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DePaul University

College of Education

Combatting the Drive Deficit: An Exploration of Conative Skill Inclusion in College and

Career Readiness Policy

A Dissertation in Education with a Concentration in Education Leadership

by

Vanessa L. Hein

Doctor of Education

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March 2021

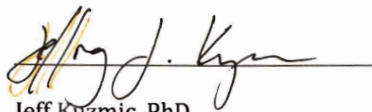
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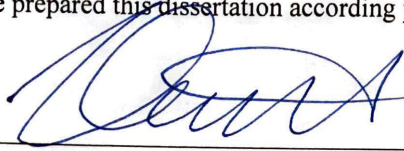
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3.10.20

ABSTRACT

A major area of inquiry, which has persisted throughout the history of public education, is how to best prepare our students for both post-secondary education and future employment through college and career readiness (CCR) initiatives. Much of the foundational knowledge and skills that are included in such standards and policy, rest upon cognitive and affective processes. Equally important is the inclusion of conative skills, which are internally derived and managed by conative processes and include self-awareness (inclusive of culture and identity), self-direction (inclusive of agency and autonomy), and self-management (inclusive of motivation, persistence, and resilience). However, there is also prevalent corporatist agenda embedded within the growing college and career readiness reform effort which seeks to restrict and/or reshape the conative aspects of student development in order to maintain the status quo of social efficiency models of education. In a democratic educational system, students must be proactive agents in both their readiness and success and therefore should be the entities that ultimately determine their goals and pathways toward readiness and success based upon their individual experiences and interpretations. There exists a gap in the research that fully explores the value of conative skills in state-level college and career readiness policy reform, therefore, the purpose of this research is to provide a qualitative case study of a state that constructs policy that is reflective of the needs and capabilities of its people through the inclusion of conative skill development, as evidenced by state level CCR policy, programming and planning. The case study was guided by the following research questions: (1) How do states engage with conative skill development through statewide

College and Career Readiness policy; and (2) Through what means do states reinforce these efforts through additional reactive and proactive state policy, legislation, advocacy, and resources? State level policy text and legislation was analyzed using critical intercultural communication theory to inform critical discourse analysis in order to identify the state of Hawai'i as a model toward which other states may look for guidance when including conative skill development as an integral piece of college and career readiness reform.

Keywords: college and career readiness, conative skills, education policy, corporatism, democratic education, critical intercultural communication theory

Table of Contents

List of Tables.....	viii
Chapter 1: The Exposition	1
Background.....	1
Problem Statement.....	4
Statement of Purpose	4
Research Questions	4
Research Approach.....	4
Positionality.....	5
Rationale and Significance of Study	10
Roadmap.....	10
Chapter 2: Review of the Literature	12
Section One: Corporatism	12
Section Two: The Evolution of College and Career Readiness	30
Section Three: Philosophies and Function of Conation.....	50
Chapter 3: Methodology	68
Overview.....	68
Theoretical Frameworks Guiding the Research and Analysis.....	68
Research Sample.....	75
Research Design.....	76
Considerations.....	84

Case Selection Process	86
Chapter 4: A Case Study of Hawai'i	93
ALOHA!	93
Too Many Cookes in the Kitchen: A Story of Early Resistance	96
A Brief History of CCR Development in Hawai'i.....	100
The Hawaiian Renaissance	108
Formula for CCCR Success in Hawai'i: Policy, Planning, and Partnerships	119
Chapter 5: Discussion.....	138
Conative Themes in Hawaiian K-12 CCR Education Reform.....	140
Reflections on Culture, Communication, and CCCR Education.....	145
Reflections on Corporatism and CCR Reform	148
A Call to Act.....	150
Closing Considerations.....	154
References	156
Appendix A: Glossary of Key Terminology.....	200
Appendix B: Summary Codebook	202

List of Tables

Table 1: Three Content Threads of CCR	48
Table 2: Examples of HOTS and SEL Indicators	62
Table 3: Criteria for Inclusion in the Case Study	75
Table 4: Alignment of Research Questions and Data Elements	76
Table 5: Preliminary Investigation of States	87
Table 6: Eight State CCR Definitions Which Met Initial Criteria for Inclusion	87
Table 7: State P-20 Council Information.....	91
Table 8: Themes in Hawaiian School Laws and Policies Related to Corporatism	107
Table 9: Examples of Hawai'i State-Level General Education Policy and Programming	115
Table 10: Hawai'i Trends in College Enrollment Rates.....	117
Table 11: Number of College Degrees/Certificates Conferred for Native Hawaiians	118
Table 12: Examples of Conative Skills Inclusion in K-12 CCR	123
Table 13: Four Levels of Mo'olelo Approach.....	130
Table 14: Summary of Objectives for Goal One	131
Table 15: Student Success Design Principles	133
Table 16: Examples of My Future Hawai'i Partnerships and Resources.....	135

Chapter 1: The Exposition

Background

A major area of inquiry, which has persisted throughout the history of public education, is how to best prepare our students for life after school. With such a wide variety of stakeholders in educational and workforce outcomes, come an array of conflicting interests where educational policy construction and implementation is concerned. Expectations for what knowledge and skills a student needs to succeed beyond high school in both post-secondary education and the 21st century global marketplace are currently driven by variations on social efficiency ideology and corporatist frameworks. Taken together, students are positioned as both consumers and products of education, rather than proactive agents in their own growth and development as democratic citizens. As a reaction to this tension, and resultant disparities in educational achievement, college and career readiness (CCR) initiatives have increased in popularity among various education and non-education agencies. The purpose of CCR reform is to establish CCR indicators, measures, and outcomes that better align the overarching goals and expectations of the American education system to prepare youth for life after high school.

In our current era of educational reform, these concepts are taxing to define within a swiftly shifting political economic environment. The current era began over a decade ago with prompts in discussions surrounding the re-authorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA) and the need to maintain a competitive position in a rapidly globalizing economy. The Obama administration released the *Blueprint for Reform*, labeling the improvement of the high school to college transition as urgent, with

nearly 40% of entry level college students, in both two-year and four-year institutions, requiring remediated course work (USDOE, 2010a). For the nation to produce an educated and efficient workforce and remain a high-stakes competitor in the 21st century, a more fluent set of college and career readiness and success definitions and standards became mandatory.

Even though academic proficiency continues to suffer in the primary years of schooling for American students (NCES, 2015), high school graduation rates are on the rise (McFarland et al., 2018), so the focus of the CCR reform remains centered on the high school to college transition. This is due to the national and international economic impact our graduating students will have as proactive adult citizens (Rodriguez & Wan, 2010; Swanson, 2008). The enactment of the American Reinvestment and Recovery Act of 2009 (ARRA), and subsequent Race to the Top (RTTT) initiative, stated that the primary action toward national education improvement was to adopt a set of standards that would “prepare students to succeed in college and the workplace and to compete in the global economy” (USDOE, 2010b, p. 3). This piece of legislation was intended to serve as a supplemental federal accountability model by which we could close the remaining gaps causing educational inequity that have been identified in previous legislative actions such as: ESEA, Civil Rights Act of 1964, Goals 2000: Educate America Act (1994), and No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB).

September 2011 legislative meetings encouraged a new understanding of what it means for all students to be both college and career ready, and what is required on behalf of federal and state boards to provide resource equity and support for such broad scaled

change. As former Education Secretary Arne Duncan stated, “We want to get out of the way and give states and districts flexibility to develop locally-tailored solutions to their educational challenges while protecting children and holding schools accountable for better preparing young people for college and careers” (USDOE, 2011, p. 1).

The first step taken in demonstrating such support is the opportunity for states to request an ESEA flexibility waiver¹, which is expected to alleviate many issues set in place by NCLB mandates that are currently obstructing CCR reform efforts (Ayers et al., 2012). Among the expected outcomes for states with waiver approval is the establishment of college and career ready definitions and standards, which align with post-secondary achievement, differentiated accountability systems, more rigorous curricula and improved instruction and leadership. These standards are locally developed and state-articulated post-secondary entrance requirements and post-graduation workforce needs, allowing for a variety of standards to exist. A critical component involved in establishing standards, and related supports and resources, is the development of an operative definition of college and career ready, from which these standards can be derived and measured.

Much of the foundational knowledge and skills that are included in such standards and policy, rest upon cognitive and affective neurobiological processes. However, equally important is the inclusion of conative skills which are knowledge and skills that individual

¹ The US Department of Education has invited state SEAs to request flexibility regarding specific requirements of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB). This is in exchange for rigorous and comprehensive State-developed plans designed to improve educational outcomes for all students, close achievement gaps, increase equity, and improve the quality of instruction (43 States, the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico are approved for ESEA flexibility). Additional information on ESEA waivers can be found at: <http://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/guid/esea-flexibility/index.html>

students bring to the learning process. These skills and knowledge are internally derived and managed by conative processes and include self-awareness (inclusive of culture and identity), self-direction (inclusive of agency and autonomy), and self-management (inclusive of motivation, persistence, and resilience). Although conative skills are positioned as the connective element that bridges cognition and affection in the learning process, they are rarely addressed in state level CCR policy.

Problem Statement

There exists a gap in the research that fully explores the value of conative skills in college and career readiness reform. Likewise, there is little state CCR policy that acknowledges and supports conative skill development in students.

Statement of Purpose

The research purpose is to investigate state social, political, and economic climates that value and prove conducive to the inclusion of conative skills in the broader college and career readiness reform efforts.

Research Questions

1. How do states engage with conative skill development through statewide College and Career Readiness policy?
2. Through what means do states reinforce these efforts through additional reactive and proactive state policy, legislation, advocacy, and resources?

Research Approach

There is a prevalent corporatist agenda consisting of neoliberals, neoconservatives, and new managerials, embedded within the growing college and career readiness reform

effort. This agenda is focused on the attainment of skill sets, which are valuable to industry, military, commerce, and finance, but contribute little to whole-student development over a lifetime. For this reason, the approach that I choose to take is one of a philosophical and political nature and will investigate this phenomenon through a critical lens. I will use Critical Intercultural Communication Theory (CIC) to inform Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) in order to parse out the language used and purposed for CCR policy formulation, implementation, and sustainability. Taken together, the findings will be presented in a case study format to best describe the social, economic, and political environments of the state which proves the most conducive to the inclusion of conative skills as necessary for college and career readiness in students.

Positionality

It has been stated that the production of knowledge is only valid when the process, “takes into account the knower’s specific position in any context, a position always defined by gender, race, class, and other socially significant dimensions”, including salient temporal, spatial, and historical aspects of study contexts (Maher & Tetreault, 2001, p. 22). This process therefore necessitates that researchers are continuously aware of their positionality both within and outside of the research they conduct. It is also important to note that all aspects of a researcher’s identity are indicators of embedded relational positions which researchers adopt in relation to the topic of inquiry, the participants in the study, the context of the study, and the research process.

I am of the mindset that there exists an infinite number of subjective interpretations to any given situation or subject, and I believe that this is so because both reality and truth

are subjective constructs and rest upon the experiences of each individual (Douglas, 1976). In this way, researcher bias, not to be confused with prejudice, can play an active role in designing a holistic and systematic inquiry process from which, multiple realities or truths can be derived and deliberated (Wolcott, 1995). Thus, it is also worth noting that alternative interpretations can also be derived from these analyses.

Harvey (1996) notes that there is great importance in researchers considering both similarities and differences between researcher and subject matter and/or participants. Additionally, Pratt et al. (2007) extend this notion a bit further and assert that difference has productive value in research because it can be used as a means of working with, rather than against, other difference. In order to identify specific influential similarities and differences, the researcher should undergo self-critical, self-conscious introspection into their personal and professional position to the research and subsequent findings through three forms of reflection (Alsop & Ryan, 1996):

1. Prospective reflection: preliminary thinking about research design, planning, and methods.
2. Spective reflection: real-time recording of thoughts and ideas through field notes and journaling.
3. Retrospective reflection: post-research consideration of what could have been done differently.

Keeping these assertions in mind, I submit the following statement of positionality as a brief explanation of who I am, how I came to this research, and why I pursue answers to the research questions posed. Demographically speaking, I am a female, single parent

who comes from a working class, first-generation American, and single parent household. I was raised with standards that supported success through motivation, persistence, and resilience, most often referred to colloquially as the *immigrant work ethic* (Noltemeyer & Bush, 2013). Intrinsic values of knowledge-of-self and critical thought behind action were consistently reinforced as mechanisms for attaining any goal (Phan, 2009). Atop these understandings, stood the concept of audacity and its positive impact on internal development and overall success (Fukuyama & Greenfield, 1983). I was encouraged to question and negotiate authority, to conceive of alternative pathways and means, and above all else to protect and exercise the rights I have been given as an American citizen. Through this collective ideological foundation emerged a strong attraction to the field of anthropology and the principles upon which the discipline acts towards equity and justice, and in the context of American culture, democracy.

Through anthropological pursuits seeking to better understand the reciprocal relationships exhibited between culture and education in the United States, I became involved in educational research driven by a social justice orientation. Overtime, my interest in the culture of American education led me to research historical differences and similarities between American education as a system and product of democratic process and the multitude of cultures that contribute to its existence and evolution (Maseman, 2003). Eventually, a gnawing issue that would not abate came to the forefront during my time researching the topic of college and career readiness- American education policy surrounding college and career readiness does not accurately reflect or consider the needs and capabilities of the American people in whole (Trubowitz, 2017).

These policies largely reflect the standards and values of those in positions of power and gatekeeping, and logically so. Who is better to govern and mold than those who have already done so? However, I propose that this logic is flawed, therefore requiring a more critical examination of the democratic context in which college and career readiness policy is constructed and implemented. More precisely, a closer investigation of the standard skills and knowledge that students need to possess in order to be considered college and career ready is warranted (MDCCC CONNECTS Task Force, 2015).

It is at this point that evidence framing becomes an important discussion. Highly developed conative skills have been linked to record breaking accomplishments by professional athletes, the survival of political and religious refugees, the survivors of natural disasters, and the existence of the familiar *against-all-odds* or *rags-to-riches* stories. Why then have they only received a relatively small amount of trend-driven attention in the field of education? Traditional indicators of college and career readiness have been identified typically through quantitative investigations that delve into the predictive ability of any individual, or combination of, measurable factors to determine readiness. Even though conative skills cannot be systematically or reliably measured, they can be observed and realized through the demonstration of readiness and weighted in relationship to measurable outcomes of success. Additionally, these are skills that cannot be predetermined, replicated, or scaled-up, because they reside within individual students and to varying degrees. Consequently, this creates another obstacle to their inclusion, however it should not necessitate their exclusion.

The ability of students to be ready for college and careers cannot be placed solely in the hands of others who seek to mass-produce an outcome- a globally competitive college educated workforce. In a democratic educational system, students must be proactive agents in both their readiness and success. Therefore, they should also be the entities that ultimately determine their goals and pathways toward readiness and success based upon their individual experiences and interpretations. Those choices and actions should then be supported by policies, not the reverse. College and career readiness policy should seek to support our students through all possible means, not just in ways that can be attributable to the system itself. It is far too often that we conceive of education as an act that happens to students, and far too less do we acknowledge that learning is a cooperative organic process. Students do in fact bring with them skills and knowledge that is internally derived, which in turn deserves fostering, not filtering or redirecting.

I come to this research with a positive belief in the American democratic process in education policymaking, but also with a notion that the concepts of justice and righteousness have been confounded over time and have consequently muddied the waters of democratic practice in education (Biesta, 2015). Through this research, I aim to turn a critical eye toward the ideals and realities of democratic education and governance where college and career readiness is concerned.

The intention of my research is purely based upon the prospect of being able to provide a sound example of a state that constructs policy that is reflective of the needs and capabilities of its people. It is not enough to post-modernistically criticize and deconstruct power and power relationships within the politico-educational sphere. Alone, this process

only highlights what is excluded and what we seek to eliminate. It does not offer a practical counterargument, nor does it provide any sense of resolve. Democracy is neither about exclusion, nor elimination, it is about inclusion and deliberation. This idea will serve as the grounded assumption that will guide my research in hopes to support the evidentiary claim that there does exist holistic and democratic college and career readiness policy-making that states may look to for guidance.

Rationale and Significance of Study

Conative skills are vital to college and career readiness and success. Because they are perceived or more honestly, positioned, as incapable of true measure, they are often rejected by processes dependent on quantification. Subsequently, they are rejected by domains dependent upon those processes, such as: the math/science enterprise, personal finance, commerce, military, and industry. Conative skills are necessary for high school graduates to successfully navigate life, not just entry into post-secondary environments, and should be treated as such in the greater college and career readiness and success reform. The research conducted during this study may be able to support and validate conative skills as the crux of college and career readiness and success. It is expected that findings from this study have the potential to contribute to the discourse and perhaps inform practice surrounding CCR policymaking where conative skill development is concerned.

Roadmap

In the following chapter, there will be a review of the literature on the context of college and career readiness reform, the origins of conation and the applications of

conative skills, as well as an overview of corporatism and the role it plays in educational policy development. Chapter three will outline the proposed methodology for the study. This will include the guiding theoretical frameworks for the study, specific procedures that will be used to gather data, and the methods by which the data will be analyzed, organized and discussed, as well as the case selection process. Chapter four will present the case study of the selected state and chapter five will close with a reflective discussion of findings as they relate back to the broader context of college and career readiness, along with recommendations for future CCR policy construction and implementation.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

Section One: Corporatism

In order to better understand what is driving education reform in the current era, we may refer to the controversial 1983 landmark call for action delivered through the publication of *A Nation at Risk* (Gardner et al., 1983). This served as a vehicle for awakening, but also for the reconfiguration of the way in which we have historically conceived of the purpose and impact of public education. Since the release of *A Nation at Risk*, continuing efforts to gauge and compare our academic, and subsequent economic, progress and standing as a viable international competitor has only brought disappointment. Findings from analyses of the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) data revealed that the US student proficiency in core academic subject areas (math, science, and English language arts) placed us in 21st place out of 30 participating nations in 2006 (OECD, 2007). In more recent years, we have found ourselves in 38th place out of 71 in math and 24th place in science in 2015 (NCES, 2015). To compound the issue further, the disaggregated proficiency data from nationally based standardized tests in primary and secondary school, such as the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), uncovered what we are now referring to as *the achievement gap*, a highly political, inaccurately racialized, economic gap with quite an ill translation into poor academic performance (Barton & Coley, 2010; Bohrnstedt et al., 2015). Analyses of student performance on college entry examinations, such as the ACT or SAT, yielded similar results as those administered in the K-12 system. ACT (2019) reported record lows in their ACT college readiness benchmark scores in math and English for the high school

year graduating class of 2019, and while SAT participation rose in 2019, cumulative scores dropped (College Board, 2019). In general, American students are not prepared for, and struggle to achieve proficiency in proximal level academic work (Song et al., 2019; Venezia & Jaeger, 2013). Collectively, the results of these analyses re-issued the warning sent to us in 1983, and the College and Career Readiness Reform Era began to take shape.

State education agencies (SEAs) are accountable for carrying out reform strategies but are not the sole executives responsible for strategy development. Lesser-known stakeholders in education and employment outcomes such as the Department of Defense, Department of Labor, and Department of Commerce are consistently involved in determining how students successfully complete the school-to-work transition. Congressional committees, lobbyist groups, and highly influential figures within bureaucratic structures can also obstruct or direct democratic policymaking in a variety of ways. Collectively known as The Iron Triangle, these parties can assume and maintain power over policymaking while carrying out their own political agendas, which are often disconnected from the true needs of the education system (Cater, 1964). Improving the college and career readiness of American students is one of the efforts to persistently experience this notorious practice, and is examined through discipline specific research including, but not limited to: political and social sciences, public and governmental policy, economics, education and labor cooperative studies. Other groups interested in shaping educational policy include finance, insurance and real estate sectors, as well as the health and construction sectors of both the House and Senate Committees. Cooperatively, influential figures from these sectors that value efficiency over efficacy and expansion over

development, work together to promulgate free-market capitalism within a democratic public education system.

A more poignant corporatist agenda situated within the larger CCR reform subsists despite competing efforts to improve the overall health and quality of education. This agenda sets out to further stratify the educational and economic systems, and subsequently the socio-political system, into those who know and those who do not, and those who can and those who cannot (Robinson, 2004). Three core practices that drive this reform agenda are: (1) the privatization and capitalization of human value, (2) the industrialization of free will, drive, and ability, and (3) the systematization of limited access to success (Apple, 2006; Hursh, 2007).

There are unquestionable and quite practical relationships exhibited across and between these corporatist groups when it concerns the creation and maintenance of college and career readiness policy. However, historically speaking, corporatist interest and participation is not student-centered. Rather, the favor is placed on utility, production, and the maintenance of politico-economic hierarchy at the macro-level, and socio-economic divides between cultural sub-groups at the micro-level. Hanging in the balance is the future of democratically organized and operated education, which struggles to maintain autonomy from for- and non-profit education management organizations (EMOs) seeking to increase market-orientation, exchange value and ultimately, the role of the private sector in educating the public (Fitz & Beers, 2002; Häyrynen-Alestalo & Peltola, 2006). These patterns of corporate-style action toward educational governance have led many scholars

to believe that, if left unchallenged, the very definition of public education will be lost (Lubienski, 2001).

As seen in the 1980's, as well as in the new millennium, corporatism promotes educational improvement through system-wide accountability reforms focalizing on global competition (Jackson & Cibulka, 1992). Through the institution of 'higher standards' and standardized assessments, corporatism uses centralized control mechanisms to improve student outcomes. This is most often accomplished under the guise of creating seamless systems of policy and support, when command and direction are the more prominent goals (Spillane & Jennings, 1997). The long-term practice of corporatizing American public education denotes a severe distortion of vision regarding the meaning and purpose of democracy, and more specifically, democratic education. This study also intends to identify and comment on common corporatist influences on practice occurring within the broader CCR educational policy making environment that stray from a traditional sense of democratic education in the new *college for all* era of reform. More explicitly, a closer philosophical investigation of the consequences of corporatist impact on student development will be included in order to submit feedback on how we can offer directives for future policy action and advocacy concentrating on whole student development.

Johnston & Callender (2000) remind us that since the days of Plato and Aristotle, persons of power utilized rhetoric as mechanism to communicate ideas as important and necessary, in order to persuade citizens that private intellect operates in the good of the public. Corporatism itself has an equally long history of existence, and functions on a similar premise, that a man's nature can only be truly realized through action in the public

sphere. For corporatism, the vision is more egregious, and does not focus on man as an individual actor, but more so on men as a collective instrument of production, and the political community as guide and grantor of happiness and fulfillment (Hewlett, 1980). We have seen corporatism evolve out of a political desire for social- and syndical-ism in Europe, as exemplified by leaders such as Mussolini in Italy, Franco in Spain and Hitler in Germany, as well as in America with Roosevelt and the New Deal. As the original quests for social justice (however conceived by individual leaders) without the elimination of private property move forward in time, corporatism removes justice as an imperative and replaces it with market fundamentalism, stripping the movement of public deliberation. This, in turn, creates a value-free operation which transcends any sense of individual human worth (Lears, 2013; Roberts, 1997). In the US, the more recent exchange of democracy for capitalism has placed corporatism in a position to create and maintain a portentous rule over both people and things. Diane Ravitch (2014) describes to us what this looks like when we view corporatist ideologies at play in contemporary public education:

Behold: political narrow-mindedness, focus on data rather than humanity, the tendency to blame those who teach for the ills of society, and an unwillingness to consider humane methods of instruction as acceptable alternatives to techniques of indoctrination serve as warnings to the nation's teachers and learners that they, too, are doomed to a future of boredom and inner turmoil if they do not act against the domination of Corporations and their Behaviorist toadies in public education today. (p. 1).

Corporatism shrouds itself in sagacious rhetoric in order to teach us what we are incapable of attaching ourselves to naturally as democratic citizens, in hopes to reform our notions of will, freedom, and intellect for their private benefit. However, corporatism does not involve one shared ideology about how or why. The three most instrumental, and largely co-dependent, groups involved in corporatist practice are: neo-conservatives, neo-liberals, and the new managerials.

Neo-conservatism

Neo-conservatism refers to the systematic use of state power to maintain order and control, as well as to establish strict adherence to a traditional sense of morality and is executed through repressive state apparatuses including law, police, security, military, and surveillance (Saad-Filho, 2011). Althusser (1971) and Gramsci, (in Cox, 1993) also discuss the repressive state apparatuses as having both active and ideological purpose and influence, which move to reinforce individualized, competitive, and capitalist behavior. Taken together, these notions serve to naturalize capital and dehumanize man through *political rationality*. Foucault (1977) describes political rationality as a normative political style of reason that re-arranges the relationship of politics, governance and citizenship into a hierarchical framework in which politics governs truth and intellect. In the sphere of public education, these processes are often formulated using improvement rhetoric during times of achievement crisis, such as ‘increasing competitiveness’ and ‘raising standards’ (Apple, 2000). Neo-conservatives, and their allies, are reported as successful in their ability to overcome arguments grounded in common sense through using a post-modern pastiche approach to problem solving. Dale (1989), describes the process as a “stitching-

together [of] different social tendencies and commitments” and a re-organization of such ideas concerning welfare, economy and education under modern, yet highly conservative, management.

While, neo-conservatism is grounded in what Williams (1977) refers to as residual forms of moral politics, it is not necessarily concerned with tight fiscal preservation. Hunter (1988), adds that there also exists a romanticized notion of a time when *real knowledge*, a natural ‘know your place’ knowledge, offered guidance and protection to underlings in society. Evidence of this ideology is obvious in the movement for national curricula, despite a federal prohibition against its establishment, and the respective national assessments. This is atop the present assault on immigration, multiculturalism, and multilingualism, to gauge the progress toward a return to the Western, and more specifically, American colonial tradition (Hirsch, 2010).

To complicate issues further, especially for CCR reform, is not just the involvement of both intellectuals and anti-intellectuals in shaping the policies for who and what children in our nation may grow up to be, but also the opportunistically religious undertones guiding moral and civic aspects of CCR education (Brown, 2006). Fukuyama (2007) and Norton (2005) assert that by linking power to morality and more specifically, the belief that American power translates into moral purpose, systems of support under this authority, such as public education, are now positioned as co-conspirators in propagating

*othering*² practices as both necessary and correct. Thus, the neo-conservative sieve, strains out those who can be molded according to these moralistic ideas of power and knowledge.

Neoliberalism

Neoliberalism is also framed in terms of systematic use of state power, but what it lacks in moral imperative, it makes up for in hegemonic reproduction, making it a vital component in corporatist reform. Neoliberalism seeks to regain capital rule in the following five core areas: domestic resource allocation, international economic integration, reproduction of state, ideology, and the growth of the working class (Saad-Filho, 2011). Where public schools are concerned, neoliberals assert that providing more resources to solve a problem without immediate results is not cost-effective, and therefore, should cease. Apple (2000) discusses the primary motivations of the neoliberal agenda as efficiency and the ethics of cost-benefit analysis, and together constitutes what is referred to as *economic rationality*. Through this lens, education is not a process; it is a product (Apple, 1990). Taken a step further, democratic education is neither political nor developmental; instead it is economic, turning student from learner to consumer, de-politicized and devoid of human individuations, leading to a concomitant transformation of consumer to product (Ball, 1994; Brown, 2006).

For Fraser (1989), this process is particularly problematic for those with less power to exercise voice and proactively participate in politics and economy. Recent graduates of

² Othering is a dialectical concept explored by existential philosophers such as Hegel, Husserl, Derrida, Nietzsche, and Sartre, which encompasses a sense of self or us, as compared to you and them, creating dominant/subordinate relationships between humans along lines of difference, including, but not limited to: culture, race/ethnicity, religion, language, and nationality.

high school exist in a transitional and highly vulnerable state of being in the world and need a host of skills to compete effectively in a globalizing economy (Bowles & Gintis, 2002). For neoliberals, CCR is less about nurturing these abilities, and more oriented toward increasing the efficiency of the labor force by breaking these comprehensive skill sets into discrete technical functions. The technicization of curriculum has made its way into policy discourse to justify the commodification of education, writ large, and further supports the growth of the accountability structure as a weapon against student autonomy and agency (Clarke, 2012). With the destruction of students as political individuals, education as a governance system emerges as a homogenous super-structure through which whole generations can be disempowered over time (Ball, 2008; Lingard, 2011; Stronach, 2010).

