the use of violence, often ending in deadly confrontation (Jackson, 2011).

Given the complexity and the causal factors of crime, are police officers really qualified to effectively deal with crime prevention and control (Albanese, 2013)? First, let's examine the two schools criminological thought. The first school, referred to as the classical school, is rooted in the theoretical view that crime is an exercise of an individual's free will. The second school is the positive school which asserts the theory that crime is rooted in internal and external influences (Albanese, 2013). For example, the classical school asserts that individuals make the rational choice to engage in crime and anti-social behavior absent any other influences. Under the theory of the classical school, poor parenting, poverty, lack of morality, and physical limitations cannot be blamed for criminal acts, the individual who committed the crime is solely responsible based on the person's decision to engage in the behavior. Insanity, disease of the mind or psychological imbalances play no role under this theoretical view (Albanese, 2013).

However, under the positive school of criminology, there are causal factors that can explain crime and its impact on the community. For example, lead based paint that damages the brain of young people often manifest itself in behavioral problems such as Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). Students, particularly Black males are often suspended from school for disruptive behavior when in all actuality they should be diagnosed and treated accordingly so that they may realize their goal to obtain a good education. Absentee parents, particularly fathers, often

contribute to low self-esteem which manifest itself in behavior problems as well. If the criminal justice system is to be transformed in any meaningful or substantial way better education among law enforcement in the social sciences must occur. There have been numerous studies that assert that higher education in law enforcement is a tremendous step towards improving the quality of service in communities that need it most and provides meaningful input in areas such as crime prevention and healthy social control. According to a study conducted by Michaels and J. Higgins (1994), on educational requirements for police officer, the results of their study are as follows: A Meta-analysis of 30 years of studies on educational requirements for police officers has organized the empirical research on the matter. The study revealed that college-educated police officer:

- are less authoritarian and less dogmatic than non-college-educated peers;
- are more likely to use discretion;
- have better verbal and oral communication skills;
- write better reports;
- have more positive feelings about community policing;
- have fewer disciplinary problems;
- take less time off from work;
- get better scores in the police academy;
- do not have as many on-duty automobile accidents;
- are less likely to be assaulted by people they deal with on the job; and
- are less likely to use force to make an arrest or in a confrontation.

### **DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE FINDINGS**

The Department of Justice (DOJ) published a scathing report that outlined many failures in the criminal justice system in Baltimore. The main focus of the report was the policies and practices of the Baltimore Police Department. Police officers were found according to the DOJ to have engaged in unconstitutional stops, searches, and arrest of minority males, in particular African American men (DOJ, 2016). Police argued that they were under immense pressure to prevent crime and to bring those responsible for committing them to justice. Many religious leaders and community groups along with civil rights organizations argue that police tactics were biased, racist, and arbitrary as well as capricious when it came to enforcing the law in Black and Poor communities.

If the Black Community is to ever realize the goal of having fair, effective and legally based police practices they must continue to demand better training for police in the social and behavioral sciences such as psychology and anthropology/sociology. Additionally, they must be exposed to the Humanities such as legitimate and relevant ethics and values training. Cultural Diversity must be an important part of the training especially for entrance level training. The Police Academy must also partner with an institution of higher learning and rigorously recruit from area colleges and universities to get well educated member back among their ranks and encourage higher

education through incentives for officers who have not achieved education beyond a high school diploma.

### COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT

Higher education among Black men in the Baltimore Community has proven to be valuable in reducing the rate of recidivism in many neighborhoods. Using the QUEST model of educational engagement for African American men in Baltimore City has proven to be extremely valuable. Many of the men who participated in the inaugural cohort have gone on to earn bachelors and master's degrees from local colleges and universities. Many of the men were ex-offenders who are now living productive lives and making great contributions to the city.

### CONCLUSION

In order for police reform to occur, there must be community and political reform. Families in east and west Baltimore must be strengthened. Our schools must play a more meaningful role beyond the classroom in the lives of our children, and institutions of faith must be better advocates for change. Then the community can better demand more efficient, effective, and ethical policing in our communities. Social control should be the primary responsibility of *families, faith based institutions, and our schools, not the police, courts, and corrections*. Police reform is societal reform!

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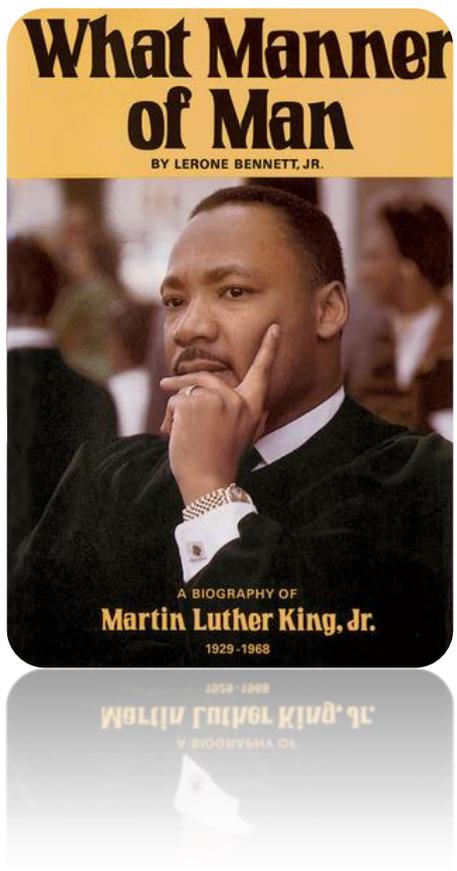
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