New Managerialism

Given the reminiscent moralistic nature of neo-conservatism, and the future-oriented amoral drive of neoliberalism, we must ask how these rationalities are able to intersect and act toward a mutually beneficial outcome. The lynchpin of these systems is regulation, expressly conducted through the systematic exploitation of vulnerabilities experienced by the public. This is executed through the institution of a moral-politico-economic rationality, and the execution of such through a highly efficient business model better known as the *new public management* (NPM) or the *new managerialism* (Brown, 2006). The purpose of the model is drawn from both neo-conservative and neoliberal rationalities to centralize corporate style decision-making in public institutions, qualify social progress as economic productivity gauged through economic measures and to

regulate action through policy (Ward, 2011). Some supporters of the new model express that government should operate as efficiently and effectively as a business enterprise (Bottery 2000; Terry, 2003). Other proponents assert that private sector techniques are appropriately designed for application in the public sector (Peters, 2001). The key principle driving the new management initiative is that professionals ought not destabilize the objectives of their leaders, therefore demoting aspects of ethics such as autonomy, agency, respect and trust (Bottery 2000; Burden 1998; Clarke & Newman 1997).

It is important to note that distinctions between NPM and new managerialism do exist. NPM discourse tends to focus on economic debates about advocacy, public choice theory and the ability of big government to usurp power of public service systems. New managerialism discourse centers on critiquing the development of dire socio-economic and political conditions as a product of regulatory governance. However, both concepts highlight the move toward the fragmentation and marketization of public services and increased state regulation (Deem & Brehony, 2005). Neo-conservatism brings to the table the ideological ideal; neoliberalism brings to the table the means and methods of surveillance and enforcement of the ideal, and the new managerialists are the finance-driven authorities with whom the public interacts- the policy-makers (Hill, 2013; Lewis, Hill, & Fawcett, 2009; Stevenson, 2007).

Historic Relationship between CCR and Corporatism

Truman (1951) described in detail how special interest groups are formed when people, with a shared stake in an outcome, band together during times of political and economic crisis. These groups emerge cyclically and are met with oppositional groups in

turn. Together these groups present their views in favor of change, or preservation, of the current policy and governance structure. Where education reform is concerned, change must be preceded by some focal event to be considered a significant issue. Most often it is one that captures the attention of not only the politicians and agency stakeholders, but also the general public and the media (Baumgartner et al., 2009). The crisis that spurred the recent college and career readiness reform is situated in the nexus of globalization, commerce, and innovation and has less to do with improving education and more to do with increasing educational outcomes which support our nation as a global powerhouse. The catalyst for this initiative can be described through the intersection of two related projections for our future generations of students. The US Department of Labor projected that over the next decade, 63% of all existing, and 90% of all new, high-wage jobs in the nation will require some form of postsecondary education or certification (USDOL, 2009). However, the US Department of Education stated that nearly 40% of entry-level college students (two-year and four-year institutions) require remediation upon entry into first year credit-bearing coursework (USDOE, 2010b). In response, a variety of special interest groups have materialized with propositions for resolve and support for change.

Numerous special interest groups have existed across time that have influenced the politico-educational environment regarding the specialization of skills and labor and the identification of educational objectives to produce the educated workforce required to meet those needs. At the turn of the century, the Douglas Commission spoke on Ayres' Index of Efficiency, which proposed that the relationship between curriculum and students "had been reduced to a problem of simple efficiency and cost-effectiveness" (Kliebard,

2004, p. 88). In the current context of CCR reform, it is evident that we continue to struggle with the same dominating social efficiency ideologies in hopes to make change toward leveraging our capacity to efficiently produce both students and goods in a globalized marketplace. Consequently, we look to conservative economists and industry leaders for answers on how to accomplish these goals quickly, and not necessarily reflexively or sustainably. There is great potential for harm to students as persons, if corporatist CCR reform continues to strip students of their humanity through the deconstruction of humans into discrete skill sets and the conversion of humans to assets.

Student-based Implications

Requirements of clear-cut definitions and rigorous standards of college preparatory and career education, sound methods of monitoring, assessing and measuring student competency have renewed attention. Yet and still, academic and technical proficiency is the central focus of legislative change during the latest national educational reform movement. But the ways in which these policies are constructed and implemented are done so in a manner that causes further inequity (Granger, 2008; Hursh & Martina, 2003; Kantor & Lowe, 2006). Neoliberal attempts at offering choice and variety to graduating high school students are veiled in democratic rhetoric. However, beneath the surface are new managerial tactics to coerce certain students into certain trajectories. The current neoliberal readiness initiatives aim to increase public-private relationships in education leadership and management, most notably through the resurgent career and technical education movement, School Choice, and the *charterization* of failing public schools, and

are buttressed by legislation such as NCLB (Brantlinger, 2003; Hankins & Martin, 2006; Reay, 2004).

These actions, along with increased rigor and accountability efforts, are more so an attempt at risk-management in a meritocracy, which through casuistry, deceptively promises students high-wage employment in fields of high-demand, if they plan well, study hard and make the right decisions (Lakes, 2008; Lakes & Carter, 2011). Yet, concealed inside this sentiment is also the idea that if one does not successfully attain these goals, they only have themselves to blame (Brown & Hesketh, 2004; Wilson, 2007). Furthermore, the idea of college for all is grossly misleading as achieving standardized capacities and skill orientation does not a college and career ready student make.

The absence of a clear understanding of readiness, specific and detailed planning steps and the coordination of resources and supports further contribute to de-stabilizing the assumed CCR end-goal and is detrimental, specifically to historically marginalized student populations (Rosenbaum, 2001). For example, Deem (2001), warns that the rise of new managerialism will decrease diversity in post-secondary education environments, as well as instructor autonomy and academic freedom. Hyatt (2004) also agrees and adds that greater monitoring and measurement practices brought on by the corporatist agenda is also a means to monitor and measure the expanded constituencies currently represented in our university system that were not present previously.

Humans as capital and skills as assets. The concept of labor power that is situated within education is cited as central to the present day capitalist society and is a prime example of a living commodity, one that has the capability of reproducing itself

socially and one that can increase its own surplus value (Rikowski, 2001). The *educated worker* must be trained to adapt to an ever-shifting class and merit-based environment through flexible skill attainment (de Angelis, 2000), and in the corporatist environment, one also has a “moral obligation” to become employable and maintain employability (Brown & Hesketh, 2004, p. 232). These sought-after skills have been referred to as “chase credentials” (Jackson & Bisset, 2005, p. 196) those that are stackable, portable, and most of all, marketable (Apple, 2006; Hursh, 2007). The National Center on Education and the Economy (2007) released a report, entitled *Tough Choices or Tough Times*, and characterize the current goals of CCR education as meant to: (a) revitalize the economy by educating all students for high-skills jobs, and (b) elevate our share of the college-educated global workforce. The commission goes on to convey that CCR education will succeed, “to the extent that our skills are the foundation of our economic dominance... that foundation is eroding in front of our eyes, but we have been very slow to see it” (NCEE, 2007, p. 16).

Giroux (2002) cautions us that ancillary to the reorientation of the purpose of post-secondary education, is the instrumentalization of the curricula as a gatekeeping practice to limit or repress what higher education means in a more broadly conceived social context. Harvey (2005) shares this concern and fleshes out further the process of ‘accumulation by dispossession’, by which public services, such as education, become privatized and commoditized for corporate gain through managing and manipulating crisis. Additionally, Polanyi (2001) brings to our attention that complete market control of the fate of man will eventually collapse on itself, if the entire capacity of labor power is not used. For neoliberals, this presents a conundrum. If neo-conservative support is to

continue, man cannot be stripped of his moral fiber, otherwise he will suffer from social exposure to corruption and depravity (Polanyi, 2001). The resolution lay somewhere in between imposing morality as an ideological structure and systematically regulating man's consciousness and actions within that structure. For CCR reform, that entails identifying skills that are cost-effective to teach, moral in nature and malleable in application across different contexts.

Regulating consciousness, agency and proactivity. Emergent definitions, indicators, and measures of CCR follow a formula for what students *ought to* know in terms of content and follow a historically parsimonious model for a success (Blasi, 1980). However, little value is placed on how and why students will come to know, evaluate, accept, and apply this knowledge and in turn, makes difficult the task of students to endorse the CCR rules and standards and behave in accordance with them (Habermas, 2001). Students are, in general, not fully aware of the consequences of rejecting or rearranging the rules and standards set in place for them to follow (Rushton, 1982). This market model of education is derived from economic and social efficiency models, and post-secondary readiness and success efforts are expensive, cumbersome, and far-reaching. Glass ceilings must be set in place to bar access at multiple levels because the system is not designed to support CCR in every student. Ultimately, those excluded from achieving post-secondary success are then portrayed as lacking in moral, civic, and intellectual value.

The role of education is often conceived of as discovering and perpetuating societal value systems. However, the concept of civicism has been removed as the grounded theory

upon which education was predicated and minimalized to a discrete subject area to be taught in schools. Thus, the drive to be a proactive citizen has been stunted by corporatist assertions that conflate success, morality, and citizenship. Using a corporatist model, education becomes a tool of regulation, not a method for liberation or democratization, and discourages independent notions of solidarity and freedom. This marks knowledge as capital and an economic investment, rather than a resource through which citizens emerge with power to act (West, 1990). In an article published by Gatswatch (2003), the author(s) argues that education is too critical of a component of societal development to relinquish to the goals of corporatism and must be protected from the systematic erosion of critical citizenship caused by market expansion. Similarly, Tomlinson (2005) urges us to refer to Article 26 of the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights and reminds us that we should always be moving toward “the full development of the human personality and a strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms” (Assembly, UG, 1948).

Summary

Neoliberalism, when accompanied by neo-conservatism and executed through a new managerialist agenda, display a symbiotic relationship dedicated to the devaluation of individuals and the re-moralization of society, and strictly enforces the concept of political rationality at each gateway toward upward mobility (Brown, 2006; O’Malley, 1996; Spring, 2008). This style of political reasoning will continue to seek to govern truth, thought, speech, and action through self-reinforcing selective reason, and if left un-tempered by

democratic practice, will consequentially re-organize the relationship between the social, the citizen, and the state (Brown, 2003).

For instance, in the 1990's, the Committee for Economic Development was quite candid, and identifiably sophist, about their role in shaping education and argued that the social objectives of education obstruct the acquisition of basic learning skills, as evidenced by the deficiency of adequate literacy levels and problem-solving skills in recently graduated students seeking entry-level employment (Manegold, 1994). Another example of the contradictory nature of the political rationality within a CCR framework, is that corporatists make an argument for the purpose of higher education as one that prepares future workers for employment. Shaft (2005) contends that since the 1990's, over two million workers employed through the private sector have lost their jobs due to outsourcing and off-shore manufacturing (p. 154). Moreover, Hecker (2005) projected that by the end of the 2014 fiscal year, only 27% of all jobs in America would require a college degree (p. 80). Projections through the 2020 fiscal year are not dissimilar, as the Center for Education and the Workforce (CEW) projects that 35% of new job openings will require at least a bachelor's degree, and 36% will not require any post-secondary education (Carnavale et al., 2013, p. 15).

Aronowitz (1998) explains the corporatist movement as partially a response to diminishing government financed defense projects and the decreased state aid to post-secondary education. It can also be rationalized as a response to the increased access to knowledge and power that diverse student bodies have been afforded through civil and social justice movements. Higher education, as a place for critical scholarship and social

responsibility, seems more threatening to the overall drive behind corporatism, if higher education is the very place that produces socially conscious and politically aware citizens (Aronowitz & Culter, 1998; Giroux, 2002). Krislov & Steven (2014) offer encouragement that college is still for creating citizens by preparing graduates for life beyond school and work and fostering the ability to understand and shape their future, interests and purpose. What we need to ask ourselves is two-fold: (1) what knowledge and skills are relevant to living a democratic life as proactive citizens, aside from the need to be adequately prepared for college and employment, and (2) how can these skills be leveraged against obstacles set in place by corporatists in their efforts to bar access and condemn critical evaluation of the systems in which we participate?

The most obvious answers can be found through research, advocacy, and action. First, educational research that focuses on the development of conative skills should continue to uncover and disseminate findings about linkages between conative dispositions (e.g., motivation, persistence, and resilience) and student outcomes (e.g., academic achievement, socio-political consciousness and professional goal attainment). Second, there is a need for increased legal advocacy on behalf of students and teachers in shaping educational governance if democratic education is to survive. Lastly, policy actions that investigate 'what works' and what legislation is enacted to both historicize and support it should also grow if we seek to curb the effects of corporatist ideology in CCR reform. Jointly, these efforts will reach students and their communities, educational leaders seeking to improve praxis, and federal actors placed in charge of maintaining checks and balances in a democratic educational system.

Section Two: The Evolution of College and Career Readiness

Historical Narrative of College and Career Readiness Reform Efforts

There have been four notable waves of college and career readiness reform efforts in the history of American public education. Common results of each era of comprehensive college and career-oriented educational reform efforts were increased federal funding and legislative support, in addition to the development of occupationally specific courses of study, implementation of CCR driven curricula and assessments, expanded apprenticeship programs, and college entry counseling services. What has also come to follow is a decomposition of students as whole human beings. With each wave of reform, came a newer, more efficient way for corporate enterprises to claim a stake on individual human attributes that upon which can be further capitalized, sold and redistributed for their benefit. Moreover, each wave of reform brought with it a coercive tone about what students should aspire to be as adults if they are to participate and contribute fully in society. Inherent in the career pathway options offered to college going students is a notion of American citizenship or nationalism, wrapped in candy-coated consumerism (Tienkin, 2013).

Wave One. Traditionally, skill sets related to career pathways were passed down from generation to generation in the form of apprenticeships. Emerging industry and agricultural expansion in the late 1700's caused a decline in such practices and by the mid-1800's responsibility for career training was assumed by the rapidly developing system of public education (Kliebard, 2004). In 1874, public high schools became legally established and funded through local taxation in favor of the creation of two new organizations, the

National Society for Promotion of Industrial Education and the Foundation for American Vocational Education Association, geared towards career development (*Stuart v. School District No. 1*). At the onset of the Agricultural Revolution, college preparatory curriculum did not yet exist, in fact, public post-secondary institutions as we know them did not yet exist. For the next fifty years, curriculum theory and legislative change occurred in support of career-oriented education for the general public, with a specific focus on agriculture, resulting in the establishment of the Federal Board of Vocational Education in 1917 as a product of the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act (1917). The educational programs created by the newly established Board of Vocational Education were designed for students of working age, as the act was solely directed at adult employment preparation. Although the act initially intended to promote vocational education *within* the public school, it ultimately separated vocational education from academic education (Kliebard, 2004). Any student's education paid for with these federal funds could receive no more than 50 percent academic instruction and were mostly instructed on job-specific, rather than academic, skills. This system of teaching was known as the "50-25-25 Rule" stated in Section 12 of the act: 50 percent time in shop work; 25 percent in closely related subjects, and 25 percent in academic course work (p. 935).

A major shift in program themes occurred during both the WWI and the post WWII re-construction eras, placing agriculture in the background in favor of science, mathematics and foreign language. Shortly after, additional funding for national defense training was supplied by the National Defense Education Act (1958). The Department of Education, not yet operating as a separate entity, still resided within the Department of Interior, and when

the 1931 National Advisory Committee on Education Report was released, encouraging the streamlining of federally funded and supported general aid program in education, the problem was quickly swept under the rug because it did not meet the urgent economic needs of the American people during The Great Depression (Cross, 2004).

It was not until the post-WWII era, that students became an interest in actual policy. Progressive education theory was placed into practice in public schools to better the lives of students through an active learning process, combining school core subject content, and perhaps the only time in education, by purging the idea of standards and assessment in the form of grades (Kliebard, 2004; Ravitch, 1985). But Progressive education was neither prepared for, nor had the capacity to serve, what the nation had next to experience- the mass return of US soldiers in need of immediate employment and the resultant Baby Boom Echo (Bare, 1997). Efficiency in education for both children and adults again became the primary concern and method of resolve.

Wave Two. The post-*Brown v. Board* (1954) Civil Rights Era compounded by the launch of Sputnik and Vietnam War (1955-1975) drove college readiness right off the reform agenda. Despite post-secondary access being legally granted to students of all races, the relevance divide, again, became gender based. As military and political needs were now influencing the direction in which career education would take, national defense and economic needs were gaining more attention. Men needed to go off to war, women needed to work in their stead. Both the Area Redevelopment Act (1961), and the Manpower Development and Training Act (1961) targeted unemployment with a specific

focus on those who were 'at-risk' or historically under-served populations (e.g., women and minorities).

At the time of the second bill's enactment, President Kennedy's statement, "this far-reaching bill not only addresses itself to the problems of the present, but requires us to anticipate future needs as employment conditions change" would guide the ways in which policy-makers would continue to view and shape career education in the United States (Kennedy, 1962). With the anticipation of political-economic change and future technological advancements, came a series of new acts pertaining to career education. Questions of funding, efficacy, and relevance were high on the list of inquiry and were treated through a series of bills that would begin to systematically address these issues. Perhaps the most influential bill created out of these efforts was the Vocational Education Amendments (1968) which "fundamentally reorder[ed] the purposes and nature of vocational education in America," with special attention paid to the need for relevance. Through these amendments, the focus shifted from occupations to actual people, and the need to update technological education for American students (Forsythe & Weintraub, 1969).

It was not until 1984, with the enactment of the Vocational Education Act (Perkins I, P.L. 98-524), that post-secondary access re-assumed a place on the reform agenda. This act broadened the scope of the national workforce by improving post-secondary educational access of the underserved or those who have greater-than-average educational needs. It also addressed issues of relationships between individual community members and their local employers, as well as between local employers and the national economy (Goble,

2004). This act marked the initial union of college- and career- ready reform initiatives, and for the first time intended the term *post-secondary* to specifically mean a 4-year institution of higher education.

The release of *A Nation at Risk* (1983) the previous year launched controversial charges against the USDOE for neglecting the following issues:

(1) assessing the quality of teaching and learning in our Nation's public and private schools, colleges, and universities; (2) comparing American schools and colleges with those of other advanced nations; (3) studying the relationship between college admissions requirements and student achievement in high school; (4) identifying educational programs which result in notable student success in college; (5) assessing the degree to which major social and educational changes in the last quarter century have affected student achievement; and (6) defining problems which must be faced and overcome if we are successfully to pursue the course of excellence in education" (Gardner et al., 1983, p. 2-3).

Despite the volatile climate of education policy discussions, efforts toward any degree of education reform were being thwarted for the expansion of the US military-industrial complex. Political tensions between various countries across the globe, throughout the decade, prompted America to become war ready. The Soviet invasion of Afghanistan (1979), the Bosnian/Serbian/Macedonian War (1980's), Iran/Iraq War (1980), US reactions and aid to Israel during the terrorist attacks (1980's) and preparation for the US invasion of Panama (1989) brought about another pendulum swing toward the favor of science, military, and industry-driven decisions in education.

The George H. W. Bush administration took charge of the education policy platform through the proposal of The Youth Skills Initiative beginning in 1992. The bill claimed to be brought on by CCR pitches and consisted of four core components: Youth Training Corps (YTC), Treat and Train, National Youth Apprenticeship Program and the Junior Reserve Officer Training Corps (JROTC). The problem implicitly stated within this proposal was that the United States needs a stronger, more educated workforce because international competition, the rise of the Technological Revolution and a dynamic labor market necessitated such, although the core of the policy spoke quite overtly to military needs. The challenge lay within the transition from school-to-work for what were labeled as non-college-bound youth and the act streamlined the federal job training system to allow for 'one-stop shopping' job training in every community. The resolution was to create residential centers, located primarily in rural areas, out of converted Department of Defense facilities. The nation was not in need of critical thinkers; the nation needed auto-reactive patriotism and that is precisely what the nation received, even though the bill did not pass.

Wave Three. It was not until the Clinton administration that the next notable period of growth for education occurred as a whole and led to further reform concerning college and career education. New legislation would build off the re-authorization and amendments made to the Perkins Act in 1990 (P.L. 105-332), requiring clear-cut definitions and rigorous standards of college and career education, in addition to rigorous methods of monitoring, assessing, and measuring student competency, performance, and achievement. Concerning career education specifically, this would necessitate a National

Skill Standards Board, a process for industry accreditation and/or certification and stronger relationships between student, school and the local business community.

In 1994, the Goals 2000: Educate America Act would address such factors and resultantly place career and technical education (CTE) above college readiness once again. The title stated that it would “serve as a cornerstone of the national strategy to enhance workforce skills” (Title V, Sec. 503) through increased productivity, economic growth, and American economic competitiveness while remaining consistent with civil rights laws due to re-authorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) (2004). The act drew upon employers to assist in evaluating the skill levels and training of potential employees and upon labor organizations to enhance job security and by providing credentials to establish the skill levels and competencies needed to effectively compete in the labor market. The term *post-secondary* was sprinkled throughout the legislative text, yet the meaning had reverted to 2-year certification programs that required on-going certification and did not transfer out of the immediate locale in which they were earned. It is with this act that a focus on minorities and women in non-traditional fields of employment becomes a concentration, beginning with the removal of historical barriers that have systematically prevented them from entering in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) fields.

The divided support for GOALS 2000 said many things about the current state of education in the United States. Educational reform is necessary, but not through the involvement of the federal government, most especially with the previous administrations' focus on military training and leadership. Remaining a competitor in the global market is

also necessary, but begged the question- at what cost? This act provided resources to both states and communities to guarantee that all students reach their full potential, founded on the premise that students will reach higher levels of achievement when more is expected of them. The DAILY REPORT CARD issued Monday, June 12, 1995 (Vol 4, No 341) asked educators and policy makers how GOALS 2000 was helping them reform college and career education. LeGrande Baldwin, Lead Principal in Washington, D.C. stated, "GOALS 2000 is as significant as the launching of Sputnik. It is an initiative that redirects our focus in terms of improving the quality of education and life in this country. These goals provide our blueprint for meeting the challenges of the 21st century." Conversely, Ovid Lamontagne, Chairman of N.H. State Board of Education, stated, "As someone who is responsible for elementary and secondary education, my personal philosophical perspective is that the federal government should not have a role in education. Education is a state responsibility. The legislation contains provisions that have philosophic underpinnings with which I don't agree."

Clearly, there existed a conflict between school leaders on the purpose and place of such an act in public education. Yet, when the year 2000 arrived, the nation's workforce was strong indeed, as was the national economy, and we had not yet entered The War on Terrorism. Due to the overall stability of the nation, monies were freed up to investigate why college enrollment and completion rates had dramatically decreased. The Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation set out on a five year long research initiative to develop a framework that would enhance educational and employment outcomes for all students across the nation and was a direct revival of the tried and true ideas of post-WWII social

efficiency needs for direct utility (Kliebard, 2004). This model would be known as the 3 R's Approach, now for the third time, naming rigor, relevance, and relationships as the core building blocks of education.

Between the years of 2000 and 2007, several organizations and institutions conducted assessments that were focused on college and career education policy and outcomes using the 3R's Framework. The National Center on Education in the Inner Cities (CEIC) Review of School Policy, concluded that while CTE was effective at both improving student performance and achievement on high-stakes testing and curbing high school dropout rates, accomplishments in curriculum innovation, participant satisfaction, student learning, post-secondary completion, and labor market success were brought into question (Zins, 2001). The Council for Education Policy Research and Improvement (CEPRI) provided recommendations for future policy that promoted the inclusion of a more integrated approach, consisting of three additional core components: (1) a small learning community (SLCs); (2) a college-prep curriculum with a career theme; and (3) partnerships between employers, community, and post-secondary education institutions (CEPRI, 2004).

The National Research Council (NRC) reported that use of the 3R's framework was proving effective in urban high schools across America, yet import was not placed on the aspect of rigor. The NRC's (2003) report focused more so on the importance of relevance to real-world experience and building relationships between students and their respective communities, claiming that these factors are what truly contribute to overall long-term success for students, with particular regard to the population the Bush administration had labeled *alienated urban youth*. The Center for Evaluation and Education Policy (CEEP) had

inferred from these conflicting research findings that more ongoing and longitudinal research was required on the outcomes in order to create applicable recommendations for new policy and for revisions concerning existing policy (Stanley & Plucker, 2008).

In 2006, states were prompted to re-design their K-12 curricula. The objective was to align a new set of standards with college and career readiness. Standards needed to stem from individual state needs, including economy, employment, and politics. The national effort collectively created an inconsistent set of standards, preventing student mobility by precluding 4-year post-secondary participation in states where agro-business had centralized, industry had been reconstructed, military bases had taken ownership of education and employment opportunity and the tourism industry had flourished.

Wave Four. It is not ironic that the lead to revolutionize and concretize college and career readiness would be assumed by the Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation, a non-partisan, non-profit organization that conducts and disseminates research on educational and social programming with an aim to improve the overall well-being of the nation's entire student population. By far, this approach has been only been entertained, never truly implemented. David Conley has been accredited with leading a new movement within CCR that would revive Dewey-ism, reincorporate social learning theory and adapt both Camp (1982, 1983, 1984) and Miller's (1996) models, sloughing off many of the constraints placed on student mobility by social efficiency theory and put student-centered theory and curricula into action. The catchy Common Core Standards initiative was the prime vehicle for this change. No new national legislation would be enacted past the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act, which provided Race to the

Top funding, until individual states could align their K-20 curricula with the Common Core Standards, create a statewide CCR index and ride out the now incontrovertible damage caused by NCLB through the submission of the ESEA flexibility waivers.

The release of *A Blueprint for Reform* served as guide for future educational objectives that would link college and career education indefinitely. Conley, over the course of the last decade, had developed a set of clearly defined means to achieve these goals and make them sustainable through any politically driven economic or social change event. Mathematics, science, history, and English/Language Arts were to remain core subject areas, however, embedded within the curriculum and instructional practices were to be another set of subjects, what Conley refers to as *habits of the mind* (Conley, 2007a). The National High School Center has placed these skills into four distinct threads for current policy assessment: (1) social and emotional, (2) higher-order thinking, (3) academic success and employability, and (4) civic and consumer skills, and has supported Conley in the notion that together, these skills can be assistive on the pathway to success in college, careers and society (Hein et al., 2012).

All education stakeholders are being encouraged to consider this multi-dimensional improvement plan, while concurrently satisfying the requirements provided by national workforce and economic needs at the macro-level and individual college and industry standards in each locale, at the micro-level (Wiley et al., 2010). However, the National High School Center has also noted that, “the increased focus on college and career readiness, combined with the complexity of the challenges associated with the topic, has led to a rapidly expanding college and career readiness community that is rich with resources yet

replete with confusion” (Gheen et al., 2012, p. 1). Several distinct, yet inter-related, issues have come to bare down upon the CCR initiative. The ACT CCR policy brief on high school core curriculum, asks policy-makers to ensure that current and future reform efforts centered on curricular change not place the quality of the curriculum at risk in favor of lowering benchmarks and standards for easier achievement, as has happened in the past (Whitehurst, 2009).

What makes this round of reform different from past efforts? For one, the student has re-entered the stage as a proactive agent in their learning process and career planning. Secondly, policy is treating new curriculum and academic programming for all students as college and career preparatory, instead of college or career preparatory. Lastly, this reform began amid national economic hardship, underemployment due to the 2011 debt ceiling crisis, industrial out-sourcing and despite the nation’s involvement in various military operations, and not as a reaction to these events. Cross (2004) also notes that the defragmentation of education policy and the decentralized authority of Washington, D.C. over education research and policy continues to play a critical role in the acceptance and implementation of this multi-dimensional approach to CCR reform.

Current Context of College and Career Readiness Reform

Debates about whether college readiness and career readiness differ in some way, still weigh heavily on the minds of decision-makers when attempting to address these concerns about regulatory compliance, implementing new academic standards, and policy and program formulation aimed at achieving both goals (Conley & McGaughy, 2012). Developing and maintaining a set of cohesive expectations and supports will in turn ease

the high school to college transition and create a seamless K-20 educational system, from which an innovative workforce will graduate and succeed. However, success is often defined by employment in sectors of the American workforce that develops and uses these very measures, easily constituting them as self-serving rather serving the public. A variety of external research and policy organizations have been consulted by states during the development of CCR definitions, some of which make the distinction between college readiness and career readiness, as well as those who do not. Furthermore, there seems to be incongruence between acceptable frameworks for evaluating CCR and between ideologies that guide CCR development and application across states, contributing to an overall discontinuity across states in how states conceptualize and actualize CCR reform efforts as a nation.

Competing Definitions of CCR

According to the America Diploma Project (2010), *college ready* means more than being able to successfully complete a course of study offered by two- and four- year institutions. It also means having the ability to do so without the need for remedial course work and the attainment of a post-secondary credential in order to enter a career pathway that offers advancement and upward mobility. However, the Association for Career and Technical Education (2010), asserts that *career readiness* requires more than demonstrated academic proficiency in core subject areas such as math, English, and science, and necessitates mastery in two other areas, employability (management and communication) and technical skills in order for students to sustain competitive wages and qualify for opportunities for advancement.

College and career readiness as described by the American Youth Policy Forum, takes a more expansive approach and refers to the knowledge and skills necessary to persist and succeed in credit-bearing college coursework or industry certification- without remediation (Hooker & Brand, 2009). This is in addition to the identification of academic/career pathways and goals, along with the steps required to achieve them, and the acquisition of developmental maturity and cultural awareness needed to do so. Amendments to this definition are made by The Center for American Progress, and note that readiness for post-secondary pursuits also includes civic and consumer aspects and thus, describes graduating students who are 'ready,' as empowered customers who have access to reliable information and flexibility in resources and supports (Soares & Mazzeo, 2008).

Other entities involved with increasing college and career readiness in students create operational definitions for the purposes of research, reporting, implementation, and assessment. ACT (2013) for example, defined college and workforce readiness as a set of standards that describes the level of preparation a student needs to be ready to enroll and succeed – without remediation – in a credit-bearing course at a two-year or four-year institution, trade school, or technical school. On the other hand, Achieve (2014) now identifies college and career readiness as the English and mathematics that graduates must have mastered by the time they leave high school if they expect to succeed in postsecondary education or in high-performance, high-growth jobs. Lastly, the Partnership for 21st Century Skills (2010) proposes that a student who is ready for success in college and/or careers in a highly competitive environment must be empowered to learn, apply,

and adapt in any context through the integration of core content knowledge and higher-order thinking skills that are measurable and actionable through federal and state accountability structures.

While all definitions keep post-secondary student success in the forefront of their conceptions of what it means to be college and career ready, there remain two concerns: (1) incompatibility between existent definitions about what readiness and success is, and (2) the institution of standards without clear definitions. While some organizations refer to proficiency levels in core subject areas as indicators of readiness, others emphasize and incorporate the acquisition of what are referred to as *transitional life skills*, such as: emotional intelligence, ethics, self-advocacy, relationship building, communication skills, and cultural awareness. The same can be seen at the state level, with some states making use of newly approved standards modeled after those of the Common Core, and others adapting definitions previously constructed by the aforementioned organizations. This is, in part, due to legislative requirements for high school improvement and on-going or anticipated participation in nationalized projects focused on increased high-school graduation, as well as 21st Century Workforce collaborative efforts such as Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers (PARCC) and SMARTER Balanced Consortium (SBAC).

Competing Frameworks for Evaluation

Not only do the CCR definitions vary greatly across organizations, but also do the frameworks for evaluating CCR. These alternative arguments surrounding research-based policy formulation are more narrowly focused on the typology of core content knowledge

and skills fit for inclusion in the combined college and career readiness definitions. This focus grows out of the need for states to create operational components through which progress toward CCR can be tracked and measured. Three highly influential, yet dissimilar, frameworks exist to provide the structure through which states can identify, organize, and address this one large domain of CCR knowledge and skills. For instance, the College Board National Office for School Counselor Advocacy (NOSCA) offers an eight-component framework for readiness through ensuring opportunities to build aspirations, increase social capital, offer enrichment activities and rigorous academic preparation, and assist with early CCR planning throughout the preparation process (College Board, 2010).

Other research-driven organizations, such as the Educational Policy Improvement Organization (EPIC), take a more direct approach in categorizing specific skillsets that prove vital in preparing for college and career endeavors over time. David T. Conley, in his work with EPIC, supports a four-dimensional model of readiness and success. This model includes: (1) key cognitive strategies (problem solving, inquisitiveness, precision/accuracy, interpretation, reasoning, research, and intellectual openness); (2) key content knowledge (mastery of writing skills, algebraic concepts, key foundational content from core subjects); (3) academic behaviors (study skills and self-monitoring, time management, awareness of one's current level of mastery, and the selection of the learning strategies); and (4) contextual skills and knowledge, or college knowledge, (understanding of college admissions processes, college culture, tuition and financial aid, and college-level academic expectations)(Conley, 2012).

Competing Ideologies Attached to Operational Components of CCR

Loosely speaking, CCR refers to the knowledge and skills that students should have mastered by high school graduation in order to be considered prepared for post-secondary level academic and technical achievement. A more narrow and actionable definition of what specific knowledge and skills sets our students should have is widely debated across states. Forming a consensus is not yet within reach, despite the institution of state-level standards and measures already in place to assess CCR in students in our public-school systems. States which have applied for ESEA flexibility waivers have been tasked with creating and adopting a state-wide definition of CCR and related evidence-based measures by which student progress toward CCR can be tracked, monitored and evaluated. As of 2012, most states agree that students must possess the cognitive and technical skills necessary to master core subject area content, but only 19 states specifically make mention of academic content mastery within their established CCR definitions, and only 6 states acknowledge non-cognitive skills as valuable to student growth and success (Mishkind, 2014). Yet in 2013, only 14 of 46 states polled by the Center on Education Policy report having a statewide definition of college and career readiness and success that describe the cognitive skills, core content mastery, and to an even lesser extent, soft skills (CEP, 2013).

The identification of additional valid and reliable CCR indicators, such as: attendance, high school grade point average (HSGPA), accelerated learning program participation (AP, IB and dual enrollment), college entry exam performance, and Free Application for Federal Student Aid (FAFSA) completion (Gheen et al., 2012), has led to an auxiliary debate surrounding the inclusion of *conative skills*, as they prove more difficult to

operationalize for measurement. Conative skills, such as: motivation, persistence, and resilience, are widely understood to be valid predictors not only of CCR but also for life-long success (Byrd & MacDonald, 2005; Hooker & Brand, 2009; Kyllonen et al., 2014). Yet, in the age of evidence-based practice, we must wait for longitudinal research to conclude in order to prove their reliability, as most research on the topic as it relates to CCR is still in its infancy. However, not everyone involved in CCR reform is subscribed to including conative skills despite what emergent research finds.

In a comprehensive scan of over 70 organization-based CCR definitions conducted by the College and Career Readiness and Success Center, three distinct and vital categories, or threads, of CCR content have been identified: core content, pathways content, and life-long learning content (Hein et al., 2012)(see Table 1). A follow-up scan was then conducted by the same organization on state-level definitions in order to identify if, and to what extent, are states incorporating these three threads in their CCR definitions. Results from the secondary scan display a hierarchy of importance where knowledge and skill inclusion are concerned. Mishkind (2014) found that of the 21 states providing actionable CCR definitions, 19 states included core content knowledge, 14 states included pathways content knowledge, and only six states included life-long learning content skills. For the most comprehensive understanding of college and career readiness to be supported, achieved and sustained, all should be considered for inclusion in the definition as these endeavors progress.

However, for the purpose of this study, the focus will remain on the conative skills included in the broader thread of lifelong learning. These conative skills are skill sets that

college and career success require and extend further than the confines of academic and career environments. The demonstrated ability to be self-motivated, resilient, and persevering is key a factor that increases a student’s level of dexterity in a rapidly changing world (Hein et al., 2012). Possessing sound problem solving skills driven by critical and analytical thinking, a positive and responsible attitude toward risk-taking and willingness to collaborate allow for improved leadership skills resulting in opportunity for advancement and expanded mobility. Civic engagement is also included within the category of conative skills, providing a forum for students to apply what they have learned through their post-secondary experience to the world around them and offer the occasion to uplift and grow their surrounding communities (Hein et al., 2012).

Table 1: Three Content Threads of CCR

Threads	Examples
Core Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> English/language arts, social studies, mathematics, science, foreign language, and technical knowledge
Pathways Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> College and work trajectories, environments, and eligibility requirements Student-declared educational and career aspirations
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Programs of study standards (e.g., science, technology, engineering, and mathematics; health; business) Career and technical education standards
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Self-management, responsible decision making, self-awareness, social awareness, relationship skills Problem solving, critical thinking, and reasoning, synthesis and precision Inquisitiveness and intellectual openness, organization, study, and research skills, attendance and engagement, teamwork and collaboration, effective communication Civic engagement, financial literacy and management, information technology and social media skills
Life-long Learning Content	

Summary

The continual coordination of efforts between education and workforce systems requires an enormous amount of cooperation and merging of resources in order to benefit all parties involved, ensure productivity and create a sustainable infrastructure for post-

secondary student success. Given the diversity seen in our study body, the multitude of workforce needs demanded by a globally competitive nation, and the host of post-secondary options available, the venture of easing the transition for students is easily convoluted. More generalized consideration, or treatment, of such difficulty, acknowledges the need for and requires individual states to evaluate the educational and workforce needs with respect to the way they develop their definitions and standards of college and career readiness. This will allow for flexibility in policy and practice to exist which account for all student and state needs. One way to begin assessing what is appropriate for each state, given the variety of needs, is to build definitions of readiness and success that incorporate each of the content categories mentioned. This will not only meet state needs, but also prepare students to meet the needs of other states and countries in order to account for and promote student mobility.

Requirements of clear-cut definitions and rigorous standards of college and career preparatory education, sound methods of monitoring, assessing, and measuring student competency have the attention of policymakers; however, academic proficiency and technical skill development remain the central focus of both CCR policy and programming in most states. There is a demonstrated need to further explore the life-long skills thread and explicitly connect the meaning and value to CCR specifically. For the purpose of this review, life-long learning skills were traced backwards to the origins of conation in order to support the importance of conative development in a way that has CCR significance, and extends well beyond the CCR confines to a more broad based conception of what it means to be prepared for life after high school graduation.

Section Three: Philosophies and Function of Conation

The ways in which CCR definitions, respective standards, and policies are constructed, largely around cognitive capacity and benchmarked measures, are done so in a manner that: (a) disqualifies attention to existing inequities, and (b) ignores subsequent inequities that are produced in result. This is not only evident in CCR related preparedness, but also in post-secondary access and success over a student's lifetime. There are many mitigating factors in cognitive capacity building that can either help or hinder a student's achievement over time, little of which are paid attention in the context of designing standards, curricula and post-secondary opportunity that speak to individual student capabilities and aspirations.

Beginning as early as kindergarten, students from economically disadvantaged backgrounds display less developed cognitive and subsequent academic proficiency, which can persist throughout a student's educational and career trajectory (Magnuson et al., 2007). Research on inherent cultural bias in core subject area testing has uncovered issues in differential performance across cultures as well. For example, females tend to experience more anxiety during math testing than do males (Goetz et al., 2013), and research on ELLs student performance on standardized English Language Arts assessments highlights the need for better alignment between the linguistic demands of the test and the linguistic ability of the test taker (Solano-Flores, 2014). Students who are at chronic or acute risk, such as the homeless and those with high mobility rates, also struggle to achieve on-level academic proficiency, as measured by standardized tests, due to differences in grade-level content and measures across school districts (Rose & Bradshaw, 2013). Poor

academic performance, due to factors such as these, lead to increased school dropout rates, decreased probability of college completion, and thus, lower rates of employment retention and upward social and economic mobility (Kuncel et al., 2004; Stinebrickner & Stinebrickner, 2013).

In addition to the primary emphasis on cognitive competency in CCR policy, the actual legislative language of CCR warrants consideration. Granger's (2008) commentary on Berliner's (2005) critique of the use of political rhetoric in federal accountability legislation such as NCLB is also applicable to the CCR policy construct, as student readiness is also something to be thoughtfully nurtured, not imposed or mandated. Berliner noted that as multi-faceted problems like these increase in seriousness, such as the lack of preparedness of graduating students, the more the focus turns to the lesser, more derivative solutions to problems that are easily managed such as increasing proficiency in core subject matter (Granger, 2008). Consequently, a recycled solution feeds directly back into the preceding reform effort under a new purpose and the sequence repeats itself without significant results. Furthermore, the accent on academic achievement alone shifts the primary purpose of education to employability and production, rather than the development of liberally educated and socio-politically aware citizens (Hursh, 2005). Kantor & Lowe (2006) assert that if the US continues to formulate educational policy without support for socio-cultural, economic, and political development for students, we can expect to experience the devolution of educational value in all three arenas in generations to come.

Historical Review of Conation

Both historic and emergent research has identified alternative processes by which students can become CCR, above and beyond the demonstration of certain cognitive capacities. Besides cognition, there exists another neurobiological process and skill set that contributes to and mediates readiness and success in human pursuits, which is *conation*. The review of the literature surrounding conation and the relationship to CCR policy will begin by first examining the expressed need to define CCR, existing definitions and relative frameworks for evaluation and proposed criteria for inclusion of CCR skills and knowledge. Next, a historical review of conation and the application of conative skills in contemporary professional fields will be explored, as well as a more focused research base for conative skill development and student outcomes in the current context of CCR education reform. Lastly, examples of how states treat conative skills in CCR definitions and policy are offered as specific illustrations of how CCR skills and knowledge are being conceived and implemented by state education agencies (SEAs) and historicized through legislative action. The following supporting research does not privilege conative skills over another skillset, rather it offers: (a) strength to holistic CCR reform efforts, and (b) explanations as to how students develop the dexterity and determination needed to become prepared for, and successful in, any post-secondary pursuit.

The field of psychology has established that there are three domains of the brain: the cognitive, affective, and conative. This tripartite classification system was introduced in German, English, Scottish, and American psychology in the 18th century and continues to be the dominant structure by which, intellect, action, and emotion are organized (Hilgard,

1980). Cognitive functions of the brain are responsible for encoding, storing, and retrieving information (Huitt, 1996). The affective function involves the emotional interpretation of the information, and lastly, the conative function is related to intention, proactivity, motivation, and what Atman (1986), refers to as vectored energy. The Comprehensive Dictionary of Psychological and Psychoanalytical Terms (1958) defines conation as, "That aspect of mental process or behavior by which it tends to develop into something else; an intrinsic "unrest" of the organism...almost the opposite of homeostasis. A conscious tendency to act; a conscious striving...Impulse, desire, volition" (p. 104).

Evolution of Conative Theory. In order to better understand how conation, as both a developmental and iterative process, is informed by an individual's ability to identify goals, and exhibit the motivation and resilience necessary in achieving those goals, we must begin with the originating and more abstract philosophies about humans, goals and the concept of desire. From these philosophies were born scientific theories about: (a) how and why humans think and act as they do, and (b) from where in the brain do these functions originate. The degree to which these endeavors have been successful in providing a sense of valid or reliable truth about conation and concrete measurable outcomes is highly debated. However, contemporary application of such philosophies and scientific theories are evident a variety of professional fields of inquiry and have yielded some fascinating results and products.

Aristotle (350 BCE) first described conation in his works *Organon* as the process of wishing and desire and expressed belief that functions of the mind were hierarchically arranged and metaphysically governed. This gave rise to a dichotomous distinction

between provinces of thought and action. The teleological philosophies of Aristotle and Plato began to decline in 1600's, and a new paradigm for causality of human action emerged, most notably with the writings of Dutch philosopher Spinoza. In Part III of his work *Ethics*, Spinoza rejected teleological theory and the prominent Cartesian theories on mind/body dualism, and laid the foundation for the Enlightenment period in the 18th century, stating that a being's *conatus* is the reason for being, its essence and the willed endeavor to persevere (Carriero, 2005). This was altogether detached from the prominent notion of God's plan or purpose for man's existence

As the leader of Haskalah, the Jewish Enlightenment, Mendelssohn (1755, in Sorkin, 2013) stretched the philosophy further and exhibited the first effort to divide and organize the tripartite structure and modes of the brain into cognitive, affective and conative. Support from Kant solidified the trichotomous structure of the brain as the prevailing theory. Through Kant's (1794), deontological philosophy that conation, as desire or will, is governed through laws as *a priori* prescriptions of reason (e.g., the categorical imperative), he challenged the competing empiricist philosophies of Locke and Hume on the constitution of man's free will and established a reciprocal relationship between reason and action.

Beginning in the 1960's, a revival of Kantian philosophy in the area of epistemology occurred, along with a renewed support for the assertion that any being capable of learning, has conations, and that those conations lay the groundwork for personal epistemic norms of learning (Petersen, 2005). Petersen (2005) explains this in action as follows: When an individual meets a goal, it is achieved through a process of matching

cognitions (what we know) to conations (what we do), thus minimizing what humans perceive as error, resulting in a self-reinforcing and pragmatic approach to goal attainment. In 1871, Charles Darwin wrote *The Descent of Man* and was amongst the first to examine the conscience, a conative disposition, as a scientific endeavor (Darwin, 2003).

This gave way for the evolution of the higher order mental process theories and psychometry used by significant social and intellectual analysts such as Galton, Binet, and Spearman nearly a century later. Now there existed a way to explain the relationship between action, values and intellect (Brody, 2000). Piaget and Gesell then applied these constructions to school readiness testing (Kaufman, 1971). Around the same time, MacLean (1949), a neurosurgeon who specialized in psychosomatic disease, is cited as the first to link the trilogy of the mind theories to the natural science of the brain. Although he never explicitly stated that there were three completely independent areas, he was able to describe discrete functions within each.

Also evident is a surviving influence of Enlightenment philosophy in the area of faculty psychology. Research conducted by the educational psychologist W. Huitt (1997) declares that conation is the link between the cognitive and affective parts of the brain and contributes in some way to every neurobiological function. For Huitt, conation provided the explanation for why people focus their attention on something and then set their minds on accomplishment and through this process construct reason for being (Huitt & Cain, 2005).

Contemporary Applications and Support. The Kolbe A Index, developed by Kathy Kolbe, was designed to measure the conative facets of the mind and is the leading index

used in business management. Like the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the Goal Orientation Index (GOI), this index identifies “natural talents”, which Kolbe describes as “the instinctive method of operation (M.O.) that enables you to be productive” (Kolbe Corp, n.d.). Kolbe has since linked four universal human instincts used in creative problem solving to conative processes, however there has not been a reliable measure developed to validate this idea. These instinctual behaviors that comprise the four Kolbe Action Modes include: (1) Fact Finder - the instinctive way we gather and share information, (2) Follow Thru - the instinctive way we arrange and design, (3) Quick Start - the instinctive way we deal with risk and uncertainty, and (4) Implementer - the instinctive way we handle space and tangibles (Kolbe, 1990, 2003, 2005).

Conative skill development has a positive impact on mental health and rehabilitation as well. Originating in Oregon, developers of the Better People Program designed a sixteen-step *Moral Recondition Therapy* (MRT®) program with the purpose of reducing recidivism rates by changing one’s behavior and thinking. The program is used in conjunction with cognitive behavioral therapy and supplemental assistance with employment attainment and retention. A recent independent study reported a decrease in recidivism for those who participated in the program, and another study conducted by the National Institute of Justice reported a significant reduction in both misconduct and recidivism (Boston et al., 2005; NIJJ, 1997).

Aside from psychology, the field of education has the second longest historical extension of conative theory development and application, albeit extremely punctuated. Alexander Bain, the founder of *Mind*, the first published journal of psychology, is cited as

the original scholar to apply conation to the field of education in his text *Education as a Science* (Militello et al., 2006). Here, Bain (1878) suggests that motivation need be considered when examining the art of educating and through this text, describes initial research on the variance in human learning styles, goal-directed behavior, and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation.

For decades, arguments in educational psychology circulated about how to best define and operationalize conation due to the controversy surrounding the classification of motivation as a conative function (Poulsen, 1991). Eventually, conative theory fell out of active inquiry, only to be mentioned in passing debates at the turn of the 20th century by MacDougal in his critique of behaviorism and briefly again in social work in the US by Freudian proponent Otto Rank (Brand, 2005; Taft, 1958). However, it is not until the 1980's that scholars such as Atman (1986) and Davis (1996) as well as Snow & Jackson (1997) discuss conative theories of education and resume the scientific inquiry.

Atman (1986) examined the abilities of distance learners and what she refers to goal accomplishment. From there, she fleshes out the concept of conation and creates a taxonomy categorizing five conative stages:

1. Perception: openness to multiple forms of sensory and intuitive stimuli. It is important at this stage for the individual to be able to perceive relationships and flow among phenomena.
2. Focus: the ability to distinguish a particular stimulus or pattern from the background. This is the stage at which the individual establishes a goal or desired end result.

3. Engagement: the individual begins to more closely examine the goal and its features, beginning to develop an action plan as to how the goal can be accomplished.
4. Involvement: the individual begins to implement the action plan. Depending upon the level of attention shown in each of the previous stages, this involvement can range from minimal to absorbed.
5. Transcendence: the individual is completely immersed in the task “in such a manner that the mind/body/task become one”. (p. 18).

Not long after, Davis (1996) conducted an analysis of research using other indices of conation such as the MBTI and the GOI to determine the conative capacity of distance learning students and found that distance learners exhibit high rates of volitional control over their behavior and intrinsic motivation to learn. Building off these studies, Snow & Jackson (1997) used a systems approach to learning and created a provisional taxonomy that situates conation between cognition and affection and asserted that conative processes explains individual differences in learning styles that cannot be investigated through traditional intelligence testing methods.

Most recently, conation has been applied directly to CCR in a way that accentuates student ownership over learning as a key productive behavior. Conley & French (2013) are in the process of testing a five-part model for ownership of learning, one that compliments their previous four-part CCR model centered on cognition, and includes the following components: motivation and engagement, goal orientation and self-direction, self-efficacy and self-confidence, metacognition and self-monitoring, and persistence.

Conative Skill Development in the Context of CCR. Conative skills circulate in CCR discussions under many different labels, such as: higher-order thinking skills (HOTS), social-emotional learning (SEL) and more broadly, soft or non/meta-cognitive skills (Forster, 2004; Greenberg et al., 2003; Le et al., 2005; Roderick et al., 2009). The emphasis placed on the acquisition of these skills moves beyond the traditional examination of what students should know, and more toward exploring and supporting how and why they know and through what means are they able to validate and transfer what they learn through analysis, synthesis and evaluation (Conley & French, 2013; Kohn, 2013). Furthermore, these skills exemplify a three-fold principle of experience, consciousness, and responsiveness, by which students learn to navigate their academic, professional and personal lives in a way that benefits them and greater society (Dymnicki et al., 2013; Eisner, 2010; Overtom, 2000).

Lewis & Smith (1993) first defined HOTS as skills related to problem-solving and critical thought processes. In more contemporary conceptions, HOTS include the aforementioned explicit cognitive strategies and offer explanations as to how they are driven by conative processes like research and synthesis skills (Alliance for Excellence in Education, 2007; Wiley et al., 2010). While HOTS have the tendency to be applied alongside of academic knowledge, the Partnership for 21st Century Skills (2010) suggests that cognitive and conative skills be nurtured concurrently in order to achieve mastery in the practical application of knowledge.

For decades, conation has been referred to in social science literature as *executive function* (Baumeister et al., 1998), or *self-regulation* (Bandura, 1991). More recently, the

Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL, n.d.), parses out these notions into five core competencies (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making skills), which comprise what is referred to as the social emotional learning (SEL) index, a more holistic approach to conative skill development. Shelton (2000) outlines the need for SEL Feedback Sources such as parent and teacher observation beginning in kindergarten through grade 4, and support for student self-knowledge in grades five through twelve, which allow distinctions to be made in students including emotional, mental and physical centeredness. Additionally, awareness and management of stressors are noted as key to academic accomplishment as well (Shelton & Stern, 2003).

Meta-cognitive skills such adaptability and communication skills, and the emergent theories on *grit* have also been studied for their effects on post-secondary readiness (Duckworth et al., 2007). Currently, there is no empirical evidence to support any correlation between grit and CCR. However, Appatova & Hiebert (2014) assert that student activities in college and work environments require a higher level of metacognitive reading abilities and critical thought in order to achieve self-supervision and independent evaluation in technology based educational pursuits such as research, synthesis, and analysis.

Effects of Conative Skill Development on Student Post-Secondary Readiness.

In tandem with the preliminary findings, the Student Readiness Inventory (SRI) is undergoing further development, as an empirical model for approaching post-secondary student readiness factors, which if nurtured, are positively correlated to post-secondary

success (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). ACT, Inc. developed the SRI through twenty years of researching the conative facets of post-secondary success and retention. The inventory contains 10 sets of measures, including: Academic Discipline, Academic Self-Confidence, Commitment to College, Communication Skills, Steadiness, General Determination, Goal Striving, Social Activity, Social Connection, and Study Skills (Peterson et al., 2006). Post-secondary institutions are encouraged to make use of the SRI as an early intervention instrument and to better identify appropriate resources and supports for students who are considered at-risk for academic probation or dropout. While the SRI is considered comprehensive, and a useful tool, it is cumbersome to manage and is only applicable to post-secondary students.

Other methods of examining and fostering conative skill sets that can be implemented earlier in a student's academic pathway may be a more sensible approach to ensuring readiness. New approaches to the collective skill set HOTS have identified a relationship between critical, transferable, reflective, and creative thinking and independent learning skills, higher self-esteem, increased breadth and depth of content knowledge (Brookhart, 2010). Similarly, regarding SEL skills, a relationship to academic/social cognition, engagement, navigation, and success, as well as increased attention, decoding and communication ability has been found (Kuncel & Hezlett, 2010; NRC, 2011).

It is important to note however, neither HOTS nor SEL skills have causal support for CCR specifically. Nevertheless, both HOTS and SEL have been embedded in various K-12 state academic standards and policy with the anticipation of achieving post-secondary

readiness by high school graduation (Table 2). The foundational conative skills, which comprise HOTS and SEL, have a growing research base in improving overall academic, social, health, and politico-economic outcomes of students. At the forefront of all state standards including conative skills are self-awareness and self-management, which have a wide research base in demonstrating efficacy in personal, educational, and professional improvement (Flavian, 2016; Jackson & Wilton, 2017; Kuh et al., 2006; Radu, 2017; Wibrowski et al., 2017).

Table 2: Examples of HOTS and SEL Indicators

State Standard	Conative Components
Illinois Early Learning and Development Standards ³	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-awareness and self-management skills to achieve school and life success. • Social-awareness and interpersonal skills to establish and maintain positive relationships. • Decision-making skills and responsible behaviors in personal, school, and community contexts.
Pennsylvania Standards for Student Interpersonal Skills ⁴	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-awareness and self-management • Establishing and maintaining Relationships • Decision-making and responsible behavior
Kansas Social, Emotional, and Character Development Standards ⁵	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal management and relationship skills • Respectful and responsible action • Safe and civil school environment • Bullying/harassment prevention
Indiana Academic Standards for Young Children ⁶	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sense of self and others • Manages emotions • Interpersonal skills • Responsibility • Problem solving • Approaches to learning

³ For more detailed information on state standards please visit http://www.isbe.net/earlychi/pdf/early_learning_standards.pdf

⁴ For more detailed information on state standards please visit <http://www.pdesas.org>

⁵ For more detailed information on state standards please visit http://www.ksde.org/Portals/0/CSAS/Content%20Area%20%28MZ%29/School%20Counseling/Soc_Emot_Char_Dev/SECD%20FINAL.pdf

⁶ For more detailed information on state standards please visit <http://www.doe.in.gov/sites/default/files/curriculum/indianafoundations-february-2012.pdf>

Wisconsin Model Early Learning Standards ⁷	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional development • Self-concept • Social competence • Curiosity, engagement, and persistence • Creativity and imagination • Diversity in learning • Exploration, discovery, and problem solving
Florida's Next Generation Sunshine State Standards for Social Studies ⁸	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Problem solving • Creativity • Cross-cultural understanding • 21st Century Skills: Collaboration, Communication, Critical Thinking

Academic outcomes. Through linking conative skills such as drives and goals to expectations and values, increased levels of post-secondary adjustment and persistence are viable outcomes (Covington, 2000; Dweck, 1999; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Pintrich, 2000; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003). Many of these skills have been examined individually as well. For instance, Schmitt (2012) found that student adaptability is predictive of post-secondary achievement and career success. Richardson et al. (2012) conducted a systematic review and analysis of problem-solving skills, both independent and collaborative, and concluded that students with a strong problem-solving skill set exhibit higher academic and professional performance. Both Conley (2003) and Burris & Murphy (2013) find the same is true of a student's ability to think critically. Schmitt (2012) also noted that strong communication skills are positively correlated with post-secondary course completion and credit accumulation. Student motivational factors have been positively correlated with post-secondary academic achievement and persistence (Robbins et al., 2004). Lastly, research on both self-efficacy (Lee et al., 2007) and self-management

⁷ For more detailed information on state standards please visit <http://ec.dpi.wi.gov/sites/default/files/imce/fscp/pdf/ec-wmels-rev2013.pdf>

⁸ For more detailed information on state standards please visit http://www.fldoe.org/bii/curriculum/social_studies/pdf/NGSSSPsych-SocStandards.pdf

(DeBerard et al., 2004) have determined a positive correlation with a smoother high school to college transition, post-secondary core content academic achievement and persistence rates.

Social outcomes. The body of literature on post-secondary persistence reveals that conative skills, such as social engagement and support-seeking behaviors, along with academic commitment as self-efficacy, self-management, and integration, lead to student social success as well (Cabrera et al., 1992; Otis et al., 2005; Senko & Harackiewicz, 2005). Social awareness is positively correlated with school connectedness, and an increased sense of belonging (Resnick et al., 1997). Likewise, increased self-awareness is positively correlated with the ability to identify, describe, and understand emotions and help seeking behavior (Mayer et al., 2004). Mattanah et al. (2012) offer support to building better relationship skills, as these skills demonstrate a positive correlation with reduced feelings of loneliness, and increased feelings of social support and college-level retention.

Health and wellness outcomes. There is large body of research that explicitly links conative skills to health-related outcomes in adults, yet few establish a direct relationship to CCR. A well-developed conative skill set is associated with positive behavior in students increasing health and overall psychological wellness. A series of analyses have concluded that this is done by decreasing: impulse-based decision-making, careless or depressive attitudes, and harmful chronic actions (hyper-sexuality, substance abuse, vandalism and suicide), which place students at risk for: school/ job training dropout, as well as overall un-employability (Diekstra & Gravesteyn, 2008; Wilson et al., 2001; Zins et al., 2004).

Civic outcomes. In addition to higher academic achievement, motivation, engagement, and persistence- a small body of literature describes conflict resolution skills, a sense of civic duty, multi-directional agency, and relationship building as being associated with the promotion and acquisition of these conative skills (CASEL, 2005; Durlack et al., 2011; Zins & Elias, 2006). At this time, scholars such as Robbins et al. (2004), assert that there is a need for an integration of current motivational and persistence theories about psychosocial indicators and predictors of post-secondary readiness. The convergence of these theories would be practical for CCR application, as the presumed goal of CCR reform is to prepare graduating students for a globally competitive, highly educated, proactive civic life as adults.

Summary

The constant coordination of efforts between education and workforce systems requires an enormous amount of cooperation and merging of ideologies and resources in order to: (a) benefit all parties involved, (b) ensure productivity and (c) create a sustainable infrastructure for post-secondary student success. Given the diversity seen in the body of research and policy, the myriad of workforce needs demanded by a globally competitive nation and the host of post-secondary options available, the venture of easing the transition for students is not without convolution or limitation. One way to begin assessing what is appropriate for each state is to build definitions of readiness and success that incorporate each of the CCR categories mentioned (content, pathways, and life-long learning skills) that will in turn, uniformly meet state and student's needs. A more focused consideration would be that states re-evaluate their required educational and workforce

skills, with respect to the way life-long learning skills are acquired, developed, and refined through conative processes. This may, in turn, account for and promote upward student mobility over the course of their lifetime, and not just for the duration of their academic and occupational training, growing the success of our nation.

In 2000, every state in the nation was given an “incomplete” in the student learning category by the National Center for Public Policy and Higher Education, signaling the overall scarcity of comprehensive knowledge needed for students to succeed in post-secondary environments (Dwyer et al., 2006). Nearly a decade later the situation had not improved, as stated by the National Center for Public Policy and Higher Education and the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB)(2010), “nearly 60 percent of first-year college students discover that, despite being fully eligible to attend college, they are not academically ready for postsecondary studies” (p. 1).

Since this time, scholars such as Maruyama (2012) have concluded that CCR efforts should continue to use cognitively based benchmarks in standardized assessments, but that these benchmarks require a more substantive sense of meaning and consequence for graduating students, along with a position on a spectrum of readiness, rather than the traditional dichotomous approach of ‘ready or not’. This requires the inclusion of conative processes and skills as an integral component of readiness that ultimately leads to success. Olson (2007) explains in her Education Week editorial, that both boards of higher education and workforce development have measurable concern that students are graduating high school, applying for college admission and entry-level employment without critical conative skills such as the ability to: (a) present information that is

persuasive or supported by synthesized evidence, and (b) work collaboratively, creatively, professionally, and ethically, which therefore, relegate them to lower-paying jobs overtime.

The breadth and depth of research on conation, as it relates to CCR, is fast growing and attempts to be responsive to real time changes CCR policy and programming. The inclusion of conative knowledge and skills in CCR reform is projected to relieve much of the criticism set forth by holistic education reformers and supports the argument that the traditionally exclusive focus on cognitive development is insufficient in truly preparing youth for adulthood. Promising CCR policy formulation, which addresses the acquisition of these integral skills as a discrete skillset in a more generalized 'life readiness and success' agenda, exemplifies a long-needed shift in conventional CCR ideology. We may now look toward one that reaches beyond the confines of the classroom or workplace and produces citizens who feel confident and comfortable in their agency and ability when pursuing their goals over a lifetime. We should also continue to learn from on-going research efforts to learn more about how to capture and measure these skills in order to convey their importance and influence on student learning. In the meantime, cross-agency communications on research findings and the continuation of inter-disciplinary dialogue and support in CCR reform are necessary to avoid the removal of conation from praxis back to philosophy.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Overview

This study is designed to investigate state policy-making climates that prove conducive to the inclusion of conative skills in the broader college and career readiness reform efforts. The specific research questions formulated to fulfill this purpose are two-fold: (1) how do states engage with conative skill development through statewide College and Career Readiness policy, and (2) through what means do states reinforce these efforts through additional reactive and proactive state policy, legislation, advocacy, and resources? This will involve a thorough examination of state CCR policy and related supports and resources, as well as insight given by state education agency representatives into what and how CCR factors, such as required skills and knowledge, are considered when developing state-level CCR policy and programming. Specific attention will be paid to the decision-making processes, means, and types of information gathering and supporting seeking activities around conative skills and knowledge.

Theoretical Frameworks Guiding the Research and Analysis

Critical Theory

Moses (2002) discusses philosophy in educational research as a point of departure from the traditional empirical analyses because it requires critical thought and investigative processes. Giroux (1997) and Osborne (1990) similarly pose a critique on the utility of critical theory if it cannot be effectively transformed into practice. Shor (1996) brings this perspective into the discourse surrounding post-secondary application. Other critical factors to consider for the current context of access and security are gender,

race/ethnicity, class, and sexuality (Kohli, 1998; Lather, 2001). As scholars such as Apple (1990), Kozol (1991), McLaren (2003), and Tatum (1999) consistently note, the intersection of these factors directly inform if, and to what degree, access and security is granted to those not fitting neatly into the dominant ideologies reigning in educational and career-oriented endeavors.

Much as Lukacs (1971) describes the history of reifying victims of injustice and inequity in socio-economic and political arenas through disconnected activism, the same rings true for those who are historically, and systematically under-represented and marginalized in the educational arena. The idea that current positivistic socio-political and economic conditions exist to maintain the dominant hegemonic structures that govern post-secondary access and opportunity, despite the increase in activism and educational reform centered on student success, is no less relevant an argument today as it was four decades ago (Horkheimer & Adorno, 1972). In order to effectively release our students from the factory model of education, as citizens with both individual and collective worth, we must first publicly problematize the way in which educational policy is formulated to maintain the status quo. Second, there is a need to demystify the benefits of hyper-consumerism and identify its role and effect on the post-secondary choices that students believe they have (Habermas, 1987; Marcuse, 1972). Third, we should acknowledge the post-structural contributions to critical theory made by Derrida (1981, 1987), on the construction and deconstruction of *definition*. Where education policy is concerned, the effectiveness of its implementation rests first upon a shared understanding of terms, or jargon, consisting of operationalized definitions, concepts, actions, and measures. This

language is never objectively constructed, and yet, the expectation is that it will be objectively construed.

Consequently, there is no valid *grande narrative* for post-secondary readiness or success in our nation as it pertains to student experience. The pluralized histories of American sub-populations attending and graduating from school, and subsequently attaining careers, are wrought with tension and muted by both (re)colonization and industrial-age capitalism (Lyotard, 1984; Turner 1990). Foucault (1970, 1980) suggests that in order to understand discourse in any arena, we must acknowledge and account for the context in which the language and meaning are developed. In deconstructing the current narrative of CCR for all students, we must move away from discussions and policy formulation centered on product and look more closely at developing and strengthening the inputs. CCR research, policy and programming should be conducted in a manner that is reflexive and contra-hegemonic, as every student and all students represent the diversity of knowledge and capabilities upon which the success of our nation is contingent (Gouldner, 1976; O'Neill, 1972). Critical theory legitimizes whole-person value and promotes open-access and opportunity and thus makes nemeses of both neoliberalized politico-economic rationality and managerialism which seek to deconstruct the whole person into currently in-demand skillsets (Boyce, 2004; Kincheloe & McLaren, 1997; Lovat, 2004).

Social Learning Theory

As mentioned earlier, corporatism is dedicated to the devaluation of individuals and the re-moralization of society (Brown, 2006; O'Malley, 1996; Spring, 2008). Yet, these same figures claim to serve as our role models and representatives. If they are who we

should aspire to be, then it is no wonder why there is such great social unrest and economic disparity. An array of negative psycho- and physiological disorders such as maladaptive emotional response, obsessive-compulsive or irrationally defensive behavior arise as a result of inappropriate pairing of stimulus and experience, i.e., provision of a model of success and failing to succeed when using said model (Bandura, 1977; Wren, 1982). Social learning theory (SLT) can be employed as a lens through which we can investigate the roles and rules of conscious multi-culturality in a mono-cultural, oppressive power structure (Barclay, 1982; Thyer & Wodarski, 1990). The progress of the corporatist agenda in CCR is mounted on the SLT ability to predict human behavior through stimulus/response exercises, and through understanding how to shift an individual's *locus of control* from internal to external (Rotter, 1960). SLT is therefore, in a unique position to explain both the problem- why corporatism inserts itself into the CCR national reform agenda, as well as the resolution- the need to include and reinforce conative skill development in our sprouting citizens to reverse the damage.

Critical Intercultural Communication Theory

If we utilize critical theory as a means to identify the root causes of inefficacy of the general CCR model, and social learning theory to investigate the why and how-for of the consequences, it would seem that critical intercultural communication theory (CIC) can begin to explain the ways in which we can move forward in formulating resolutions. CIC is a promising theoretical conversation in the field of communication that addresses how culture, language, and power intersect in any form of communication. For the purposes of my research, I will use this lens to thread together some of the seemingly disparate issues

surrounding the notions of learning and identity, power and socio-economic relations, and politics surrounding the historical construct of educational systems and policies.

Nakayama & Halualani (2010) wrote the newest handbook on CIC after years of using varied approaches to critical theory in their own work, noting that critical perspectives often need more historical context concerning the ways that power differentials emerge and shift over time regarding intercultural forms of communication. Additionally, culture, as a *site of struggle* (Martin & Nakayama, 2000), was introduced as a topic of investigation that called for a need to delve deeper into the interplay between power relationships and ideologies (Collier et al., 2001; Cooks, 2001; Moon, 1996; Starosta & Chen, 2003). Traditional critical theories are adept at examining the macro-level domains of differentiated power, control, and management between larger cultural groups that are often covert. CIC attempts to follow these pathways through to the micro-level domains of communication within a cultural group to reveal micro-acts and processes that constitute the whole.

Though relatively new, CIC has received critiques about the tediousness of needing to examine such a vast array of intercultural factors at once such as: age/generation, race/ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, religion/spirituality, language, social-economic status, political affiliations, diasporic positionality, etcetera (Collier, 1998; Drzewiecka, 1999; González et al., 1994; González & Peterson, 1993; Hall, 1992; Halualani, 1998, 2000; Lee et al., 1995; Martin & Nakayama, 1999; Moon, 1996). Halualani, et al. (2003), address this concern by reframing the investigative context to one that problematizes the use of the broader categorical cultural assignments to depict a population of individuals whose

differences account for much of what is left unknown in broader macro-level cultural inquiry. CIC is not reductionist in nature, rather it narrows the scope of the question at hand in order to parse out how and why macro-level institutions, systems, and norms are unsuccessful or rejected at the micro-level between interactants within the larger population.

For CIC, culture, as a site of struggle, involves not only specific demographic data of individuals, but also the ways in which these data categories rotate on axes dependent upon time and place while an individual vies for power and autonomy. Halualani et al. (2003), note that culture is not to be viewed within this framework as an essential set of characteristics or psychosocial tendencies of a whole group sharing a space. According to Hall (1985), culture is a place for communicating ideas, through symbols and meanings, between dominant structures and the people whom are governed by these structures. And through agency, or active participation, populations can recreate or reconstitute, intertwine or detangle, these meanings in ways that make sense to them, ultimately with the goal of large-scale power change.

CIC has specific value to the construct of educational policymaking, the communication of policy through language and text, and the adoption of such meanings as a culture of learning and best practices. Hall (1980) asks us to re-conceptualize communication, not as a linear process of encoding, sending and then decoding and receiving meaning, but as a process of articulation, adding risk to the equation. This breaks fast and hard from traditional theories of communicating put forth by Slack (2006), where a guaranteed outcome of understanding is the result of the linear process. Through the

process of articulation, one must account for micro-level disagreements of meanings, messages, and symbols set forth by words and phrases in different forms of language that come about from historic shifts of power and privilege. The goal then is not to situate a problem within a context, but to map the context itself to better understand the problem (Grossberg, 1992).

The concept of interculturality is of importance to the investigation of policy formulation, as policy must be firm enough to address a specific issue with direction and resolve, yet flexible enough to cover all interests, understandings, and adaptations. In a country like the United States, where demographically speaking, we are as diverse as they come, yet unified under the auspices of democracy, policy formulation is undertaken by those participating in hegemonic systems. Discursive spaces between private individuals, and those between public groups in the policy environment lack a needed connectivity due to perceptions in cultural differences. Halualani et al. (2009), ask us to examine culturally different “‘dialogue partners’ to the intersecting layers of cultural, discursive, and signifying practices that constitute power relations within and around groups. [and that] “‘inter’ and ‘intra’ could symbolize temporarily useful spatial metaphors for re-thinking how culture involves contested sites of identification as opposed to others and the resulting political consequences” (p. 17).

It is through this integrated approach of CIC that I may be able to explain, vis-à-vis discourse analysis, aspects of political economy, and ethnographic narrative, where, how and why there exists a CCR policy reform effort that violates traditional hegemonic

constructs in order to uplift the traditionally excluded through inclusion of conative values that prove beneficial to the whole.

Research Sample

The data that will be gathered for analysis will consist of a purposeful sample of the 50 states and the District of Columbia. The remaining US territories will not be included as these territories do not share a similar educational infrastructure and therefore will not provide for an equitable comparison. Below is a table that outlines the *a priori* criteria for state inclusion in the case study (Table 3).

Table 3: Criteria for Inclusion in the Case Study

Criteria for Inclusion	If no, then...	If yes, then...
1. Statewide definition for CCR	Excluded	Must meet next criterion
2. CCR definition includes conative skillset	Excluded	Must meet next criterion
3. Conative skillset is tied to measures and outcomes	Excluded	Must meet next criterion
4. Conative skillset development is supported by P-20 Council	Excluded	Considered for case study

Overview of Data Elements

Once states, which meet the required criteria, are identified, one state, which can be used as a model will be chosen. A case study approach will be employed to offer a description of the CCR reform, conditions, and considerations. All data elements included for examination are required to be considered public record. These records may exist as public record documents, Internet web pages and archival resources such as: codified law and policy, handbooks, guides, toolkits and public media. Below (Table 4) is an outline of the *a priori* data elements of interest to the descriptive aspect of the case study and the way in which they align with the primary research questions. *A posteriori* themes will emerge; therefore an *ex post facto* analysis will follow. Each data element will help to provide

context for understanding the environment in which the CCR policy is formulated and implemented, and to what degree is the commitment envisioned as permanent, progressive and sustainable. At no time is it expected that these themes would be causally linked to either their acceptance or inclusion of conative skills in their CCR definition development, or to the overall successes or shortcomings in their larger CCR reform efforts.

Table 4: Alignment of Research Questions and Data Elements

RQ1. How do states engage with conative skill development through statewide College and Career Readiness policy?	RQ2. Through what means do states reinforce these efforts through additional reactive and proactive state policy, legislation, advocacy and resources?
State policy and legislation	Research partnerships (federal, private, non-profit) Programs (statewide, targeted)
State reports, planning proposals and meeting memorandums	Funding (federal, state, private) Advocacy (parent/family, community, business, education)
Public media documents: public hearings, speeches, press releases	Collaborations (cross-state, regional, national)

Research Design

In keeping with the belief that CCR policy is constructed through a democratic process in a transparent governance system, there are two important factors to consider in the research design. The first is that the choice to solely include data that is federally mandated to be public record was deliberate and will help to better understand the degree to which SEA's are confident in: (a) releasing such information as valid and reliable, and (b) being held accountable for the information presented to the public, by the public. The second factor lends itself to the choice of the research method, critical discourse analysis (CDA). We as American citizens, as denoted by the term democracy (*dēmos* 'the people' + *-kratia* 'power'), have the right to examine our social, economic and political systems through a critical lens, question the veracity of governmental claims used to inform

governance practices, and choose to either support or protest these practices. It is for this reason that CDA emerges as the most relevant method for research of this nature. Equally important is the choice for presenting findings in a case study format. The nature of this research, at its core, is highly philosophical and descriptive. Using a case study approach will offer a broad understanding of included the state's CCR policy environments, using political, social, and economic descriptions and considerations for each case, in addition to the results yielded from the CDA. Together these two methods will create the most holistic portrayal of the state's choices to include conative skills in their broader CCR reform efforts.

Data Collection

There will be three main sources used to gather the primary data needed to construct the case study for each state, and because the data must be publicly available, the parameters are limited to the following methods:

1. State Education Agency public records (online and archived)
2. Private and non-profit organization resources (online and archived)
3. Codified law and policy (e.g., Education Department General Administrative Regulations (EDGAR) and Code of Federal Regulations (CFR's))

Data Analysis Methods

Most often, policy analysis is employed to gauge the progress towards these goals by connecting student achievement outcomes with the implementation of specific legislation and partnered programming and curriculum. As of late, policy analysis and CCR research has incorporated more qualitative factors that have been absent from most historical

conversations surrounding CCR, including psychosocial indicators within the category of conative skills. Policy analysis, from a broader perspective, has been ascribed a multitude of labels ranging from *conformist* to *avant-garde*, aligning the scholarship and practice with either politics, social justice, economics or science; rarely is it addressed or treated as the amalgam of such (Hein, 2010a). Hawkesworth (1988) and Deleon (1994) have presented policy analysts with an argument that most work conducted on this topic has been overly managerialistic and lacking in critical perspective. This becomes particularly problematic when narrowing the focus to education. Not only does the educational policy-making environment and respective agendas shift with each political administration, also do the means, methods and validity of analysis and evaluation. Other factors such as: meaning, context, language, subjectivity and interpretation have been brought into education policy analysis by scholars such as Codd (1988) and Jansen & Peshkin (1992) as a means to link the aforementioned changing processes of policy making to the practical application of these policies, marking policy-making as the process and struggle over meaning and policy text as the outcome of the process. Miller (1996), proposed a conceptual framework that continues to influence policymakers. He advised that a framework for effective policy should: (1) establish specific parameters and measurements of success, (2) delineate the philosophical and practical foundations of the field, (3) account for historical events in the field, (4) provide a forum of understanding and (5) allow for critical evaluation and accommodate change over time.

More recently, a long-awaited change in theoretical focus has prompted educational policy scholars to re-evaluate their methods of critiquing CCR policy at the national level.

Since the early 1900's, social efficiency and behaviorist theory has dominated the CCR curriculum, policy construction and implementation. Scholars such as Allen & Prosser (1925), who were solely concerned with the political and economic aspects of policy making, are now being challenged for not incorporating learning theory into their examination of CCR policy. Ideas of culture and context were introduced into CCR policy research as early competition to Allen and Prosser by scholars such as Dewey (1916), but did not gain substantive momentum leading toward a more comprehensive approach to analysis until the late 1980's- early 1990's. Unfortunately, the student, as an actor in larger society, has remained absent in focus, despite the environmental conditions, and only recently has become a central component of CCR development and progress.

Critical-constructivist theory in policy analysis accounts for these missing cultural, temporal and contextual components and therefore, has been met with much opposition due to the myriad of ways that its supporters accept the production and transfer of knowledge (Driscoll, 1994). Supporters of the central tenets of critical-constructivist theory, who also acknowledge its shortcomings, have taken on the challenge through what is referred to as *critical policy analysis*. Building off of the concepts of social learning (Vygotsky, 1978) and reflective abstraction (Piaget, 1977), critical policy analysts, look for the existence of language associated with these theories within the policy text, investigate the translation of policy text into practical application and use student data to either support or refute the efficacy of the policy. Camp (1982, 1983, 1984) and Conley (2007b, 2008, 2009, 2011, 2012) have openly criticized the social efficiency models and have by far, done the most extensive research on how to re-mold various extremes of critical-

constructivism which in turn, has contributed to the construction of a set of guidelines specifically for efficacious CCR curriculum: (1) CCR must appreciate all modes and methods of student understanding by incorporating physical, psychological and social interaction; (2) CCR students must be equipped with a core set of currently accepted knowledge and skills; (3) CCR knowledge and skills are dynamic and students must demonstrate adaptability; and (4) CCR students can and will become occupationally self-regulated, self-mediated, and self-aware individual.

Yet, there is still a need for a broader arrangement of scholarly contributions to this perspective in the literature, ones that reflect on current issues through a more historical lens. Scholars, such as Herbert M. Kliebard, Diane Ravitch, and Chris T. Cross are stellar examples and continue to lead in this effort. The way these factors have intersected throughout the history of educational reform efforts could prove to be a practical determinant in gauging the degree of improvement and levels of expansion of future CCR policy and programming. Through the identification of concrete connections between political and economic factors and events in history and how they have manipulated educational theory and policy either in favor of scholarship or employability, the evolution of CCR can be more thoroughly investigated and placed into a larger context in contemporary society.

Critical Discourse Analysis. The choice to employ CDA as the primary data analysis method is based on CDA's ability to directly address: (a) the processes of policy translation and re-contextualization of policy construction in specific local settings, and (b) the power relationships and expectations implicit within policy text. Van Dijk (2003)

outlines the most salient principles behind CDA as the analysis of the complex relationships between dominance and discourse; an explicit sociopolitical stance (e.g., articulated point of view, perspective, principles and aims, within the discipline and society at large); the success of research is measured by its effectiveness and relevance, or, its contribution to change; and the monitoring of theory formation, analytical methods and procedures of empirical research. Wodak & Fairclough (2004) also encourage researchers to consider the following assumptions of CDA in determining its appropriateness as a research method:

- CDA research addresses social problems
- Power relations are discursive
- Discourse constitute society and culture, and is constituted by them
- Discourse does ideological work
- Discourse is historical
- Relations between text and society are mediated and a socio-cognitive approach is needed to understand these links
- Discourse analysis is interpretive and explanatory and implies a systematic methodology and an investigation of context
- Discourse is a form of social action

It is also worth noting that there is a particular importance in examining local CCR policy, rather than national CCR policy, in order to decipher between what Harvey (1996) calls 'globaloney', which is used to explain over-generalized rhetoric surrounding global competitiveness pervasive in current policy analysis, from the actual state-level needs and abilities used to formulate CCR policy and programming. CDA is also in a position to help

determine whether policy practice has changed, or if the change has only occurred in the rhetoric used to design and discuss the policy, resulting in new first-order problems, such as newly emerging skill sets, which lead to new second-order problems such as difficulties in the maintenance of political legitimacy and authority (Ball, 1998). More recently Hajer (2003) added that institutions frequently lack the power to deliver the required policy results and therefore engage in globalized and polycentric networks of governance in which power is dispersed. The emergence of new 'citizen-actors' and new pathways toward mobilization that are born from these unions are critical to the investigation of how, at the local level, states obtain and negotiate power over CCR policy. On the other hand, the rules and norms of policy practice become unclear and the results become difficult to measure. CDA is then an effective method to reveal the process of this outcome and the network through which it travels without the need to rely on measurement to substantiate its existence or effect.

All textual analysis will be conducted using *a priori* deductive and *posteriori* inductive coding methods. Coded text will be entered in an Excel spreadsheet in order to store, code, classify, enumerate, and display qualitative data. A glossary of important educational terminology will be constructed (Appendix A), and a master code list with specific themes drawn from the text will be provided for reference (Appendix B). As the text is read, meaningful segments of text will be divided into analytical units and set aside for analysis and exemplars.

Carter & O'Neill (1995) identified a practice labeled 'the new orthodoxy', marked by a shift in the relationship between politics, governance, and education in complex

Westernized post-industrialized countries such as the United States. In addition to analyzing language directly relating to conative skill inclusion, the five core elements to the new orthodoxy will serve as the basis for additional code construction surrounding the identification of exhibited relationships between politics, economy and power, and are as follows:

1. Improving national economics by tightening the connection between schooling, employment, productivity and trade;
2. Enhancing student outcomes in employment-related skills and competencies;
3. Attaining more direct control over curriculum content and assessment;
4. Reducing the costs to government of education; and
5. Increasing community input to education by more direct involvement in school decision-making and pressure of market choice. (p. 9).

These codes prove useful in developing a hierarchical category system through which state priorities and relationships can be analyzed and described. Once coding is completed, a data matrix will be constructed in order to organize codes around pre-determined and emergent themes, as well as to build a theory around state actions and decision-making where the inclusion of conative skills and knowledge is concerned.

Case Study. Flyvbjerg (2006) asserts that context-dependent knowledge and experience are crucial to any expert activity and are the heart of the case study. Additionally, social science has not been positioned as successful in producing generalizable, context-independent theory, resulting in nothing else but specified and context-dependent knowledge, leaving the case study as the most compatible method to

produce this knowledge (Campbell, 1979). The case study can utilize within-case analysis and/or cross-case comparison of the detailed phenomena within only one or a few cases to produce inferential leverage on complex interactions and events while simultaneously allowing for detailed and holistic analyses (Bennett & Elman, 2006).

Glazer & Strauss (1967), Yin (2008), and Miles & Huberman (1984) have noted the difficulties with theory building from case studies. These issues range from basic problems with identifying inductive logic, to the use of overly prescriptive methods in building the cases themselves. The purpose of employing the case study method is to explain the context and dynamics of a particular environment(s) and should therefore not be constrained by prescription; rather, each case should contain any and all data that is significant to that process. For example, the selection of a case for inclusion in the study will rely heavily upon the theories informing the research questions. Also, a continuous process of reconciling the findings with both supportive and conflictive literature will help to: distinguish generalizable from idiosyncratic evidence, increase internal validity, and inform an iterative process for case development.

Considerations

Ethics

This study is focused on public education policy and therefore will not involve human subjects; rather the data will be gathered from publicly available documents and resources. Consequently, there is no requirement for either informed consent or privacy and confidentiality. However, that does not mean that the study is void or exempt from ethical standards in data collection, analysis and dissemination practices. In researching

ethical considerations for the analysis of public policy, such as education, references to two core concerns are prominent: (1) the fundamental ethical assumption that underlies policy analysis tends to be taken for granted without examination by the people who perform them, and (2) concerns arise about the choice of appropriate values, objectives, goals, and constraints to be adopted in policy studies (Wolf, Jr., 1980). With this in mind, the fundamental ethical assumption that underlies this study is that public education policy is: (a) formulated for the public good, as well as for the protection of public interest, (b) acknowledges and accounts for the variety of competing interests of all stakeholders in educational outcomes, and (c) constructed within a normative framework through which it can be examined (Harrington, 1996). Additionally, Hume (2007) warns social scientists who engage in public policy analysis that while there are obvious ethical and moral considerations for public policy construction and execution, there should not be an attempt to solve these ethical dilemmas through research because there is no reliable method to bridging the existential reality (what is) and the moral prescription (what ought to be).

Quality

There are three means by which this study will maintain: credibility, transferability, and dependability (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). The first is by the systematic use and application of acceptable theoretical frameworks in guiding the research and offering justification for the methodology used (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Malterud, 2001). Second, the validity of the data is dependent upon the publicly released policies, documents, and resources as primary sources accepted by state and federal education agencies and institutions who operate under legal requirements to report and release accurate and

reliable information to the public (Creswell, 2012; Tracy, 2010). Lastly, data triangulation methods will minimize any potential systematic bias common to using only data point and will help to confirm and support data interpretation and analysis (Bamberger et al., 2006; Maxwell, 2009; Shwandt et al., 2007).

Limitations

This study is not intended to serve as a “how-to” guide on CCR policy formulation, nor is it intended to promote or portray any state as a model of best practice. Rather, findings from this study will serve as a resource mapping the context of current state actions, which actively address the need to include conative skills within their CCR framework. All CCR policy and programming should continue to develop and expand in accordance with local context factors and in alignment with what local services, funding and resources are available and appropriate to local context. Equally important to consider is that all data will be gained from publicly available documentation and may not reflect in-progress efforts that have not been made public at the time of data collection.

Case Selection Process

In order to select the state for the case study, CCR definitions, indicators and measures, as well as the existence of support structures and guidance councils from all 50 states and the District of Columbia were surveyed (Table 5). Forty-six states adopted a statewide definition of CCR; yet only 21 states included conative skillsets in those definitions. Seven of the 21 states accounted for conative skills within Common Core State Standards and accompanying assessments, while Nebraska began implementing the Career Education Content Standards and respective measures. Three states met all four criteria

for inclusion. These three states will be examined further in order to determine the most relevant case for analysis and construction of the final case study.

Table 5: Preliminary Investigation of States

Criteria for Inclusion	If yes, then...
1. Statewide definition for CCR	46 states
2. CCR definition includes conative skillset	21 states
3. Conative skillset is tied to measures and outcomes	8 states
4. Conative skill-set development is supported by P-20 Council	3 states

Of the 21 states whose CCR definition included conative skills, to varying degrees or descriptions, only eight (Delaware, Hawai'i, Maryland, Massachusetts, Nebraska, New Jersey, Ohio, and Oregon) included conative skills in their definition of CCR that were integrated into school curricula and programming and then tied to measures and outcomes (Table 6). Most measures used to determine levels of conative skill development in these states are derived or adapted from frameworks and assessment guides provided by CASEL's Assessment Work Group, a collaborative effort between the organization, along with RAND Corporation and Harvard University (CASEL, 2018). Key conative domains of measurement include values, interpersonal processes, and perspectives (Dusenbury et al., 2018) and primarily involve HOTS and SEL skills.

Table 6: Eight State CCR Definitions Which Met Initial Criteria for Inclusion

State	CCR Definition
Delaware	"Each Delaware student will graduate college- and career-ready. Students will be prepared to successfully plan and pursue an education and career path aligned to their personal goals, with the ability to adapt to innovate as job demands change. Students will graduate with strong academic knowledge, the behaviors and skills with which to apply their knowledge, and the ability to collaborate and communicate effectively. Each student should be an independent learner and have respect for a diverse society and a commitment to responsible citizenship" (Center on Education Policy, 2013).
Hawai'i	"Students, who are prepared for meaningful engagement in college, career, and community, have successfully: achieved proficiency in essential content knowledge; mastered key learning skills and cognitive strategies; acquired practical knowledge, enabling successful transitions from high school to college and career; and built a strong

	<p>foundation of identity through an ongoing process of way finding to engage in local, national, and global contexts. By ‘students,’ we mean youth enrolled in Hawai‘i’s public education system recognizing that college, career and community readiness is a lifelong process that begins with early childhood learning. By ‘college,’ we mean two- and four-year post-secondary institutions, trade schools, and technical schools. By ‘career,’ we mean a pathway of employment that provides a family-sustaining wage. By ‘community,’ we mean the set of interdependent relationships among physical, social and/ or cultural groups linked by a shared responsibility for one another, the natural world, and local and global well-being. Students have the content knowledge and skills to be eligible to enroll in credit-bearing, postsecondary courses, workforce training, and/or apprenticeship programs without the need for remediation and complete them successfully. Students are able to navigate through postsecondary program selection and admissions, possess the knowledge and skills to enter into and thrive in a family-sustaining career pathway, and utilize strategies to resolve problems and improve academic performance.</p> <p>Way finding: Students are able to identify their kuleana and work hard to fulfill these responsibilities to their families, ‘āina, community, and future and past generations. Students know what makes their communities unique and become more involved through opportunities such as volunteer service, ecological stewardship, and civic engagement. Students understand and can comfortably interface with diverse perspectives, cultures, and worldviews to flourish in and sustain local and global communities” (Hawai‘i P-20 Partnerships for Education, 2013).</p>
Maryland	<p>“College- and career-readiness includes mastery of rigorous content knowledge and the abilities to apply that knowledge through higher-order skills to demonstrate success in college and careers. This includes the ability to think critically and solve problems, communicate effectively, work collaboratively, and be self-directed in the learning process. More specifically, a student who is college- and career-ready should: be prepared to succeed in credit-bearing postsecondary introductory general education courses or in industry certification programs without needing remediation; be competent in the Skills for Success (SFS) (includes learning, thinking, communication, technology, and interpersonal skills.); have identified potential career goal(s) and understand the steps to achieve them; and be skilled enough in communication to seek assistance as needed, including student financial assistance” (US Department of Education, 2012).</p>
Massachusetts	<p>"Massachusetts students who are college and career ready will demonstrate the knowledge, skills and abilities that are necessary to successfully complete entry-level, credit-bearing college courses, participate in certificate or workplace training programs, and enter economically viable career pathways. In order to meet this goal, the Commonwealth has defined a set of learning competencies, intellectual capacities, and experiences essential for all students to become lifelong learners; positive contributors to their families, workplaces, and communities; and successfully engaged citizens of a global 21st century. Beyond achieving college and career ready levels of competence in English Language Arts/Literacy and Mathematics, all high school students should develop a foundation in the academic disciplines identified in the MassCore course of study: (1) build competencies for workplace readiness as articulated in the Integrating College and Career Task Force Report, and (2) focus on applying academic strategies to problem solving in diverse professional and life contexts, appropriate to individual student goals. Massachusetts will use its 2011 curriculum frameworks, which include the Common Core State Standards, as the basis for an educational program that provides students with the academic knowledge, skills and experience.</p> <p>Learning Competencies: College and career ready students in English Language Arts/Literacy will be academically prepared to:</p>

	<p>Read and comprehend a range of sufficiently complex texts independently Write effectively when using and/or analyzing sources Build and present knowledge through research and the integration, comparison, and synthesis of ideas Use context to determine the meaning of words and phrases.</p> <p>College and career ready students in Mathematics will be academically prepared to: Solve problems involving the major content with connections to the mathematical practices Solve problems involving the additional and supporting content with connections to the mathematical practices Express mathematical reasoning by constructing mathematical arguments and critiques Solve real world problems, engaging particularly in the modeling practice.</p> <p>Work Ethic and Professionalism: Attendance and punctuality expected by the workplace Workplace appearance appropriate for position and duties Accepting direction and constructive criticism with a positive attitude and response Motivation and taking initiative, taking projects from initiation to completion Understanding workplace culture, policy, and safety, including respecting confidentiality and workplace ethics Effective communication and interpersonal skills Oral and written communication appropriate to the workplace Listening attentively and confirming understanding Interacting with co-workers, individually and in teams In high school, students should demonstrate: Higher order thinking skills of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation The ability to think critically, coherently, and creatively The ability to direct and evaluate their own learning, be aware of resources available to support their learning, and have the confidence to access these resources when needed Motivation, intellectual curiosity, flexibility, discipline, self-advocacy, responsibility, and reasoned beliefs” (Massachusetts Department of Education, 2013).</p>
Nebraska	<p>The Nebraska Department of Education has adopted a definition of career readiness as follows: “A career ready person capitalizes on personal strengths, talents, education and experiences to bring value to the workplace and the community through his/her performance, skill, diligence, ethics and responsible behavior... When students are career ready, they are prepared for the next step in their lives—whether that means getting their first job or beginning their college ‘career’ (which eventually leads to the workplace as well)! Being career ready also means being ready for life” (Nebraska Department of Education, 2009).</p>
New Jersey	<p>“College and career readiness refer to the content, knowledge, and skills that high school graduates must possess in English and mathematics—including, but not limited to, reading, writing, communications, teamwork, critical thinking, and problem solving—to be successful in any and all future endeavors. More specifically, to be college ready “means being prepared to enter and succeed in any postsecondary education or training experience, including study at two- and four-year institutions leading to a postsecondary credential (i.e., a certificate, license, associate’s or bachelor’s degree) without the need for remedial coursework,” and being career ready means that a high school graduate possesses not only the academic skills that employees need to be successful, but also both the technical skills, i.e., those that are necessary for a specific job function, and 21st Century employability skills, i.e., interpersonal skills, creativity and innovation, work</p>

	ethics and personal responsibility, global and social awareness, etc., that are necessary for a successful career” (New Jersey Department of Education, 2012).
Ohio	“Ohio’s college- and career-ready definition is to ensure all students ‘Start Ready and Graduate Ready’ from their Pre-K–12 learning environment, qualified for success in a degree or credential-granting postsecondary education program, without remediation, and advanced training for a career of choice. Student readiness for college and careers includes: Content Knowledge: A deep core-content knowledge in academic and applicable technical content; 21st Century Skills: The effective use of academic and technical skills (e.g., research, problem-solving, systems thinking); Readiness Behaviors: The acquisition of readiness behaviors such as goal-setting, persistence, and resourcefulness; [and] College and Career Survival Skills: The acquisition of knowledge and skills needed to navigate successfully within the world of higher education and world of work” (US Department of Education, 2013).
Oregon	College-and-Career-Ready Oregonians have acquired knowledge, skills, and professional behaviors that provide a starting point to enter and succeed in workplace, career training, or college courses leading to certificates or degrees. A College and Career Ready Oregonian... Reasons, researches, [and] analyzes logically in order to investigate topics, and to evaluate, integrate, and present ideas and information; Exhibits the following attributes: reflection, curiosity, openness, internal motivation, persistence, resilience, and flexibility; Evaluates and/or applies prior knowledge of content and situations, including cultural understanding, to support comprehension; Tracks and respects on progress toward educational and vocational goals; Employs effective speaking and active listening strategies for a range of purposes, audiences, and contexts; Distinguishes between opinions, interpretations, and facts; Uses technology to access and evaluate the reliability, credibility, and utility of information and is able to produce and/or present information; Locates, analyzes, and critiques perceptions, information, ideas, arguments, and/or themes in a variety of text; Produces clear, effective, and accurate writing grounded in textual evidence for a range of purposes, genres, and audiences; Constructs clear and precise arguments to support their reasoning and to critique the reasoning of others; Explains and applies mathematical concepts, carrying out mathematical procedures with precision and fluency in a variety of settings; Solves a range of complex problems in pure and applied mathematics; Makes productive use of knowledge and problem solving strategies; Analyzes complex, real-world scenarios; Has positive values such as: caring, equity, integrity, honesty, responsibility, and restraint; Practices personal, time, and budget management through planning and decision-making; Has a sense of support and empowerment; Is able to self-advocate; Engages in civic and community activities; Works productively in new cultural settings; Relates and responds to individuals from various cultures; Works productively in teams; Understands postsecondary education options, expectations, costs, and processes; Understands and evaluates career options and pathways; Understands workplace requirements and business cultures; Has appropriate interviewing skills; Is timely and reliable; Has appropriate workplace behaviors and occupation-specific skills; Is able to accept and use feedback; Has both personal and academic integrity and is an ethical decision maker” (Oregon Education Investment Board, 2014).

Of the eight states tying conative skills to measures and outcomes, only three states (Hawaii, Maryland, and Oregon) established a P-20 council to guide and maintain CCR reform efforts with internal funding and legislative support (Education Commission of the

States, 2018) (Table 7). To identify the most relevant state for analysis, additional support structures related to the P-20 councils were explored. This included both financial and legislative support for CCR initiatives managed by the P-20 council.

Table 7: State P-20 Council Information

State	P-20 Council	P-20 Dedicated funding	P-20 Council CCR Initiatives Supported by State Policy or Legislation
Hawai'i	United for Learning: The Hawaii P-20 Initiative	University of Hawaii System and state department of education, as well as federal and private foundation grants.	<p>High School to Postsecondary Transitions: Multiple efforts, including: American Diploma Project, which assists member states in developing and implementing rigorous high school curricula, college-ready standards and assessments, and accountability for high school and postsecondary success. As part of this effort, the council is supporting a proposal to increase the rigor of the state's more advanced "Recognition Diploma." GEAR UP state grant to foster college readiness and access among low-income students, beginning in the middle grades. These efforts include hosting college awareness month in January and such other efforts as free tax preparation (to facilitate completion of the FAFSA), college planning workshops and financial aid nights. Achieving the Dream, a multi-state initiative to support retention of traditionally underserved students in community colleges.</p> <p>Postsecondary Entry/Completion: The council voted at its November 2007 meeting that the group's long-term measurable goal would be to increase the proportion of working adults in Hawaii with a 2- or 4-year degree to 55% by 2025. (If the status quo were maintained, a projected 43.7% working adult Hawaiians would meet this benchmark.) The council staff are developing plans to backwards map from the goal to set intermediate benchmarks (such as high school graduation rate, college participation and completion rates, rate of adults returning to education, etc.) and communicate about the goal.</p>
Maryland	P-20 Leadership Council	Council receives no outside funds	N/A
Oregon	Joint Boards	Modest legislative appropriation but mainly supported through participating state education and workforce agencies	Alignment of K-12/Postsecondary Standards and Assessments: The Unified Education Enterprise (UEE) committee is working to better align K-12 standards and assessments—and particularly those at the high school level—with postsecondary entry-level expectations. To this end, the UEE contracted with WestEd to evaluate the state's content standards and assessments, and the alignment of state assessments with K-12 content standards. The

			<p>alignment evaluation and standards review have been completed. The alignment studies between K-12 and postsecondary assessments are under discussion by the state board of education (SBE) and other stakeholders.</p> <p>Postsecondary Entry and Articulation: The Unified Education Enterprise (UEE) has established common policies across Oregon Community Colleges and the Oregon University System institutions for the amount of postsecondary credit to be awarded for Advanced Placement exam scores, and develop, as required in 2005 S.B. 342, "an outcome-based framework for articulation and transfer that is derived from a common understanding of the criteria for general education curricula."</p>
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Of these three states, one state established the necessary guidance council and support structures to implement a comprehensive P-20 plan to achieve and maintain a college and career readiness agenda that promotes conative skills in a way that the other two did not. Hawai'i is the only state to establish a P-20 council with a dedicated annual funding stream to guide CCR decision-making. Additionally, Hawai'i was the only state to partner with successful organizations engaged in CCR reform in order to implement an iterative problem-solving method to improve existing policy and draft new policy that more accurately identifies gaps for the P-20 council which need treatment.

Chapter 4: A Case Study of Hawai'i

ALOHA!

Conative skill development has long been a central focus of Hawaiian culture, grounding itself as the nexus of native Hawaiian language, spirituality, politics, and education, so much so that during data collection and analysis for this case study, I was forced away from the historic education policy record many times. I fell down a myriad of rabbit holes leading me to read ethnographies of *mele* (songs) and *mo'olelo* (storytelling) traditions, studies of the evolution of the Native Hawaiian language, anthologies of Native Hawaiian cultural traditions of commoners and royalty, and diaries and journals penned by both descendants of Hawaiian kings and queens, as well as missionaries and colonists, on the rise and fall and rebirth of Hawai'i. It would seem unjust to start this analysis with the official written record of education policy, so I chose to open this case study with a brief account of conation as it pertains to what it means to be Hawaiian.

If I may begin with the Hawaiian proverb, *i ka olele no ke ola, i ka olele no ka make*, in language there is the power of life, in language there is the power of death. Perhaps the largest struggle documented in Hawaiian education policy is over the use of the Native Hawaiian language, either as a vehicle for learning or a mechanism for preserving native Hawaiian culture and identity (Brenzinger & Heinrich, 2013). Its banishment in 1896 from the education system and replacement with English and then, its resurgence in 1978, is what I am proposing as the lynchpin of the current gains in P-20 educational achievement for Hawai'i (Hawai'i State Department of Education, n.d.). For a central theme emerged in reading interviews of educators in Hawai'i, both native and non-alike- Native Hawaiian

language is the key to educational success, as it solidifies and empowers a nation of peoples and a state of American citizens to be seekers and sharers of knowledge.

For the native Hawaiian language, nothing is as shallow as direct translation. Take for instance, *Aloha!* Hello and goodbye, yes, but it also defines a complete cultural guidance system. Aloha means “what is mine, is also yours” in a literal sense, but native Hawaiian did not have a written form until colonized, and thus, figuratively, portrays a host of values, ranging from *ha’aha’a* (humility) and *ho’ohanohano* (dignity), *kuleana* (responsibility), *lōkahi* (collaboration), and *ho’omau* (perseverance), to *’ike loa* (learning) and *kūlia i ka nu’u* (achievement). Conation, as I have previously discussed it philosophically, is the very bedrock of the culture itself, and conation, previously discussed as an educational skill set, is embedded within Hawaiian understandings of sensory perception, thus informing the entire organic learning process.

When asked about the importance of education, defined in context as formal schooling, Queen Lili’uokalani (1898) (in Asante et al., 2013) asked, “But will it also be thought strange that education and knowledge of the world have enabled us to perceive that as a race we have some special mental and physical requirements not shared by the other races which have come among us?” (p. 135). She could not have retorted with a more poignant question. In Hawaiian, *’ike* (to see), as a verb, has been defined as to know, while *a’o* (to taste) is to learn, and *’a ’apo k l keiki* (to touch) is to grasp an understanding of something. Knowledge, from an epistemological sense, is preserved through the empirical domains of the senses through which people experience life and is ever-present and infinite in humans.

Another theme emerged when reading about Hawaiian epistemology that is crucial to understanding the current context of CCR policy and curriculum, and the recent gains in academic achievement, which is unique to Hawai'i as a state. The importance of place, or environment, as it relates to identity, facets of learning, and definitions of success. The Native Hawaiian scholar Manulani Aluli Meyer (2003), notes:

How one knows, indeed, what one prioritizes with regard to this knowing, ends up being the stuffing of identity, the truth that links us to our distinct cosmologies, and the essence of who we are as Oceanic people. It is a discussion of place and genealogy. It is a way to navigate the shores of what is worth knowing and it is particularly important as we enter the new rather how that information helps us maintain our sense of community in the daily chaos of access and information overload. (p. 125).

Equally significant is the value of the tradition of *mo'olelo*, or storytelling, to which I would like pay homage. The power of the narrative has served many peoples across land and time as the primary mode of information production, sharing, and preservation. According to Stuczynski et al. (2005) and Feagans & Applebaum (1986), understanding this power and employing the storytelling strategy in the contemporary classroom has proven efficacious in increasing academic achievement amongst students of all walks of life. Albert Bandura's (2001) Social Cognitive Theory asserts that learning through storytelling is "structured along social cognitive lines [and] is an especially influential vehicle for effecting personal and social changes" (p. 54), illuminating life challenges and successes through symbolic observation. Dr. Robin Mello (2001), Hawaiian education scholar and Assistant

Professor from the UW-Whitewater College of Education, describes storytelling as a medium that creates relationships, and connects members to communities.

I make these points now, because as a critical scholar, I walked into this analysis with a set of suppositions about the efficacy of schooling in Hawai'i based on educational statistics of the recent past that do not paint a positive picture of academic achievement, college going, and professional mobility and success in a globalized world. Viewing the statistics in isolation and relating them to the historic oppression of native peoples and the practice of suppressing tradition as a means of control and demobilization, could have led me to portray a truth that could not have been more wrong.

Through an anthropological lens, I read, learned, and analyzed a more holistic historic record of the evolution of college and career readiness policy in Hawai'i, and aspired to craft a story that accurately explicates the need for conative skill development in all of our nation's students in order to better educate our citizens, as stewards of knowledge and culture, that will prepare them for future life endeavors both in college and beyond.

Too Many Cookes in the Kitchen: A Story of Early Resistance

In 1810, the Andover Theological Seminary in Newton, Massachusetts, hosted a meeting of the minds of theological scholars, which in turn established the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions (ABCFM) and thus, the American foreign ministry movement began. With the spirit of 19th century New England values and objectives to move west and civilize through religion and education, evangelical missionaries became crusaders, pioneers, and seafarers. Setting out on a quest fueled by millennialism to raise

up the heathens and unify a Christian front for the second coming of Christ and peace on Earth (Phillips, 1969), the missionaries made their way to the island Kona off the coast of Hawai'i. Upon their arrival in April of 1820, King Kamehameha II entertained the idea of a single year of stay for the missionaries.

By 1839, the missionaries had established a stronghold in the minds of locals about the importance of formal education for the royal lineage. In June of that year, the Congregational missionaries received a document from the high chiefs of Hawai'i permitting the establishment of The Hawaiian Chiefs' Children's School, later referred to as The Royal School (Menton, 1992). American missionaries were opportune in their Hawaiian settlement, touching land just one year after the overthrow of the ancient Polynesian *kapu* system, and just in time to influence the establishment of a new monarchy. Whispering in the ears of King Kamehameha II, along with equally powerful *kuhina-nui*, or prime minister, Ka'ahumanu, the missionaries convinced the monarchy to formally educate the commoners, thus ensuring mass religious conversion (Berkhofer, 2015; Silverman, 1987). This would mark the beginning of a 150-year struggle for Hawaiians to maintain an authentic culture that began over 1,000 years ago.

Prior to the establishment of the formal education system, religious lessons were administered in the native Hawaiian language, but by 1822, William Ellis of the London Missionary Society had already begun converting the native language phonemes into a 12-letter alphabet in preparation to convert Hawaiians into English speakers (Kuykendall & Day, 1961). Amidst the religious proselytizers were colonials who truly believed that literacy would hold the key to civility. Two influential figures, Amos Starr Cooke, American

businessman, and his wife Juliette Montague Cooke, were sent to Hawai'i by the ABCFM in 1837 to take charge of the slowly emerging Royal School. In their charge, foreign values, morals, and regulation on traditional behaviors, in connection with the English language, would then be merged with education and discipline to mold the Hawaiian youth into Christian Americans (Cooke & Cooke, 1937; Richards et al., 1970).

Despite their best efforts to deter what they referred to as frivolous daily conversations, young sexual appetites, gambling, dancing, and wanderlust, the Cookes found themselves in trouble and foreseeable failure less than a decade after their arrival. By 1840 the youth began return to their original state of sociality. Observing the Sabbath was replaced with communal visiting, singing, dancing, and storytelling (Anderson, 1870). Cooke documents an instance of theft from the school by local three brothers and a botched plan to run away to another island, through his recordings of corporal punishment for use of tobacco and alcohol (Daws, 1967). Pre-marital sex was revealed through the pregnancy of a young girl, Abigail, who was immediately married off to a common man and sent away to the island of Kaua'i (Anderson, 1870).

By 1848, the Cookes wrote home confessing in shame, "we have not been as faithful as we might have been and that amid our great care for their bodies and their progress in knowledge, we have not agonized in prayer 'until Christ be formed in them' the hope of glory" (Anderson, 1870). In 1850, the Cookes were ready to leave Hawai'i behind and feared that all their good works had only tempered the Hawaiian children's viciousness (ABCFM, Hawaii Papers, 1850).

By 1858, a report issued by the ABCFM declared that Hawai'i now had an operational schooling system like that of the mainland United States. Despite the fact that the constitution of Hawai'i declared a monarchy instead of a democracy, and the Cookes had reported disappointment, the remaining missionaries wrote home to inform that they made "the people of the Islands, of whatever race, to resemble in some measure, what the Pilgrim Fathers made the people of New England" (ABCFM, Hawaii Papers, 1858). The monarchy was overthrown in 1893 and Queen Lili'uokalani abdicated. With the constant imposition of the American forces, Hawai'i was annexed to the United States within five years' time, and Hawaiians would need to begin the struggle again. A struggle that Hawai'i was readied for with the closing words of the Queen (1893):

I, Lili'uokalani, by the Grace of God and under the constitution of the Hawaiian Kingdom, Queen, do hereby solemnly protest against any and all acts done against myself and the constitutional government of the Hawaiian Kingdom by certain persons claiming to have established a Provisional Government of and for this Kingdom. That I yield to the superior force of the United States of America, whose Minister Plenipotentiary, His Excellency John L. Stevens has caused United States troops to be landed at Honolulu and declared that he would support the said Provisional Government. Now, to avoid any collision of armed forces and perhaps loss of life, I do, under this protest, and impelled by said forces, yield my authority until such time as the Government of the United States shall, upon the facts being presented to it, undo the action of its representative and reinstate me in the

authority which I claim as the constitutional sovereign of the Hawaiian Islands. (p. 1).

This story, a story of resistance, highlights the importance that culture plays in the acceptance and adoption of new ideas and systems. In the end, the missionaries had not to contend with a small group of isolated peoples, but with over a millennium of established customs, norms, and values. Even in their attempts to banish *kahu* (knowledge that is concealed and protected) and limit royal children's access to commoners, the Cookes could not compete with the Kahuna (*ka*, the light; *huna*, the secret).

A Brief History of CCR Development in Hawai'i

While the waves of missionaries set out on a quest to civilize and uplift, those above and around them used this opportunity to create a labor force of their need- future coffee and sugar plantation workers for American business and industry. Soon after Hawai'i was annexed, Wallace Farrington, the new territorial governor, had plans to thwart a comprehensive education for Hawaiians. In anticipation of a land and labor survey conducted in 1920, he stated, "It is expected that the Federal Survey Commission will recommend its report, that academic and classical courses be thrown overboard and be replaced by domestic science, agriculture and manual training," (Young, 2002, p. 407). Consequently, what could not be taught was then legislated through policy.

This reorientation toward vocational education was supported through multiple channels on the US mainland. The Principal of the Territorial Normal and Training School, Benjamin Wist (1940), declared, that the duty of educating Hawai'i's youth is to educate toward, not away from plantation work, and Department of Public Instruction (DPI)

Superintendent, Will C. Crawford began crafting a new curriculum inspired by the progressive educator John Dewey. Accompanying the new curricular design would be the Americanization process, including flag salute in the morning and the singing of patriotic songs (Hyams, 1985). Moving forward, Hawai'i would need to obey the national education policy of the mainland and underwent similar trends.

In 1830, approximately one-third of Hawai'i's population was enrolled in a formal schooling system (Fuchs, 1961) with a centralized administration (Wist, 1940). King Kamehameha III enacted the first set of public-school law in 1840, declaring teaching as "The Business of Females" (Thurston, 1904) and stated:

This is the appropriate business of all the females of these islands; to teach the children to read, cipher, and write, and other branches of learnings, to subject the children to good parental and school laws, to guide the children to right behavior, and place them in schools, that they may do better than their parents. But if the parents do not understand reading, then let them commit the instruction of their children to those who do understand it, and let the parents support the teacher, inasmuch as they feel an interest in their children, let them feel an interest in the teacher too. But if any woman do not conduct according to the requirements of this section, then let her return to the labor of her landlord as informer times, to such labor however as is appropriate to women. The tax officers will look to and manage this business. (p. 26).

The 1842 amendments made to the general school law stated that the stewards of Hawaiian education "are firmly determined to give protection to the schools, and also to

teachers of good character, and also to treat with great severity all those who oppose schools, or throw hindrances in the way of that business," thus laying the groundwork for school as business and industry as priority (Thurston, 1904, p. 131). Second to ensuring a moderately educated work force, was safeguarding against resistance or revolt by characterizing, once again, the educated worker as a moral man. The Organic Act of 1846 soon followed bestowing the minister of public instruction with power to administer oaths and "superintend the moral and intellectual well-being of all who reside within the jurisdiction of this kingdom, and in an especial manner of all children within the age of legal majority" (Statute Laws Kamehameha III (1846), I, 204).

All children within the age of legal majority, loosely translated, meant high school students that were put to work in the fields on plantations owned by mainland businessmen. G. Rhodes, Esq., the vice president of the Royal Hawaiian Agricultural Society was thrilled by the prospect of free student labor in his coffee fields. However, only a few years had passed before he reported on the general decay of plantations. This was largely due to an outbreak of measles, whooping cough, and influenza, yet was characterized by Rhodes as, "the natural indolence of the native race, [and] the determination of the natives in many cases not to work for the foreigners settled among them except on their own terms" (Royal Hawaiian Agricultural Society, 1850, p. 52).

It was not long before the ministry of education was abolished and replaced with a board of education that would be the new governor of education. The Reorganization Act of 1855 would then move education down in the list of priorities of the government (Session Laws, 1855). When it became evident that remoralization would not be the key to

building a faithful workforce, the process of Americanization was ramped up. A set of new laws would supervene that would force Native Hawaiians into American culture. Between 1865 and 1900, the English language was established as the official language of Hawaiian schools, American textbooks replaced those developed by the Hawaiian Board of Education, the Legislature eliminated tuition for students attending English language schools and vocational education courses were offered (Hawaii State Archives, 2003).

Just prior to the outbreak of World War I, a new superintendent of education, Henry Walsworth Kinney, a newspaper editor, prepared Hawai'i for compliance with the Smith Hughes Act in order to receive federal funds for vocational education courses in shop and agriculture (Wist, 1940). In 1919, the pendulum swung with the replacement of Kinney by Vaughan MacCaughey, professor of botany and horticulture at the College of Hawai'i. Wist (1940), at first, explained "the extreme, but disassociated and disorganized liberalism of the MacCaughey regime was in no small part necessary as a prelude to clearer thinking and more productive results later on" (p. 158). However with the initiation of democratic education in Hawai'i, characterized by the removal of letter grading, increased teacher autonomy, and move away from strict adherence to the regulatory provisions, Wist (1940) later writes, "Neither his training nor his experience had given him real insight into the purposes and workings of a dynamic school curriculum. His tendencies, however, were pragmatic, and he almost leaned over backwards in his zeal to be democratic" (p. 146).

The Great Depression belted Hawai'i in 1929 with a severe drop in employment opportunities for recent school graduates. Governor Lawrence M. Judd established an advisory committee to conduct a survey that would "suggest policies and recommend

changes which it believes will improve the service that the schools are rendering to the Territory and thereby contribute more to the welfare of all the youth of Hawaii"

(Governor's Advisory Committee on Education, 1931). Enter college and career readiness.

The Committee's Report (1931) called for prevocational and vocational education to scale back to elementary school, provided funds for working youth to continue their education beyond secondary school, and engaged local business leaders to develop a placement bureau for graduating youth into specific employment sectors in need. Oren E. Long, the superintendent during the events leading to and through the onset of WWII, returned to an Enlightenment philosophy of education, stating that progress was contingent upon an educated citizenry (Hunt, 1969). He and the sitting commissioners defined the ideal public education as, "providing for every normal child such free education as well as prepare him to perform his duties as a citizen and to live usefully and wholesomely under the conditions of life in these Islands" (DPI, 1935-1936, p. 49). Long later reports that the purpose of education is "practical" and should afford young Hawaiians with the preparation needed to enter into professions of their choice, yet he qualified this statement with "choosing wisely" meaning electing into occupations such as teachers, preachers, lawyers, physicians, engineers, plumbers, carpenters, electricians, and mill hands, in order to "achieve success and render a worth" (DPI, 1938, p. 4). As for women in the workplace, workplace meant in the home and that women should either "do the work in the home or direct it" (DPI, 1938, p. 4).

Career readiness had gained enough momentum by 1943 that the legislature created a new law, Act 7, which established a program named "Business Education" and

planning for a supplemental program, Occupational Information and Guidance, was directed by the US Office of Education. It was with the anticipated victory of WWII that Superintendent Long foresaw the need for a new kind of labor force, one dedicated to technological development, as he stated in his final report those involved in the system of education need become attentive to the “new age of transport, of television, and of freezing units” (DPI, 1943-1944, p. 2). From the time Hawai‘i was settled by Polynesians to the period of the Cold War, Hawai‘i had undergone one of the most rapid and radical socio-political changes the US had ever experienced. In the short time of 175 years, Hawai‘i had been settled, colonized into a feudalistic monarchy through hand labor, and broke through as modernized democratic state with a culturally pluralistic and highly mechanized and industrial society, thus becoming home to mass waves of immigrants from China, Japan, Korea, Portugal, Scotland, and the Philippines due to the GI Bill (Odell, 1957).

In 1959, Hawai‘i gained statehood and with that came a new state constitution. Article IX, Section 1, which outlined the provisions for state public education stated:

The State shall provide for the establishment, support and control of a statewide system of public schools free from sectarian control, a state university, public libraries and such other educational institutions as may be deemed desirable, including physical facilities therefor. There shall be no segregation in public educational institutions because of race, religion or ancestry; nor shall public funds be appropriated for the support or benefit of any sectarian or private educational institution. (p. 1).

With a new college and career readiness agenda free from US corporate direction, Hawaiian education would now enter the same compact as mainland education, one with the military. By 1959, Hawai'i became the 50th state in the US and was receiving federal funding from the National Defense Education Act, and choice of collegiate pathways and careers were being directed by needs anticipated by the next big war (US House of Representatives, n.d.). The ethnocentric model of Manifest Destiny was quickly replaced by the need to defend what had been conquered, consequently shaking up the previous system of the Republican Oligarchy (1887-1950's) and privatized conflict now that The World had experienced not one, but two wars.

The simultaneous rise of The Nisei⁹ and the new democracy, or the Young Democrats, would present Native Hawaiians and subsequently Hawaiian education with a new battle of their own. Under the rule of the Young Democrats, public education sought to reform Native Hawaiians similarly to that of the colonial period. There was a strong push to Americanize the native population and groom them as a patriotic workforce. The dual-educational system that Hawai'i had was streamlined into one system governed by a statewide school board financed through the state legislature's general fund and a centralized bureaucracy began assigning career pathways and tracking students, as well as monitoring pedagogy and curriculum. Societal values taught in school were to learn one's place and avoid confronting or competing with the newly elite ruling class of the Nisei (Lind, 1980).

⁹ The Nisei were disenfranchised first generation American born Japanese, who, after WWII, returned to Hawai'i as US citizens and revived the Democratic Party in Hawai'i.

Summary

The analysis of the 70 archived documents that contributed to the construction of the story of early resistance and the history of CCR development in Hawai'i ranging from the years 1810-1960's, revealed several themes related to modern day corporatism: depoliticization, complacency, efficiency, socio-economic policing, and penalty (Table 8). Despite the change of guard with the arrival of the missionaries, then American business and industry, and later the Nisei, one system remained a constant, a traditional political ruling strategy that forced Native Hawaiians into positions of subordination whether in the realm of the social, political, economic, or educational. Isolated instances of Native Hawaiian struggles against the assimilation into American culture are well documented and met each time with a rule, law, or policy, which cracked the whip and made examples of those who dared to resist. From 1810 until the end of the 1960's White Anglo Americans have always played a key role in the construct of education and career orientation, whether it was guided by religious, industrial, or military needs. Limited political participation on the part of Native Hawaiians was largely influenced by the way that the public-school system was governed.

Table 8: Themes in Hawaiian School Laws and Policies Related to Corporatism

Corporatism Domain	Themes	Number of School Laws and/or Policies
Neoconservative: Political rationality	Socio-political control, morality, and ideology	66
Neoliberal: Economic rationality	Quality, efficiency, human capital, and globalization	70
New Managerial: Surveillance	Tracking, monitoring, and legal system	70

In the early years, a partnership between the ruling monarchy and American missionaries formed a wall that kept the common Hawaiian separated from political

activity by limiting their education to the knowledge and skills only needed to work in the sugar and coffee fields, mills, and the trades. Native Hawaiian political participation, which was restricted to those who owned land and swore allegiance to the Republic, was lean. Once the monarchy was overthrown, that power was transferred to the American businessmen who maintained the same relationship with the missionaries until war broke out. The missionaries were first replaced by the US Department of Defense, and then later with the Young Democrats, composed of White American politicians and the Nisei. Hawaiian education, from its establishment as a public system, was at the whim of whomever had a stake in its occupation. Whether it was religious conversion, industrialization, or a potential human resource from which the military could draw, Hawaiians themselves had little control over the education of its people.

The Hawaiian Renaissance

It was not until the early 1970's that Hawai'i made a significant move to reclaim its guidance over the culture, education, and futures of its people. The power of policy and the ways that it affects change is immense. In 1978, Hawai'i established a political stronghold over its education by creating the Office of Hawaiian Affairs, which amended the state constitution with Article X, Section 4, mandating that the state of Hawai'i endorse, "the study of Hawaiian culture, history and language" through a Hawaiian education program informed by the community that would become "a suitable and essential means in furtherance of Hawaiian education." Article XV, Section 4, declared Hawaiian as the official language of the state and set in motion a host of additional actions that would reposition Hawaiian, as a culture, as a powerhouse of knowledge. A return to the Native Hawaiian

language would serve as the catalyst for the reinstatement of Hawaiian values, beliefs, and practices, so much so that in 1993, a joint resolution on The Overthrow of Hawaii (P.L. 103-150, 107 Stat.) was enacted declaring that the US Congress publicly apologizes for the historic mistreatment of Hawaiian people stating:

(1) on the 100th anniversary of the illegal overthrow of the Kingdom of Hawaii on January 17, 1893, acknowledges the historical significance of this event which resulted in the suppression of the inherent sovereignty of the Native Hawaiian people; (2) commends efforts of reconciliation initiated by Hawaii and the United Church of Christ with Native Hawaiians; (3) apologizes for the overthrow and the deprivation of the rights of Native Hawaiians to self-determination; (4) expresses its commitment to acknowledge the ramifications of the overthrow in order to provide a foundation for reconciliation between the United States and the Native Hawaiian people; and (5) urges the President to acknowledge the ramifications of the overthrow and to support reconciliation efforts. (p. 5).

The stimulus for this radical shift in educational ideology was a reaction to findings from The Native Hawaiian Educational Assessment Project Report submitted to Congress, which found Hawaiian academic achievement to be subpar compared to mainland levels of achievement (Kamehameha Schools, 1983). Among plausible explanations for this, researchers cited cultural factors as the most impactful. And in order to improve student outcomes, the Board of Education (BOE) had to improve the perceptions of the Native Hawaiian.

The year 1993 was a pivotal year that set Hawai'i up for the recent gains in educational achievement. First, The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 was amended to include special provisions for Native Hawaiian education programs. A Pacific Regional Education Laboratory in Honolulu, Hawai'i was established to provide technical assistance with educational programming and evaluation. Additional federal funding was made available strictly for the purpose of educating Hawaiian natives both in general education and gifted education programs. These funds also supported the establishment of the non-profit Native Language Educational Organization.

And second, as briefly mentioned earlier, a long-awaited legal declaration of apology was issued to Hawai'i from Congress (P.L. 103-150), stating:

Whereas the long-range economic and social changes in Hawaii over the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries have been devastating to the population and to the health and well-being of the Hawaiian people;

Whereas the Native Hawaiian people are determined to preserve, develop and transmit to future generations their ancestral territory, and their cultural identity in accordance with their own spiritual and traditional beliefs, customs, practices, language, and social institutions;

Whereas, in order to promote racial harmony and cultural understanding, the Legislature of the State of Hawaii has determined that the year 1993 should serve Hawaii as a year of special reflection on the rights and dignities of the Native Hawaiians in the Hawaiian and the American societies. (p. 3-4).

Only six years later, Hawai'i received another boost. The US Senate Committee on Indian Affairs convened to reauthorize and amend the Native Hawaiian Education Act (Part B of title IX of ESEA). Through these amendments, funds were granted to form The Native Hawaiian Education Council to increase academic performance and community engagement in public education. Of the 21 members of the council at least 10 were required to be Native and would serve as the precursor the P-20 Council that Hawai'i has today.

This marked difference in perspective of the place and value of the Native Hawaiian in Hawaiian progress and success would set the tone for future educational victories. It would serve as a bookmark in Hawaiian history that restored Hawaiian culture as a valuable educational tool when Western Anglo-Saxon norms, values, and methods failed.

The Hawaiian BOE would continue to build upon a culturally focused education system for the next decade. However, in 1994, the reauthorization of ESEA established a national requirement for college and career readiness that prompted Hawai'i to focus heavily on secondary education improvement. An onslaught of research was coming from non-profit organizations and research one universities on how to best prepare youth for college and careers in the US.

In 2007, Act 281, Session Laws of Hawai'i (2007) was enacted in order to fund Hawai'i P-20 Partnerships for Education, the first comprehensive cradle to college council. The Act made provisions for a \$50,000 annual fund to be distributed to the University of Hawai'i to operate the council, however by 2016, the funds still had not been released to

the university as mandated by the legislation. During this time, the Race to the Top federal funding opportunity had states scrambling to submit applications.

To recap, the US Department of Education (2010b) would provide RTTT grants to states seeking to improve educational outcomes in the four following areas:

1. Adopting internationally benchmarked standards and assessments that prepare students for success in college and the workplace;
2. Recruiting, developing, retaining, and rewarding effective teachers and principals, especially where they are needed most;
3. Building data systems that measure student success and inform teachers and principals about how they can improve instruction; and
4. Turning around our lowest-achieving schools. (p. 1).

By the year 2011, a college and career readiness brief published by Hawai'i's P-20 Partnerships for Education stated that Hawai'i ranked 36th nationwide for high school graduation rates, and 30th for those entering and completing a four-year college degree (Hawaii P-20, 2011). Among the largest issues faced was the rapidly changing political economic climate. Once focused on agriculture and tourism, Hawai'i's economic system needed to centralize efforts on STEM development in order to ensure Hawaiian graduates a competitive place in a globalizing career market. National economists projected that for Hawai'i, by 2018, 65% of all jobs would require post-secondary degrees or comparable training (Carnevale et al., 2010).

While the mainland states began adopting or replicating CCR systems, standards, and measures using a deficit model, Hawai'i chose to create a system of celebration to

reverse the historically low achievement rates of Hawaiian students, as outlined in their Race to the Top application. Hawai'i was approved for four-years funding totaling \$75 million in 2010 but faced a unique challenge when forced to define and address the racial achievement gap. In order to achieve the goals set forth by Race to the Top Hawai'i's BOE focused on continuing the celebration of Hawaiian culture as a statewide motivation to increase academic achievement and college going. Hawai'i cited the following performance outcomes in their The Common Education Agenda for 2012-2018 for RTTT:

1. Raise Overall K-12 Student Achievement: By 2014, Hawaii State Assessment (HSA) scores will increase to 90 percent in reading and to 82 percent in mathematics. All students will be proficient in reading and mathematics by the year 2018. Additionally, Hawaii students' National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) scores will meet or exceed the national median score by the year 2018.
2. Ensure College- and Career-Readiness: By 2018, the overall high school graduation rate will increase from 80 percent to 90 percent and all graduating students will be earning the new "college- and career- ready" high school diploma, which requires that students meet STEM (science, technology, engineering and mathematics) competencies.
3. Increase Higher Education Enrollment and Completion Rates: By 2018, the college-going rate of Hawaii's high school graduates will increase from 51 percent to the national median of 62 percent. Through the Hawaii Graduation Initiative, UH also plans to increase the number of college graduates by 25 percent annually, by the year 2015.

4. Ensure Equity and Effectiveness by Closing Achievement Gaps: By 2014, the gap between groups and all students in state assessment scores, graduation rates, and college enrollment rates will be reduced by 50 percent. By 2018, the gaps will be eliminated.
5. Increase STEM Proficiency Statewide and Highly Effective STEM Instruction in Title I Schools: All new teachers in Title I (high-poverty) schools for STEM subject areas and other hard-to-staff subjects will be highly qualified/highly effective by 2011. (p. 2).

These were quite ambitious goals, but according to the American Institutes for Research (AIR), the contracted evaluator for Hawai'i RTTT, Hawai'i did not disappoint. At the conclusion of AIR's three-year evaluation, the project report (2014), noted, "although student achievement in Hawaii has continued to improve during the course of RTTT, our analysis suggests that those gains did not appear to be the result of the grant, but are the continuation of a trend of improvement that started earlier" (p. 1).

Examples of education programming and policy from 1980 to 2015 that contributed to the growing achievement gains are outlined below (Table 9). The first action was to reposition Hawaiian history, culture, and language as the initial point of learning and overall development. Next, policies were established to situate education, not just schooling, as a nexus for community growth and success, necessitating the inclusion of community members on educational programming advisory boards and implementing place-based learning opportunities in all core content areas of the curriculum.

Table 9: Examples of Hawai'i State-Level General Education Policy and Programming

Year	Law and/or Policy	Textual Example
1980	Hawaiian Studies Program (HSP) established within Office of Instructional Support (OIS). ¹⁰	"Hawaii's public education system should embody Hawaiian values, language, culture and history as a foundation to prepare students in grades K-12 for success in college, career and communities, locally and globally."
	The Kūpuna Program ¹¹	"The Kūpuna Component aims to enrich students' learning about cultural practices, historical information, and the Hawaiian language. A valuable lesson gained from CPR's is that of their life experiences within Hawai'i, as a special place they call home. Place-based learning is emphasized to encourage a sense of belonging, appreciation, and stewardship for Hawai'i."
1987	Ka Papahana Kaiapuni: Hawaiian Language Immersion Program (HLIP) established within OIS ¹²	"The 'AKL is a community-based consortium of parent, teacher, and administrator representatives from each school, as well as collegiate level representatives and community partners, such as OHA, KSBE, and the 'Aha Pūnana Leo. The group serves as advisors to the Hawai'i BOE and Superintendent as well as advocates for quality Hawaiian Language Immersion education, and Hawaiian education in general. At the 2015 National Indian Education Association (NIEA) conference, the 'Aha Kauleo was honored with the William Demmert Cultural Freedom Award."
2001	Policy 2104: Hawaiian Education Programs approved ¹³	"The Board of Education recognizes that appropriate support for and implementation of Hawaiian education will positively impact the educational outcomes of all students in preparation for college, career and community success. The goals of Hawaiian education shall be to: Provide guidance in developing, securing, and utilizing materials that support the

¹⁰ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:
<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/Hawaiian%20Education.pdf>

¹¹ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:
<http://www.hawaiipublicschools.org/TeachingAndLearning/StudentLearning/HawaiianEducation/Pages/Kupuna.aspx>

¹² For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:
<http://www.hawaiipublicschools.org/TeachingAndLearning/StudentLearning/HawaiianEducation/Pages/translation.aspx>

¹³ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:
<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/2100series/Pages/2104.aspx>

		<p>incorporation of Hawaiian knowledge, practices and perspectives in all content areas. Provide educators, staff and administrators with a fundamental knowledge of and appreciation for the indigenous culture, history, places and language of Hawai'i. Develop and implement an evaluation system that measures student outcomes, teacher effectiveness and administration support of Hawaiian Education. To ensure accountability an annual assessment report to the Board of Education will be required. Use community expertise as an essential means in the furtherance of Hawaiian education. Ensure that all students in Hawai'i's public schools will graduate with proficiency in and appreciation for the indigenous culture, history, and language of Hawai'i."</p>
2015	E-3 Policy (Nā Hopena A'o) approved by BOE ¹⁴	<p>"Six outcomes to be strengthened in every student over the course of their K-12 learning journey. Strengthened sense of belonging Strengthened sense of responsibility Strengthened sense of excellence Strengthened sense of aloha Strengthened sense of total well-being Strengthened sense of Hawai'i"</p>

The most prevalent themes that emerged from the analysis of these documents are tied to the conative aspects of the Hawaiian culture itself, most notably understanding how place, history, and language shape the way that students view themselves as successful in their communities. Positioning college completion, as a responsibility to one's self and others, has markedly changed the college going culture of Hawai'i's student body. Conative assets such as motivation, persistence, and resilience are just as fundamental in educational programming as they are in cultural preservation and growth. Fusing the two together has resulted in significant academic gains for K-12 students, college enrollment

¹⁴ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:
<http://www.hawaiipublicschools.org/TeachingAndLearning/StudentLearning/HawaiianEducation/Pages/H A.aspx>

rates (Table 10), and political economic development for the state. From 2001 to 2011, the number of students enrolled in postsecondary schooling increased by 6,505 in four-year post-secondary institutions and 5,048 in community colleges, while enrollment in trade and skilled-labor schools decreased minimally.

Table 10: Hawai'i Trends in College Enrollment Rates¹⁵

Year	Four or more years	At least 2 but less than 4 years	Less than 2 years (below associate)
2001-02	51,705	38,422	1,098
2002-03	51,654	39,229	752
2003-04	52,851	39,544	694
2004-05	57,704	35,117	612
2005-06	57,126	33,723	805
2006-07	55,078	33,422	655
2007-08	55,183	34,765	701
2008-09	55,381	37,666	543
2009-10	57,005	42,345	714
2010-11	57,888	43,976	1,103
2011-12	58,210	43,470	1,075

In 2010, Hawai'i re-established its commitment to lifelong-learning for the native population through its principle of *mai ha'alele i ke a'o* (never abandon learning) in the education sector. Charlot (2005) describes life in Hawaiian culture as an eternal quest for knowledge. Knowledge is what guides survival and prosperity, providing its people with the ability to affect the environment, the community, and the relations between humans and the gods. Since this time, despite decreased rates of college going for the overall population, Native Hawaiian students have increased not only college going, but also completion, in comparison to all other racial-ethnic groups in the island university system

¹⁵ Data collected from IPEDS: <https://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/trendgenerator/#/trend-table/2/2?trening=row&valueCode=HI&rid=6&cid=5>

(Table 11). From 2009 to 2013, enrollment of Native Hawaiians in community colleges almost doubled, and rose by nearly one-third in four-year postsecondary institutions.

Table 11: Number of College Degrees/Certificates Conferred for Native Hawaiians¹⁶

Fiscal Year	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
<i>University of Hawai'i Community College System</i>					
#	551	721	858	963	1011
<i>University of Hawai'i System 4-Year Institutions</i>					
#	658	687	840	832	957

Historically, Native Hawaiians have underperformed in academic settings as compared to their Euro-American counterparts and have largely been explained as a result of communication disparities between Native Hawaiian students and Euro-American educators (Jordan, 1992; Jordan et al., 1981). Gallimore et al. (1974) noted in earlier research that these disparities are culturally based and are hinged on the differences between Hawaiian notions of work and responsibility. For example, Native Hawaiian children expect to contribute work collectively and share achievement collectively, as well as expect role flexibility and mutual responsibility, as diametrically opposed to the Euro-American value of individualism and teacher as central authority.

The cause of this turn-around began in 2010 with increased funding for education for the state through the Race to the Top federal grants, and then solidified in early 2013 through the re-vamp of Hawaiian K-12 education policy, placing focus on CCR. Two additional programs have been integrated to bolster the success of Hawai'i's CCR reform, the 6 by 16 College and Career Guidance Program supported by the Harold K.L. Castle Foundation and the Gear Up Hawai'i Program. The 6 by 16 College and Career Guidance

¹⁶ Data collected from the University of Hawai'i Institutional Research and Analysis Office (UH IRO, 2013).

Program was designed to elevate learning standards and supports using Hawai'i's GEAR UP (GU) grant funding for students attending GU-eligible schools from sixth grade to college completion. Beginning with the foundational conative skill of aspiration, students were supported in building their Personalized Transition Plan to assist them through the difficult to navigate primary to secondary, and secondary to post-secondary academic and social spaces. These cross-agency collaborations along with technical assistance from external CCR focused organizations and the creation of a new accountability system has yielded noteworthy gains for Native Hawaiian students in all CCR domains.

Formula for CCCR Success in Hawai'i: Policy, Planning, and Partnerships

The culmination of the collaboration between Hawai'i's Board of Education, The Department of Education and a wide variety of stakeholders from the Hawaiian community that began in 2013, resulted in the present day, and quite unique *College, Career, and Community Readiness* (CCCR) initiative. To reiterate, the newly adopted Hawai'i CCCR definition (Hawai'i P-20 Partnership, 2013) is as follows:

Hawai'i students who are prepared for meaningful engagement in college, career, and community have successfully: Achieved proficiency in essential content knowledge; mastered key learning skills and cognitive strategies; acquired practical knowledge enabling successful transitions from high school to college and career; and built a strong foundation of identity through an ongoing process of wayfinding to engage in local, national, and global contexts. By "students", we mean those enrolled in Hawaii's education system recognizing that college, career and community readiness is a lifelong process that begins with early childhood learning.

By “college,” we mean two- and four-year post-secondary institutions, trade schools, and technical schools. By “career,” we mean a pathway of employment that provides a family-sustaining wage. By “community,” we mean the set of interdependent relationships among physical, social and/or cultural groups linked by shared values and responsibility for one another, the natural world, and local and global well-being. To effectively achieve college, career and community readiness, there are key conditions for success that students should have, including: (1) Supportive, meaningful and impactful relationships – whether at school, home, work, community, (2) High expectations for a rigorous course of study, and (3) A sense of responsibility for their own educational success that is shared by families, schools, and other community members. (p. 1-2).

These objectives have been tied to measurable outcomes, which include:

1. Essential Content Knowledge

- Students have the knowledge and skills associated with college and career readiness including those outlined in the Common Core State Standards and standards for other core subject areas such as social studies, sciences, Hawaiian and world languages, and the arts.
- Students have the content knowledge and skills to be eligible to enroll in credit-bearing, postsecondary courses, workforce training and/or apprenticeship programs without the need for remediation and complete them successfully.

2. Learning Skills and Cognitive Strategies

- Students can utilize specific learning methods such as goal setting, persistence

and self-awareness, as well as time management and organization, study skills, technology skills, and collaborative learning.

- Students can formulate problems, conduct research, interpret and communicate findings, and generate innovative solutions, all with precision and accuracy.
- Students can construct meaning for themselves as an active part of the learning and character development process and begin to understand the world through many sources of knowledge.

3. Transitional Skills

- Students have set goals for career, school, and life and are knowledgeable about a variety of pathways and requirements to achieve these goals.
- Students are able to navigate through postsecondary program selection and admissions, possess the knowledge and skills to enter into and thrive in a family-sustaining career pathway, and utilize strategies to resolve problems and improve academic performance.

4. Wayfinding

- Students are able to identify their *kuleana* and work hard to fulfill these responsibilities to their families, *'aina*, community, and future and past generations.
- Students know what makes their communities unique and become more connected and involved through opportunities such as volunteer service, ecological stewardship, and civic engagement.
- Students better understand themselves and their values and can comfortably

interface with diverse perspectives, cultures, and worldviews to flourish in and sustain local and global communities.

- Students take an active leadership role and engage others such as their peers, teachers, parents and other community members, to address issues that are important to them. (p. 1-2).

Policy

In order to ensure that education policy matched the new CCCR initiative, the Hawai'i Board of Education formed a task force in 2011 to perform an audit on the BOE's policies. At its end in 2014, a report was presented to the BOE and suggested a new policy matrix that reorganized the policies to align with the BOE and Department's joint strategic plan, established 'Ends Policies' that include expected outcomes for the new educational system, as well as identified policies that were no longer needed, and identified new policies for consideration. The new policy system was completed June of 2016.

Below are examples of surviving and newly established General Board of Education Policy, which focus heavily on conative development in CCCR K-12 students (Table 12). Most noteworthy of all is the Philosophy of Education policy, which makes no mention of core content mastery or academic proficiency, rather importance is placed on a student's ability to develop as a democratic citizen in a multicultural society. The addition of the Controversial Issues policy is also unique, in that there is now a safe space to navigate 'the facts' through dialogue and collaboration between student and teacher in the classroom. For policy on curricular design, the Well Rounded Academic Program policy necessitates that curriculum be interdisciplinary and culturally relevant in order to inspire joy in

learning, cultivate respect for self and others, and to pursue knowledge throughout one’s lifetime.

Table 12: Examples of Conative Skills Inclusion in K-12 CCR

Board of Education Ends Policy Series: Overarching		
<i>Policy</i>	<i>Title</i>	<i>Textual Example</i>
E-1 ¹⁷	Philosophy of Education	“Education is the process which allows individuals to become citizens who have positive attitudes toward learning and inquiry, who communicate effectively, who are guided in making choices based on critically determined and commonly shared values, who are successful in the workplace, and who practice civic responsibility. The preservation, promotion, and improvement of a democratic, multicultural society require the formal schooling of its children, youth and adults.”
		“These programs and services shall enable all public school graduates to realize their goals and aspirations; possess the attitudes, knowledge, and skills to contribute positively to and compete in a global society; exercise their rights and responsibilities of citizenship; and pursue postsecondary education and/or careers without the need for remediation.”
E-2 ¹⁸	Mission, Vision, Values, and Beliefs	“We serve our community by developing the academic achievement, character, and social-emotional well-being of our students to the fullest potential. We work with partners, families, and communities to ensure that all students reach their aspirations from early learning through college, career, and citizenship.”
		“Hawaii provides abundant real-world learning environments relevant for success in a culturally diverse, technologically complex, and interdependent global society.”
		“Students do better when they come to school ready to learn, from the first day of kindergarten to the last day of senior year. Parents, caregivers, extended <i>‘ohana</i> , and community can provide crucial support and guidance to help students focus on and enhance their learning. All students need depth of knowledge that grows from a solid academic foundation in the core subjects of reading, math, science, and social studies. All students need breadth of knowledge and character development—a broad-based curriculum and development of the General Learner Outcomes (“GLOs”) that result in joy in learning, respect for others, and lifelong spirit of inquiry.”
E-3 ¹⁹	Nā Hopena A’o (“HĀ”)	“The Department of Education works together as a system that includes everyone in the broader community to develop the

¹⁷For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:
<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/2000series/Pages/2000.aspx>

¹⁸ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:
<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/Mission,%20Vision,%20Values,%20and%20Beliefs.pdf>

¹⁹ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:
[http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/N%C4%81%20Hopena%20A'o%20\(H%C4%80\).pdf](http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/N%C4%81%20Hopena%20A'o%20(H%C4%80).pdf)

		competencies that strengthen a sense of belonging, responsibility, excellence, aloha, total-well-being and Hawaii (“BREATH”) in ourselves, students and others. With a foundation in Hawaiian values, language, culture and history, <i>HĀ</i> reflects the uniqueness of Hawaii and is meaningful in all places of learning. <i>HĀ</i> supports a holistic learning process with universal appeal and application to guide learners and leaders in the entire school community.”
Board of Education Ends Policy Series 100: Student Success		
E-100 ²⁰	Student Success	“The Department shall ensure that all students demonstrate they are on a path toward success following graduation from the Hawaii public school system, in areas including college, career, and citizenship.”
E-101 ²¹	Whole Student Development	“The Department shall provide an educational experience that develops students’ social, emotional, intellectual, creative, and physical skills and talents. The Department shall support schools in ensuring that students are connected to their school and community to develop a love of learning and contribute to a vibrant civic life.”
101-2 ²²	Character Education	“The vitality and viability of our democratic way of life are dependent on all students developing into responsible and caring citizens who respect themselves, others, and the world in which they live. Character education is the process through which students are provided opportunities to learn and demonstrate democratic principles and core ethical values, including civic responsibility, compassion, honesty, integrity, and self-discipline.”
101-3 ²³	Student Activities	“All schools shall establish a student activities program that promotes civic engagement and responsibility. This is an integral part of curriculum, providing personal, social, and democratic governance applications and experiences appropriate to the maturity, needs, and interests of students.”
		“Student activities, such as civic engagement, provide young people with opportunities to gain work experience, acquire new skills, and to learn responsibility and accountability—all while contributing to the good of their communities. Successful youth engagement strategies require that youth have genuine and meaningful opportunities to work with each other and with policymakers to impact issues of importance.”
101-13 ²⁴	Controversial Issues	“Student discussion of issues which generate opposing points of view shall be considered a normal part of the learning process in every area of the school program. The depth of the discussion shall be determined

²⁰ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:

<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/Student%20Success.pdf>

²¹ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:

<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/Whole%20Student%20Development.pdf>

²² For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:

<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/Character%20Education.pdf>

²³ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:

<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/Student%20Activities.pdf>

²⁴ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:

<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/Controversial%20Issues.pdf>

		by the maturity of the students. Teachers shall refer students to resources reflecting multiple and diverse points of view. Discussions, including contributions made by the teacher or resource person, shall be maintained on an objective, factual basis. Stress shall be placed on learning how to make judgments based on facts.”
101-15 ²⁵	Focus on Students	“The educational environment provided in each school shall be geared toward meeting the general learner outcomes of the Hawaii Content and Performance Standards: (1) the ability to be responsible for one’s own learning; (2) the understanding that it is essential for human beings to work together; (3) the ability to demonstrate critical thinking and problem solving; (4) the ability to recognize and produce quality performance and quality products; (5) the ability to communicate effectively; and (6) the ability to use a variety of technologies effectively and ethically. Schools shall encourage and enable students to achieve high academic and personal goals, make skilled, self-directed, and reasoned judgments, and find personal meaning in each learning situation.”
Board of Education Ends Policy Series 102: Academic Mastery and Assessment		
102-2 ²⁶	K-12 Literacy	“Literacy is the ability in any content or context to read, write, and communicate. Other skills that enhance literacy include relating, expressing, speaking, understanding, listening, critical thinking, analyzing, and problem-solving.”
102-8 ²⁷	Student Promotion	“Students shall be promoted based on demonstration of proficiency with respect to applicable standards of academic achievement, character development, and socio-emotional progress.”
102-15 ²⁸	High School Graduation requirements and Commencement	“All Hawaii public school graduates will: Realize their individual goals and aspirations; Possess the attitudes, knowledge, and skills necessary to contribute positively and compete in a global society; Exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship; and Pursue post-secondary education and/or careers.”
Board of Education Ends Policy Series 103: Health and Wellness		
103-1 ²⁹	Health and Wellness	“The Board recognizes that schools play an integral part in educating and exposing students to wellness practices, health-enhancing behaviors, good nutrition, and physical and other school-based activities that lead to student achievement and learning.”
Board of Education Ends Policy Series 105: Broad-based Curriculum		
E-105 ³⁰	Well Rounded	“All students need breadth of knowledge that leads to joy in learning,

²⁵ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:

<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/Focus%20on%20Students.pdf>

²⁶ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:

<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/K-12%20Literacy.pdf>

²⁷ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:

<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/Student%20Promotion.pdf>

²⁸ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:

<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/High%20School%20Graduation%20Requirements%20and%20Commencement.pdf>

²⁹ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:

<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/Health%20and%20Wellness.pdf>

	Academic Program	respect for others, and a lifelong spirit of inquiry. The Department shall provide a comprehensive and holistic program of academic education to inspire and meet the needs, interests, and abilities of all students. Such a program includes a standards-based interdisciplinary curriculum and supports to develop positive and culturally relevant learning experiences that support achievement for all students.”
105-6 ³¹	Career and Technical Education	<p>“Career and Technical Education encompasses both career and academic education and shall be incorporated into the curriculum at each grade level in the public schools. Elementary and middle/intermediate schools shall implement technological design and career planning standards by integrating career awareness and exploration opportunities into the curriculum. High schools shall offer rigorous and relevant Programs of Study that integrate academic and technical skills standards which are organized within career pathways. Each Program of Study shall include a coherent sequence of courses based on academic, technical, and employability skills standards.”</p> <p>“Furthermore, while all education has vocational aspects, comprehensive Career and Technical Education programs help students develop the technical, academic, employability, and life skills needed for high wage and high skill careers and/or postsecondary education.”</p>
105-7 ³²	Hawaiian Education	“Hawaii’s public education system should embody Hawaiian values, language, culture and history as a foundation to prepare students in grades K-12 for success in college, career and communities, locally and globally. Hawaiian language, culture, and history should be an integral part of Hawaii’s education standards for all students in grades K-12.”
105-8 ³³	Ka Papahana Kaiapuni (“Kaiapuni Educational Program”)	“Additionally, the program contributes to the continuation of our Hawaiian language and culture. The Kaiapuni Educational Program offers students an education in the medium of the Hawaiian Language. The comprehensive program combines the use of Hawaiian teaching methodologies, language, history, culture and values to prepare students for college, career and to be community contributors within a multicultural society.”
105-14 ³⁴	Multilingualism for Equitable Education	“All cultures and languages are valuable resources to learn and live in Hawai’i and our global community. Multilingualism creates learning environments that draw from the rich linguistic diversity and cultural strengths of Hawaii’s students. The Board of Education recognizes the important role of multilingualism in providing a meaningful and

³⁰ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:

<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/Well%20Rounded%20Academic%20Program.pdf>

³¹ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:

<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/Career%20and%20Technical%20Education.pdf>

³² For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:

<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/Hawaiian%20Education.pdf>

³³ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:

<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/Ka%20Papahana%20Kaiapuni.pdf>

³⁴ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit:

<http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/Multilingualism%20for%20Equitable%20Education.pdf>

		equitable education for student achievement.”
Board of Education Ends Policy Series 400: Board of Education Governance		
400-8 ³⁵	Board of Education Student Member Selection	“The Board of Education recognizes the importance of providing students with meaningful democratic experiences. By encouraging students to involve themselves in their governance, schools enable them to become active and contributing participants in government. Each secondary school shall: (1) participate in the annual Board of Education student member selection process; and (2) make candidate information available to all students. The Hawaii State Student Council shall organize and execute the Board of Education student member selection process and, in accordance with Article X, Section 2, of the Hawaii State Constitution, is authorized to set the rules and procedures surrounding the selection.”

Planning

The Strive HI Performance System (2013). In 2010, S.B. 2122 SD1 was enacted amending Chapter 302A, relating to research, as part of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (2009) requirements for the establishment of a longitudinal data system. Regarding data sharing, the act states, “The department of education, the University of Hawai‘i, the department of labor and industrial relations, and other state agencies, as appropriate, shall share data to support research that will improve educational and workforce outcomes.” The following year the state applied for the Statewide Longitudinal Data Systems Program (CFDA 84.372A) through The Institute of Educational Sciences (IES). The project, entitled *Hookele: Guiding Hawaii to Meet its Human Capital Goals through a P20W Statewide Longitudinal Data System (P20W-SLDS)*, was designed to increase effective use of data across sectors to improve post-secondary and workforce outcomes. Together, the Hawai‘i State Department of Education (HIDOE), the University of Hawai‘i System (UH), and the Hawai‘i Department of Labor and Industrial Relations (DLIR),

³⁵ For more detailed information on the Hawaiian BOE policy, visit: <http://boe.hawaii.gov/policies/Board%20Policies/Board%20of%20Education%20Student%20Member%20Selection.pdf>

would work to meet three primary objectives: (1) the development of a coordinated management and sustainability plan for the SLDS, (2) an effective and actionable reporting process to inform policy and research, and (3) the creation of a culture of rigorous data use (Hookele, 2012). *Hookele*, in Hawaiian, means a steersman who guides his canoe and paddlers safely to a destination (Hookele, 2012). With HODOE as the steersman, the goal was to use data informed decision making to safely guide at least 55% of Hawai'i's working age adults towards postsecondary educational attainment (2 or 4-year degrees) by the year 2025.

With the SLDS in place at the beginning of FY 2012-2013, Hawai'i began using the P-20 data to determine a baseline and moving forward, tracking not only proficiency levels, but also growth in areas not measure by NCLB. Hawai'i felt that the accountability system established through NCLB was not fit for Hawai'i's unique educational needs, so Hawai'i applied and was approved for the NCLB waiver until the following year. The creation of the Strive HI Performance System replaced the former NCLB accountability system with great success; receiving "meeting expectations" in every category measured in the annual USDOE's ESEA Flexibility Part B Monitoring Report (2015), and thus was extended through the 2017 school year.

The Strive HI Performance System differs from NCLB accountability by taking federally derived priorities away and replacing them with locally identified needs for student success, with only a few measures submitted to the federal system to meet requirements of the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA)(2017). The NCLB system focused predominantly on content area proficiency and solely used the Hawai'i State Assessment to

measure AYP, while Strive HI is centered on CCCR goals and objectives and makes use of multiple measures. While the former system held schools accountable for subgroups of students that do not accurately reflect the Hawaiian student body, the new system holds schools accountable for all Hawaiian students. Lastly, when subgroups are identified as in need of support, the NCLB system relied on federal “one-size fits all” interventions. The Strive HI system uses targeted interventions required through ESSA, such as Comprehensive Support & Improvement (CSI) and Targeted Support and Improvement (TSI).

DOE/BOE Strategic Plan (2017-2020). In 2016, the Hawaiian education collaborative project between the DOE and BOE opened its strategic plan with a distinctive vision statement, “Hawai‘i’s students are educated, healthy, and joyful lifelong learners who contribute positively to our community and global society” (p. 1). A survey of educators and community members yielded a new definition of student success, stating the following conative characteristics:

- Giving back to the community, environment, and world;
- Discovering and pursuing their passions so they can reach their full potential;
- Demonstrating strong academic and life skills (General Learner outcomes), and showing an ability to think critically, solve problems, and apply knowledge to new situations or contexts;
- Being prepared for life after high school, including setting clear goals and developing short-term and long-term engagement in learning;

- Exhibiting strength, confidence, and resilience in their everyday lives, and being generally healthy and happy; and
- Gaining a strong sense of cultural understanding and appreciation for Hawai‘i” (p. 2).

Building upon the 2015 initiation of Nā Hopena a‘o, or HĀ, a new E-3 policy mentioned earlier, a framework of outcomes was designed to reflect core values and beliefs of the Hawaiian education system and will be implemented from 2016 to 2018. Hawai‘i’s Department of Education was awarded \$199,800 from a competitive grant provided by Center for Innovation in Education and the Next Generation Learning Challenges to develop Hawai‘i’s first ever culturally responsive assessment framework for The Nā Hopena A‘o (HĀ) outcomes. This project will be undertaken by The Office for Hawaiian Education (OHE) and a HĀ Assessment Learning Project (ALP) team, and will be provided advisory support and technical assistance by the Regional Educational Laboratory (REL) Pacific, the national Educational Policy Improvement Center (EPIC), and the Hawai‘i Chapter of the Chicago-based Center for Culturally Responsive Evaluation and Assessment (CREA). The goals of this two-year pilot project will be to identify a set of competency-based indicators of success, and a new student-centered learning pathway toward CCCR based upon the told experiences of Hawaiian students, families, and educational community members in the spirit of *mo‘olelo*. The HĀ ALP team will use a four-level approach to identify, test, and refine the framework (Table 13).

Table 13: Four Levels of Mo‘olelo Approach

Level	Activities
1. Mo‘olelo Research	Develop research agenda and Research culturally responsive systems of

	priorities based on a native lens	measurement from native and non-native lens
2. Mo'olelo of Practice	Identify and examine contexts where HĀ outcomes exists and do not exist	Implement initial indicators of success at pilot sites
3. Mo'olelo in Practice	Establish organizational learning structures at pilot sites	Measure differences in HĀ outcomes across proficiency levels
4. Living Mo'olelo	Refine indicators for short, mid, and long-term outcomes	Disseminate findings to inform a broader practice of culturally responsive education

The 2017-2020 Strategic Plan cites three goals: (1) student success, (2) staff success, and (3) successful systems of support. Embedded within each objective for goal one, are the acquisition and reinforcement of conative skill development and application over a student's lifetime (Table 14).

Table 14: Summary of Objectives for Goal One ³⁶

Goal 1: Student Success	Examples of Conative Skills		
Objective 1: EMPOWERED. All students are empowered in their learning to set and achieve their aspirations for the future.	1a. Increase student engagement and empowerment through relevant, rigorous learning opportunities that incorporate students' voices.	1b. Ensure that high school graduates demonstrate the General Learner Outcomes (GLOs) and have the abilities, habits, and knowledge to set and achieve their short-term and long-term career, community, and postsecondary education goals.	1c. Throughout their K-12 education experience, students have diverse opportunities to explore, plan, and prepare so that they graduate from high school ready to succeed.
Objective 2: WHOLE CHILD. All students are safe, healthy, and supported in school, so that they can engage fully in high-quality educational opportunities.	2a. Provide students with learning environments that are caring, safe, and supportive of high-quality learning.	2b. Address students' physical, mental, and behavioral health through school programs and partnerships with families, community organizations, and government agencies that support students' well-being.	2c. Cultivate a community and school culture where attendance is valued, encouraged, and supported.
Objective 3: WELL-ROUNDED. All students	3a. Provide students of all backgrounds, ages,	3b. Ensure that each student's learning is personalized, informed by high-quality data, and	

³⁶ For more detailed information on Hawai'i's Strategic Plan please visit: <http://www.hawaiipublicschools.org/DOE%20Forms/Advancing%20Education/SP2017-20.pdf>

are offered and engage in a rigorous, well-rounded education so that students are prepared to be successful in their post-high school goals.	and needs with a challenging and quality standards-based education in all subject areas.	advances them toward readiness for success in career, college, and community.
Objective 4: PREPARED AND RESILIENT. All students transition successfully throughout their educational experiences.	4a. Identify and address student strengths and challenges early so students may transition into early elementary grades ready to learn and with a cognitive foundation for reading that prepares them for the future.	4e. Ensure that every high school graduate or completer has an identified next step after high school aligned with their future aspirations.

Hawai'i's Blueprint for Public Education (2017). In April of 2016, David Ige, the governor, formed the Governor's ESSA Team. With President Obama's enactment of Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), Hawai'i set out to transform the public education system into one that served its students with new opportunities to become CCCR. This 19-member team began crafting a blueprint for Hawaiian education that would reflect Hawaiian beliefs about education and use Hawaiian conative values as the cornerstone for improvement, first by understanding how the past has effected the present condition of education, and then by utilizing those lessons learned to inform a system of education that more accurately represents the Hawaiian student body, their goals and aspirations, and those held responsible for nurturing their growth and development.

Art Souza, Complex Area Superintendent, stated in a 2016 ESSA Blueprint Community Meeting, "How we define a successful student should be the measure of how we see a successful community. Our hope is for our students to sustain our community; we need to have that mirror. The current state is one that is encouraging. There is a lot of

work yet to do, and understanding what a successful student is, is a key foundation for any blueprint”.

Additionally, the 2016 State Public Education Survey by Ward Research revealed that 83% of the 720 people surveyed, agreed that, “the Hawai‘i DOE should stop issuing mandates and focus on empowering schools”. The heavy focus on reflection and empowerment lead the team to design a reform plan that prepares all Hawaiian students to succeed through “culture-based excellence in an innovation driven economy” (p. 15). Below is an outline for the basic design principles for student success from the Blueprint for Public Education (2017) that are connected to the conative aspects of Hawaiian culture and facets of learning (Table 15).

Table 15: Student Success Design Principles³⁷

Design Principles	Textual Examples of Conative Skills	
High Quality Early Learning for All Learners	“Include more access to high quality early childhood programs which will target those who are most in need, such as children who, because of their home and community environment, are subject to language, cultural, economic, and other disadvantages”.	“Provide programs that increase the knowledge base of families, schools and communities so that they will be empowered and ready to support all children to be successful in school and life. ‘Ohana Nui is the State’s multigenerational approach that invests early and concurrently in children and families to improve health, education, employment, and other outcomes”.
Global Learner Outcomes	“Skills and dispositions of a global learner: Complex Thinker; Effective Communicator; Self -Directed learner; Community Contributor; Quality Producer; Effective and Ethical User of Technology; and Creative Innovator”.	
Balanced Assessments and Testing In the Service of Student Learning	“Schools will use a variety of assessments that measure student learning and allow students to show what they have learned in different ways”.	“Education assessments will be designed and prepared with integrity and delivered with respect and caring for students. There will be recognition and appreciation of each student’s cultural history, language, and values”.

³⁷ For more detailed information on Hawai‘i’s Blueprint for Education please visit: <https://governor.hawaii.gov/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/Hawaii-Blueprint-for-Public-Education-Governors-ESSA-Team-May-1-2017.pdf>

Student Empowerment, Student Voice	"Students will be empowered to take more responsibility for their own learning".	"When learning is more personalized, and students are assessed authentically on self-directed projects we believe both rigor and Hawai'i's engagement will be increased".
Student Wellness, SEL, Health/Fitness Needs	"Students learn empathy in a diverse cultural environment where collaboration with and compassion for others is emphasized".	"We will continue to create school communities where aloha, well-being, belonging, and the joy for learning, are valued and evident".
Opportunities for Student Success	"We will align professional development resources to support student success objectives and be responsive to the identities and needs of individuals, schools, community, complexes, and state offices (e.g. interdisciplinary and relevant lessons, social-emotional learning, instructional strategies to address all types of learners, special education inclusion, language development, and quality classroom assessments)".	"There will be an early identification of student passions, aspirations, and curiosities that will be fostered through a strength-based approach. We will promote student voice and leadership throughout the school and the larger education system and encourage their engagement in addressing school problems and participating in decisions".
Pathways for Career and Technical Education	"We will expand partnerships with higher education and industry to assure that our students are well-informed and prepared for success beyond high school".	
Pathways for Multilingualism	"Hawai'i's educational system will continue to offer the choice of education through either of its two official languages".	
Equity and Excellence - Eliminate the Achievement Gap	"Student success will be redefined to include more than test scores as schools are empowered to identify and address the strengths and needs of their own students".	"Quality early learning programs for all students, culturally and contextually relevant learning experiences in all schools, and licensed, certified, and effective teachers in every classroom will lead to the elimination of the achievement gap".

Partnerships

Core to College Partnership. Once the modifications to Hawai'i's K-12 system were complete, the next step was to establish alignment between the K-12 system and higher education. In order to do so, Hawai'i, along with 8 other states, was awarded the Core to College Grant funded by The Carnegie Corporation of New York, The Lumina Foundation, Hewlett Foundation, Gates Foundation, and Education First. Along with the adoption of a statewide CCCR definition, The Common Core Standards and Smarter

Balanced Assessments, Hawai'i's next task was to ensure that both K-12 students and their educators could meet these standards. This would also require new higher education policies on teacher prep programming, and college placement for incoming students. What Core to College brings to the table for Hawai'i is a network of collaborators from multiple platforms in education, technical assistance and a gateway to supplemental research and resources to achieve these goals and sustain the expected outcomes.

MyFutureHawai'i Partnership. The MyFutureHawai'i online portal is a one-stop shop for all things CCCR. This interactive website is designed for K-12 students, parents, educators, and adult learners in Hawai'i. The site provides resources, inventories, and planning tools for the future, and is home to Hawai'i's College and Career Connection, featuring links to other agencies and organizations that will assist students in career exploration and college going (Table 16). MyFutureHawai'i was created in 2011 through collaboration between Hawai'i P-20 Partnerships for Education, Hawai'i State Department of Education, the University of Hawai'i system, and the Hawai'i Department of Labor and Industrial Relations.

Table 16: Examples of My Future Hawai'i Partnerships and Resources

Partnering Agency/Organization	CCCR Site	Tools/Resources
Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation/ Facebook	Peer Forward	Career exploration, college planning and financing, on-track graduation mobile applications
US Department of Education	Federal Student Aid	Loans, grants, work-study, scholarships
College Board	Big Future	Finding a best-match college, college planning
Live Career	Live Career	21 st Century Skill building, resume builder, interviewing tutorials

55 by '25 Partnership. The Hawai'i P-20 Partnerships for Education coordinates this community-driven campaign to reach the goal of 55% of all working age adults

completing either a two-year or four-year degree by the year 2025. The campaign engages local media, business and community organizations, along with families and students, with educational leaders who work collaboratively to improve access and quality within the public educational system beginning from kindergarten following through to the completion of college. On the 55 by '25 website there are research finding on the progress of the initiative, as well as testimonials and information regarding sponsors and partners. One can also donate to the project fund if desired.

Summary

Considering the effort and time that Hawai'i has contributed to answering the question of how to best prepare their students for college and careers, they have tackled a multitude of issues surrounding CCR for all students in a way that reflects heavily upon Native Hawaiian values and goals. By creating a new and expanded definition of CCCR, building upon existing and integrating new knowledge, with conative skills and behaviors as the foundation of each tier of achievement, Hawai'i now has a fluid set of standards, policies, and goals to close the achievement gap caused by historic inequity between ethno-racial and socio-economic groups within the state.

Hawai'i has connected students and families with educational leaders, policy makers, and institutions of higher education through on-going collaboration in order to best align secondary education with college-level expectations and standards in a manner that best serves the entire community. And in reflecting on their past, Hawai'i sees a bright future for new generations to come. As the next chapter will explore, the Hawaiian college and career readiness movement is one that promises a place at the table where voices will

be heard, perspectives will be seen, and the culture of educational achievement will be a shared responsibility from which all may benefit.

Chapter 5: Discussion

In concluding my analysis, I found myself thinking heavily about 18th century Herderian³⁸ philosophy, specifically his political philosophy of liberalism and democracy, as it relates to conation, and the ways in which the concepts of nationalism and issues of how the power that culture wields so heavily impacts the very well-being of a people with regard to intellectual growth and overall prosperity.

For Herder, I am left to believe³⁹, conative behavior, especially self-realization and agency, are political acts in which an individual engages with another to discern truth through investigating conflicting positions. This process would necessitate an unobstructed exercise of freedom of expression through thought and speech, which are constituted to us as American citizens through our first amendment rights. In so far as the people should share in the construction of their governance in practice and written forms to mediate the effects of oppression, repression, and suppression due to the autocratic tendencies of political superstructures.

³⁸ Johann Gottfried von Herder (1744-1803), heavily influenced by Spinoza and Kant, and influenced heavily Hegel, Nietzsche, and Boas, was an anti-colonialist and strong proponent of what we now refer to as cosmopolitanism.

³⁹ From what I remember reading in my anthropology courses and a refresher from the following:

1. Barnard, F. M. (1988). *Self-direction and political legitimacy: Rousseau and Herder*.
2. Herder, J. G. (1969). *JG Herder on social and political culture*. Cambridge University Press.
3. Herder, J. G. (1992). *Johann Gottfried Herder: Selected Early Works, 1764-1767: Addresses, Essays, and Drafts; Fragments on Recent German Literature*. E. A. Menze, & K. Menges (Eds.). Pennsylvania State University Press.
4. Herder, J. G. (2004). *Another philosophy of history and selected political writings*. Hackett Publishing.
5. Fishman, J. A. (1982). Whorfianism of the third kind: ethnolinguistic diversity as a worldwide societal asset (*The Whorfian Hypothesis: varieties of validation, confirmation, and disconfirmation II*). *Language in society*, 11(1), 1-14.
6. Forster, M. N. (2002). *Herder: philosophical writings*.
7. Rousseau, J. J., & Herder, J. G. (2012). *On the origin of language*. University of Chicago Press.

Pieterse (2014) said:

“We have entered an era of multipolarity, much thinking continues in unipolar terms, in terms of lumping concepts such as modernity and capitalism. In a multipolar era, thinking in plural terms is more relevant and appropriate, but thinking plural runs counter to formidable pressures towards convergence, pressures that are built into the status quo and international institutions, and into macro theories in social science.” (p. 1).

The successful cosmopolity of a space like Hawai‘i requires input and deliberation, in one shared space, from multiple cultures’ attitudes, beliefs, and practices from across place and time. The respect and preservation of traditions that are central to identity and a community’s socio-political health are vital, but not necessarily in a way that maintains a separatist order, rather one that acknowledges and integrates ideas and practices that are beneficial to the advancement of the whole as a pluralistic society. Moreover, the re-establishment of lifelong learning as a key piece of the collective Hawaiian identity contributes to the development of a generational *college going identity* that is vital to post-secondary persistence and retention (Hooker & Brand, 2010; Museus, 2011). I feel as though the state of Hawai‘i is making great progress towards these goals through the way they choose to grow and guide all students in public schools toward a post-secondary education through the CCCR programming and policy.

Conative Themes in Hawaiian K-12 CCR Education Reform

Engagement

The *‘Āina*-based educational curriculum for Hawai‘i’s CCCR reform movement is re-establishing the relationship between learners and their environments in a manner that situates learning and sharing knowledge as *mālama* (care for) people, places, and things in order to address global social, economic, and environmental challenges. The new reform efforts have rejected the components of Western assimilation models of education in order to restore place-based culturally reflective learning models, like those proposed by Freire and Dewey, that re-engage learners with Native Hawaiian values and beliefs, thus overcoming many of the historical obstacles to learning presented by the contrast between home and school lives (Meyer, 1998; Smith, 2002).

AIR (2005) reports that across the continental US, this model results in higher meta-cognitive skills and higher order thinking (conative skills and knowledge), increased academic achievement, and an overall increase in enthusiasm for learning. In Hawai‘i specifically, Yamauchi (2003), found that when employed, this model increases attendance rates, decreases high school dropout, and increases post-secondary interest in both public and private school students. Memmott & Long (2002) attribute this to the strong tie between native conceptions of people and place as intertwined, and that a model focused on native culture is more effective than assimilation models.

Hawai‘i has prompted students to not only think *for* themselves, but to think *of* themselves, when engaged in the learning process. This deeper level of internal engagement is unique to Hawaiian educational policy and speaks to what Hawaiians

believe learning is and how it happens. Hawaiian students are urged to turn the tables on corporatism and take back their locus of control, positioning the students and communities as the beneficiaries of education, rather than the pathways and industries who will later employ them. It then becomes a collective belief that where one student succeeds, all students can succeed.

Empowerment

What could be more empowering to a student than telling them that everything that they need to succeed is already inside them? That who you are and where you come from is not just important, it is invaluable, because you carry the strength and wisdom of all those who came before you. That you are connected, past, present, and future, and that you rightfully belong to the community in which you live. That a language awaits your use that wields immense spiritual and intellectual power, so much so that new policy is crafted in its tongue.

The revitalization of the native language in Hawaiian education and policy is especially compelling because it encapsulates their history and heritage, bringing it to the forefront as social and political capital. As Fishman (1991) notes that:

RLS [Reverse Language Shift] appeals to many because it is part of the process of re-establishing local options, local control, local hope and local meaning to life. It basically reveals a humanistic and positive outlook vis-à-vis intragroup life, rather than a mechanistic and fatalistic one. It espouses the right and the ability of small cultures to live and to inform life for their own members as well as to contribute thereby to the enrichment of humankind. (p. 35).

And Henze & Davis (1996) add that this practice is not solely for the benefit of native language speakers, but also “encourage[s] solidarity among apparently disparate groups as they face common problems associated with oppression” (p. 4). And with the shift in language, comes a shift in socio-political ideology, exchanging the language as a problem argument for language as a right (Henze & Davis, 1996). This extends to the vast array of cultural components that comprise language and the identity one carries when speaking that language. The use of Native Hawaiian in educational policy and programming text opens the doors for students and makes one’s Hawaiian and American identity equally important in a holistic learning environment.

RLS in Hawai‘i is also indicative of a broader social justice movement. In 1993, the United Nations Draft Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples declares, “Indigenous peoples have the right to revitalize, use, develop, and transmit to future generations their languages, oral traditions, writing systems, and literatures” (United Nations Commission on Human Rights, 1993, p. 6). And for Greaves (1996), this categorizes such knowledge systems as intellectual property. And it is through these knowledge systems that Native Hawaiians construct knowledge of self, communicate who they are to others, and most importantly- define what is critical to their success without the use of a non-Hawaiian advocate.

Resilience and Persistence

There is no doubt that Hawai‘i has been struck with its fair share of interlopers seeking to colonize, or re-colonize, civilize or enslave, the land and its people. Yet somehow, Native Hawaiians managed to resist forced assimilation and persist unlike no

other indigenous group in the US. This may be attributed to dissimilar experiences during continuous civilization efforts. Hawaiians were not forcefully removed from their land, nor were they disciplined militarily for resisting assimilation. Thus, their identity as a people in a place was not destroyed, only circumstantially disrupted, allowing them to maintain the strongest tie that binds them. Native Hawaiians were able to, at the macro-level, reclaim both their identity and land, through systematic micro-level resistance efforts, despite a variety of new cultural invasions and inter-mixing over time.

Saltman (2002) states, “identity achieves its strongest expression within the political context of conflicting rights over land and territory” (p. 6), and that the intersection of place and identity is a site of cognitive and perceptive struggle whereby social realities are produced. From what I have gleaned in reading about Native Hawaiian identity, most notably its strength and ability to push through the quagmires presented by mass waves of immigration to the islands, is that it is firmly grounded in the concept of *‘āina* (place). Kana’iaupuni and Liebler (2005) assert, “Living or growing up in Hawai’i is certainly a notable experience that affects the identity processes of all its diverse residents.... But one unique characteristic that Hawaiians will always have is their genealogical connection to Hawai’i as the ancestral homeland. No other group holds this claim” (p. 691). This sense of identity provides for its people a wealthy source of self-determination and resilience (Kamakau, 1992; Kana’iaupuni & Liebler, 2005; Mihesuah, 2003).

Connecting this to the unique construction of culturally reflective educational policy and programming could explain Hawai’i’s success in increasing their academic

achievement and overall CCCR (Kana'iaupuni & Ishibashi, 2005; Kawakami & Aton, 2001). As mentioned earlier, a renewed sense of *kuleana* (responsibility) is growing in students participating in the revamped CCCR Hawaiian education system, and according to native culture, this stems from a deep respect for, and sense of, place, as it has been fought for and maintained by those before them time and time again.

Motivation

Historically, social scientists have identified cultural discontinuity as the reason for failure in many minority-based academic settings. However, Ogbu (1982) has always contended, especially for Hawaiians, those who fall into a *caste-like* minority category, the issue is one more closely related to a secondary discontinuity, one that is motivational. It is true that what one is taught, in terms of cultural compatibility, can grossly effect the degree to which it is accepted as knowledge, and is learned, yet the question of *how* one is taught and evaluated seems to be a more pressing concern in Hawaiian culture. In Hawai'i, policy-makers and program designers have used a mixture of culturally informed pedagogical models to deliver core content knowledge using native culture as a mechanism for choosing program elements and evaluation methods.

Secondly, once in the classroom, a practice known as *eliciting contexts* is employed (Tharp, Jordan, & O'Donnell, 1980). This practice draws from social learning theory, and is hinged on the premise that learning, as a behavior, is context-dependent or context-sensitive, and the most success comes from what is already familiar and elicits positive behavior and feedback. Native cultural beliefs and practices fall into this category and are the easiest to identify. Jordan (1981, 1983) notes that to motivate a classroom to learn in a

Native Hawaiian setting, it must be done as a group, employing a cooperative nature, which is common to household and community behaviors and practices. Translated into classroom praxis, this method engages individuals in a way that creates a routine academic behavior in turn, while concurrently legitimizing students as sources of shared power, knowledge, and assistance (Jordan, 1981, 1983).

Culturally based learning and teaching strategies have made a notable impact on motivating students in Hawai'i in more ways than just educational achievement. A variety of program evaluations across the Hawaiian Islands have yielded significant gains in key conative components of living everyday lives (Kaiwi & Kahumoku, 2006; Kana'iaupuni, 2007). Through new school programming, Hawaiian students are reporting increased levels of self-awareness and confidence, as well as resiliency and motivation to persist in the face of having to mitigate negative life experiences.

Reflections on Culture, Communication, and CCCR Education

Knapp & Knapp-Potthoff (1987) assert that, "Everything in communication is culture" (p. 3). They urge us not to think of culture as a static designation or label for a group of people, but rather to problematize the label itself and ask, 'who is culture'? For Hawaiians, the term Hawaiian is not limited to Native Hawaiians in CCCR policy. It encompasses every student who participates in the system. Using this cultural model, one that displays vertical coherence, allows participants to share and benefit from any and every sub-cultural group belief or practice when living or participating in any given community. This model runs contrary to the typical mainland American cultural model, which only provides for horizontal coherence, keeping cultural assets and opportunity

accessible to only those who belong to that specific layer of society. Blommaert (1998) suggests that cultures that are vertically layered are better suited to identify and track matters of cultural production and reproduction, as well as maintain a better sense of realism where issues of diversity and cultural relativity are concerned.

Additionally when viewing Native Hawaiian cultural influence on modernized education and the current CCCR reform efforts, we should also take note of Rampton's (1995) premise that using the term 'traditional culture' can be problematic, as culture itself necessitates and "ongoing construction of a new inheritance from within multiracial interaction itself" (p. 297). Participating in Hawai'i's public education system is at all times a multicultural experience due to the nature of colonizing an archipelago. In this geopolitical context, both colonizers and the colonized are subjected to, through close contact, each other's socio-political and economic conditions. Over time this has the potential to lead to severe disparities between the two if a common ground can be found for the future of the whole. For Hawai'i, the DOE has dubbed public education that common ground and has made it a place where seemingly exclusive cultures can and will come together for the common good as legislated through policy text.

Hawai'i has made a powerful move to destabilize corporatist control over public education by insisting that the use of Native Hawaiian language in policy and legal text is integral to all parties' goals of improving CCCR in Hawaiian students. By claiming this power, in the form of language or language variety (Mey, 1985), as their own, Hawai'i has made a play against several hegemonic practices established there by colonials: (1) Hawaiian, as a culture, will not relinquish power or stewardship of their own to corporatist

America, as it has never truly included them as beneficiaries of industrial or commercial success; (2) Hawai'i, as a state, will not participate in the white-washing of its culture through the English only language movement seen in public education on the mainland; and (3) Hawaiian education will instill values and skills in students that are inclusive of and beneficial to, all students, regardless of their ethno-racial composition and economic status.

Language use not only highlights diversity, but also a variety of socio-political inequalities, and as Hymes (2003) states, one never uses 'a language', it is always a variety, any given context can elicit the use of different genres, styles, and codes. Integrating Hawaiian language into CCCR educational policy not only normalizes and brings validity to the native language, but also increases the socio-political status of the language and subsequently, its speakers, which now, is not solely limited to Native Hawaiians. This strategy's success is contingent upon its ability to effectively communicate universal ideals to a diverse population of learners. The choice to use native language words or phrases in policy and programming text that reflect general human conative attitudes and practices surrounding academic success, such as engagement, motivation, resilience, and persistence, allow for little criticism concerning the efficacy and scholastic validity of employing a 'native lens', as the mainland CCR movement is espousing the very same practices. By using this strategy, Hawai'i can effectively adopt, and where necessary transform, the broader CCR ethos into one that also acknowledges, accepts, and provides for localized needs.

Reflections on Corporatism and CCR Reform

McGill (2015) reminds us that there has never truly been a Golden Era of education in the US, and that we are calling upon an adolescent system to work miracles that it has never worked before, and additionally, that the new Triumph of Corporate Reform, is neither a triumph nor reform. I second his request that we invite, “imagination and courage to transform a 2-century-old institution so that it more fully realizes the promises of democracy” (p. 163). Conative skill development within the broader CCR movement should demand more time and consideration on the part of those who seek answers that have more breadth and depth than those that can be checked off on accountability evaluations. The investment made in public education should be one with the greatest return seen as the overall long-term success of our citizens engaged in the system. A true democratic education is one that fosters agency and autonomy, while concurrently providing avenues towards pluralism.

We are also beginning to feel the effects of public-school experimentation by the new public management and what it has spawned, what we can now refer to as the *new professional educator*. This is a public sector actor that has been inundated by private sector logic and is now operating under globalized market discipline, rather than a localized public service agenda (Anderson & Herr, 2015). For the new professional educator in America, educating students toward the 21st century is a daunting task. The goal is to teach students to remember fragmented information long enough to pass a test. Once the tests are completed, the goal for the student is to then obtain an in-demand job pre-determined by bi-partisan politico-philanthropic groups and is measured by earning a

high wage in a global market. NCLB requirements and the format of statewide assessments obstruct both teacher and learner from engaging in meaningful reciprocal dialogue about the content of core content. It is not a surprise that we have not seen the expected academic gains promised to us through this reform. As Susan Engel (2015) so openly stated, “by allowing the pursuit of money to guide our educational practices, we have mis-educated everyone” (p. 7).

Yet in Hawai‘i, with the rejection of particular aspects of NCLB accountability and enlightenment philosophies of education, a newer model of educator was born from the requirements set forth by new CCCR policy- one that acknowledges and accepts the process of globalization but does not replace local with global for corporate gain. The interviews I read with educators in Hawai‘i’s public education system provided a wealth of knowledge concerning how they view the progress of the new CCCR model. The definition of student success provided by them was not contingent upon landing an in-demand high-wage position, nor was it described as something one could measure in degrees and certificates. Success began first with a sense of self-satisfaction that is derived from a belief that you did your part and you did your best. It then moved toward discussions of happiness and responsibility to one’s self, home, and community.

When you hear the phrase ‘change comes from within’, I believe this is what is meant, or how it can be done. Hawai‘i has set up a model of CCCR education that instills Native Hawaiian values about learning that begin with students as individuals with intrinsic knowledge and value and expands outward for students as parts of a larger community that also has knowledge and value. Students are then prompted to think of

themselves and their communities in relation to the information being taught and the manner in which it is delivered and draw connections or understand differences through experience and dialogue. CCCR educators in Hawai'i have inspired a change in the way core curriculum is taught and in the way their students learn. They have reached beyond the core content; they have reached the student. And although the process is slow going, each year Hawai'i has displayed academic gains in all demographic categories of students, as well as college going and completion. That is success.

A Call to Act

I would like to reiterate that democratic education, characterized as education for the people by the people, is not dead. While Giroux (2004) describes corporatist America's 'descent into madness' through the abandonment of the public good, the replacement of that good with the private bad, and the punitive socio-economic and political sanctions placed on those who oppose, I see light at the end of the tunnel. Yes, my romance with post-structuralism and post-modernism is strong in purely an academic sense, because we do however have irreconcilable differences. The pragmatist in me, the one who says, 'but *how* will we fix it?', dominates my praxis. And my answer lies within public policy, the disruption of public policy to be more exact.

Public policy is one of the many mechanisms used by governance structures to create and maintain order. Public education policy, specifically, is a viable mechanism for introducing change to the current order, as schooling has been used to produce and reproduce social, economic, and political conditions in this country since the inception of public education. Oddly enough, we can use the general outlook on education held by the

current welfare state as a place to begin, that there can be a “change of education through change of public policy’ and ‘the change of society through change of education’” because it has already proven effective (Simons et al., 2009, p. 38). Furthermore, there is no need to throw the baby out with the bathwater; current education policy is not all bad. What it lacks is public exploration and deliberation. Somehow parents and the community alike have become complacent by leaving it to the experts. But a parent knows their child better than anyone, and a community knows why it is suffering better than Capitol Hill.

When policy studies are publicly explored, from their epistemological and ontological foundations, we can call attention to the historical inequities that served their creation and maintenance, and we can then begin to “destabilize rationalist accounts of the origins of policies, their aims and outcomes, and the social and economic purposes that they serve” as democratic citizens who have a right and the expertise to be involved (Peters & Humes, 2003, p. 112). It can begin with a single question.

We must first ask ourselves what is education policy really? Is it a set of rules employed to systematically educate citizens and prepare them for world made for them *or* for a world made by them? I choose the latter, and I know that traditional instrumentalist approaches to policy analysis will not serve me as an aspiring change agent. I also know that historically, academics engaged in critical policy analysis have maintained a polite distance from Big Government. I have always wondered if this is due to the critical approach academics take; entering the field in opposition, ready to deconstruct the apparatus. But the apparatus is just that, it is not logical, nor empathetic. It does not question or deliberate. It is not people; it is part of a larger invisible and highly abstract

institution (Polski & Ostrom, 1999). But within that institution are people, people who may want change.

We are safe in the academy attending our conferences and publishing our papers, but it does the public no good. We need to be more proactive with the public and within the apparatus that is education policy. Safety is a luxury that change does not covet. No revolution is without the proverbial blood, sweat, and tears. We spend an enormous amount of time and energy mapping the origins of legislated inequities and confronting them on paper in intimate settings with our peers, but energy must also be spent talking to and spending time with the people for whom we are advocating. While Casey (2013) draws attention to the 'chasm' between theory and practice in the world of corporatized public education, I would like to draw the same attention to what is not between the academy and the public- a bridge. We must reorient the focus of education policy studies away from the state or the federal apparatuses and shine the light toward the people (Vidovich, 2007). The democratic process is only as strong and successful as those participating, and we need more participants.

We have seen what happens when education 'goes public' in Hawai'i. Amidst the newest reiteration of market-based reform set forth by the Obama administration that called on states to turn their low-performing schools around, Hawai'i emerged as an underdog on the field. Hawai'i competed for and won school improvement grants (SIG), grants offered through Race to the Top, and federal funding opportunities for Native education. All of which were contingent upon following policy frameworks set up by global market capitalists. Hawai'i managed to overhaul its public education within those

guidelines, established a form of education that was reflective of Native Hawaiian beliefs and values, and boosted academic achievement and college completion across all demographic categories, all the while running contrary to what the current reform sought.

Meanwhile on the mainland, states not engaging the public with the prospective changes within public education culture, the meaning and purpose of schooling, and the value of education, continue to struggle for adequate state report card scores determined by NCLB accountability measures. Most of my research concerned with the in-efficacy of NCLB has revealed an aversion or ignorance toward addressing the more critical components of academic success that are not provided for in the current policy and measurement system. One that acknowledges and treats contextual factors external to school, such as, the ethno-racial economic divide, public school funding disparities, community health and wellness, as well as socio-cultural values and norms about schooling and education.

Hawai'i rejected aspects of NCLB and the newer CCR policy that were not reflective of the needs or standards of its students and educators and provided an alternative that was approved by the USDOE. Hawai'i amended existing policy and created new policy using the Native Hawaiian language in places where English could not do the idea justice. This later created room for shifts in pedagogy and curriculum, which in turn, created shifts in student-teacher attitudes about their roles and responsibilities in education. The culmination of these efforts is evidenced by a statewide rise in all CCR indicator categories. Between the years of 2013 and 2018: (a) on-time high school completion rose from 82% to 84%; (b) dual credit enrollment rose from 6% to 18%; (c) advanced placement exam

scores of 3 or higher rose from 11% to 16%; (d) CTE program completion rose from 31% to 57%; (e) college ready scores on the ACT in English, math and science rose from 35%, 20%, 14% to 41%, 22%, 17%, respectively; (f) completion of entry level post-secondary math courses, without remediation, rose from 46% to 64%; and (g) completion of entry level post-secondary English courses, without remediation rose from 33% to 44% (Hawai'i P-20, 2019).

Closing Considerations

At the very core of the transformation of the Hawaiian public education system lie two things: (1) conation, and (2) the belief in democratic education. Taken together, a CCCR initiative emerged as a method to reframe K-20 education in a way that reflects Hawaiian cultural values, beliefs, and attitudes about the purpose of higher education in society. This can serve as a powerful tool in staving off the corruptive influences and limitations that corporatism tends to place on post-secondary attainment for traditionally marginalized populations. Furthermore, the revitalization of an ideological framework that includes all students in Hawai'i as stewards of both their individual and collective futures has prompted a long-awaited reconsideration of the way in which: (1) CCCR goals and expectations are determined, (2) CCCR curricula and assessments are developed, and (3) CCCR commitment is solidified through public education policy and programming.

Additionally, reclaiming local control over CCCR reform has created the opportunity for those involved to think critically about the context of educational achievement and the construction of definitions such as readiness and success. The co-construction of CCCR policy by the community and education professionals is a means by which the Hawaiian

epistemology of education can serve as a countermeasure against hegemonic influences contributing to the historic systemic inequities in post-secondary attainment. Moreover, the inclusion of conative skills in CCCR policy and programming, and resultantly in graduating students, can serve as a method by which Hawaiian CCCR initiatives improve and sustain in future generations. And while the approach taken by Hawai'i is one that works for their local context, other states do have the opportunity to think about implementing and/or adapting such an approach to meet their local needs.

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Appendix A: Glossary of Key Terminology

Keywords	
Academic supports	Resources or service that are provided in/out of school to ensure student learning is on-track and progressive
Accelerated learning	A program/system which allows academically able or gifted children to progress more rapidly through school
Accountability	A policy of holding schools and teachers responsible for students' academic progress by linking progress with funding and support
Alignment	The way in which educational systems or structures establish and maintain coherence and efficiency in programs, curriculum and instruction
Alternative assessments	An evaluation of student learning that is created by the teacher and tied directly to the curriculum taught in the classroom
Assessments	A tool use to evaluate student achievement
Career academies	Theme-based program or school built around a particular course of study or career field
Career and technical education (CTE)	Schools and programs that specialize in the skilled trades, applied sciences, modern technologies, and career preparation (vocational education)
Common Career and Technical Core	Shared descriptions of what students are expected to know and be able to do at a specific stage of their career-centered education
Common Core State Standards	Shared descriptions of what students are expected to know and be able to do at a specific stage of their education
Competency-based learning	Learning opportunity that provides flexibility in the way that credit can be earned, and a method to provide personalized learning in concrete skill attainment
Content standards	A series of descriptions that describe what a student should know or be able to do within a given subject area
Counseling	A strategy that is used to build academic and/or social relationships between teachers, students, families and community
Course requirements	The pre-defined sequence of core and non-core classes a student must pass in order to be promoted to the next grade or to graduate high school.
Credential and certification	The qualification or evidence that one is able to do something (automotive technician certificate, nursing degree)
Curriculum	Instruction and materials with which students will interact for the purpose of achieving identified educational outcomes (textbooks, sequence of skills taught, tests and activities related to math content)
Data systems	A tool used to store, manage, and use data for the purpose of reporting, tracking, and identification.
Data-driven decision-making	A process by which data informs actionable items of need (a student's grades are slipping; student needs additional support)
Dual enrollment	A program designed to award both high school and college credit to a student for passing a course
Educator effectiveness	The degree to which an educator successfully instructs and supports student learning and is reflected in student achievement
Employability skills	A set of knowledge and skills that have been established for optimal employment opportunity (communication, timeliness, self-direction)
Expanded learning opportunities	Programs that provide students with academic enrichment and/ or supervised activities beyond the classroom and school hours
Indicators	Measures with an established threshold (a student with a GPA of 3.2 or higher is more likely to attend college)
Instruction	The manner and method by which content information is delivered from teachers to

	students
Interventions	The provision of early, systematic instruction and assistance to students who are having difficulty learning
Locus of Control	The degree to which an individual attributes outcome to internal or external factors of influence
Outcome measures	Benchmarks or milestones achieved in order to determine progress has been made (passing core course or high school graduation)
Pathways	The identification of an academic or career trajectory of interest and the skills/courses needed to complete it.
Personalized learning	A strategy employed to enhance student learning through identifying and using student strengths to increase achievement
Programs of Study	Sequence of career education courses in a given career cluster or pathway that prepares students for postsecondary education or entry into their career
Remediation	An instructional program designed to help struggling students reach the academic level of their peers
Retention	The act of repeating a grade, non-promotion
School climate	A description of the educational environment (attitudes, beliefs, practices)
School improvement	Plans or strategies employed to continuously make progress toward collectively identified educational goals
Student engagement	The degree of attention, curiosity, interest, optimism, and passion that students show in their learning process
Transition: College to Career	The time period between college graduation and career attainment where students build networks and identify opportunities for career placement
Transition: High School to Career	The time period between high school graduation and career attainment where students build networks and identify opportunities for career placement
Transition: High School to College	The time period between high school graduation and college entry where students prepare for college life and success (social, emotional, financial and academic)

Appendix B: Summary Codebook

Summary Codebook for Critical Discourse Analysis		
Deductive Codes		
Domain	Subdomain	Themes
1. Corporatism	1.1 Neoliberalism	Hegemony, depoliticization, globalization, economic rationality
	1.2 Neoconservatism	Remoralization, patriotic power, welfare, political rationality
	1.3 New Managerialism	Regulation, surveillance, exploitation, privatization
2. Democratic Education	2.1 Freedom	Autonomy, mobility, consciousness, proactivity
	2.2 Choice	Access, opportunity, mobility
	2.3 Agency	Public deliberation, advocacy, activism,
	2.4 Ethics	Respect, trust, equity, responsiveness, citizenship
3. Conation	3.1 Motivation	Will, desire, exploration, discovery, goal orientation
	3.2 Persistence	Engagement, commitment, adaptability, determination
	3.3 Resilience	Support-seeking, collaboration, communication
	3.4 Achievement	Critical thinking, metacognition, problem-solving,
	3.5 Civicism	Responsibility, inter/intra-cultural awareness, relationship building
	3.6 Wellness	Pro-social decision making, self-management, self-efficacy
Inductive Codes		
Domain	Subdomain	Themes
4. Culture	4.1 Language	Native language importance
	4.2 Ethno-racial	Natives, WAS(P), Nisei, refugees of war
	4.3 Religion	Native, Christian missionaries, South Pacific influences
5. Temporal Context	5.1 Place	Geographic, political, historical boundaries
	5.2 Space	Public, private, community, mainland, island
	5.3 Time	Pre-history, history, contemporary, future, time as a web
6. Mind, Body, Spirit	6.1 Holism	Learning as whole body sensory perception
	6.2 Inter-connectedness	Sharing, oneness, openness
	6.3 Ancestry	Elders as knowledge givers