Inst.: Richard Bordner
Off. Hrs.: Beh. Sciences Bldg #114, MWF 11-2, TR 11-12 or by app't.
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Required Texts: Deloria, Barbara et al (eds.). 1999. Spirit & Reason. Golden: Fulcrum Press.
Frazier, Ian. 2000. On the Rez. NY: Picador.

Course Description: This course is intended to provide a overall survey of traditional Native North American cultures and the modern process of acculturation and ethnic identity. We will examine the varied patterns of cultural adaptation to changing environmental conditions. We will also look at the historical views of Native Americans and their ongoing dialogue with the Anglo power structure in 'American' society. Due to the complexity and diversity of this huge area we will break the material down into the traditional (in anthropology) 'culture areas', dialoging them in sequence in both their traditional and modern context.

The Marianist Values of Chaminade University, which we strive to incorporate into these classes:
1) Educate in formation of faith
2) Provide an integral quality education
3) Educate in family spirit
4) Educate for service, justice and peace
5) Educate for adaptation and change

Behavioral Science Division Student Learning Outcomes:
1. Ability to apply the scientific method to the study of human behavior in various environmental contexts
2. An understanding of human behavior relative to various environmental contexts
3. An understanding of human behavior relative to adapting to various changing environmental contexts

This course meets the following program goals for the Behavioral Sciences Program: 2) the diversity of peoples and cultures--other ways of seeing and understanding the world; 3) how social forces shape our individual perception and behavior; 4) the relationship between self-examination and the nature of the group and of group dynamics.

Course Learning Outcomes: 1) You will have a basic knowledge of the complex regional diversity of cultures subsumed under the title 'American Indians';
2) You will have a basic level of understanding of the complex relationships of the Anglo-American power structure, ethnocentrism, stereotyping and its impact on acculturation of Native Americans;
3) You will have developed a basic level of understanding about the concept of ethnic identity as it is used in the Behavioral Sciences and how that concept helps to understand the complex development in modern Native American identity.

Course Objectives: By the end of the semester you will have gained basic knowledge in the following areas:
Initial settlement of North America
The impacts of Euroamerican stereotyping on the Indian
Arctic and Subarctic cultures--How to survive in the far north
Northeast cultures--The Iroquois Confederacy and complex societies
Southeast cultures--Cherokee writing, assimilation and the Trail of Tears
Plains cultures
The stereotypic Indian, the bison and the Wild West Show

Adaptation to a nut—California Indians and the acorn
The Great Basin/Plateau cultures--Desert Survival—Las Vegas before Caesar's and Bellagio
Northwest Coast cultures--Politics and giving—the Potlatch and why it's un-American
Southwest cultures--Agriculturalists, the Anasazi, Hopi, Dineh and sheep
Adaptations to change—dealing with Euroamericans
Indians and the Great White Father—historically and current issues
The Powwow and the re-imagining of being Indian
The Rez
Native American groups within the context of revitalization movements
The New Age and the love of things Indian--Native Americans in the image of the Nation-State

Class Grading: 1) Exams= There will be 2 exams in this class, both essay. They will cover both the readings and the lectures. They will be worth 50% of your course grade.

2) Research Paper: You will be required to do an in-depth examination of a particular aspect of one of the Native American ethnic groups. YOU MUST clear it with me first or take the consequences. The paper must be a minimum of 12 pages (text, double-spaced), with 3 major references other than class materials (3 internet sources= 1 source). The Research Paper will count for 30% of your course grade.

3) Reaction Papers: You will be expected to write a number of reaction papers during the semester on questions posed in class, usually related to videos we have seen. These papers should be from 1-2 pages in length. They will count for 10% of the course grade.

4) Attendance and participation= In a class of this type, without a textbook, our meetings provide the majority of general synthesized information. Thus attendance is mandatory if you want to pass the class. This is worth 10% of your course grade.

Grading: Exams(2).....50%	A=90-100	D=60-69
Research Paper.....…30%	B=80-89	F= -60
Part/Attend.....…...10%	C=70-79	
React. Papers……. 10%		

Jan. 17-20: MODULE I: Introduction
The image of the Native American—persistent contradictory stereotypes / America during early migration/settlement / Human-environment dynamics in North America
Ass: Read Deloria 9-10 (123-43); 21 (249-56)
Jan. 23-27: MODULE II: Impacts of European colonization / Spanish-Florida-Mesoamerica/French-Canada/British-America 1492-1800
Ass: Read Deloria 15-17 (189-222)
Jan. 30-Feb. 3: MODULE III: U.S. Gov't. and Indians 1776-1950 / Treaties and "forked tongues" / Manifest Destiny, Americans and indigenous Americans / Indian Schools and the Rez

Regional Modules
Feb. 6-10: MODULE IV: Arctic/Subarctic, or How to survive in the far north / Issues of environmental determinism
Ass: Read Deloria 18 (223-229); 22 (257-72), Kelley Part I (skim), Part II (read)
Feb. 13-17: MODULE V: Northeast cultures / The Iroquois Confederacy and complex societies / The 5 Nations and mainstream American society—the "Melting Pot" / Legal issues with the American government—passports, gambling and smokes
Ass: Read Deloria 3-5 (32-71)
Feb. 21-March 2: MODULE VI: Southeast cultures / Slavery and plantation culture in the early South / Morals of being better than your teacher—the Cherokee and Creeks and the Trail of Tears / Home? Oklahoma, Carolinas and legal control of land / Who is a real Indian—Seminoles and creoles
Hand Out EXAM I
Ass: Read Nerburn (all)
March 5-16: MODULE VII: The "Real" Indians--Plains cultures / The Northern and Southern Plains groups / Issues of 'ownership' of land and ritual landscapes / The stereotypic Indian, the bison and the Wild West Show
Ass: Read Deloria 23-26 (275-338), Kelley Part III-IV
March 19-23: MODULE VIII: Southwest cultures / The First People, Anasazi(?) and Pueblo groups / The Apache and Dineh (Navajo)—migratory groups in harsh environments / Energy Policy, SUV's and reservation land
March 26-30: Spring Break
April 2-5: MODULE IX: Adaptation to a nut—California Indians and the acorn
April 9-13: MODULE X: The Great Basin/Plateau cultures / Desert Survival—Las Vegas before Caesar's and Bellagio
Ass: Read Deloria 11-12 (137-153); 19 (230-40)
April 16-20: MODULE XI: Northwest Coast cultures / Politics and giving—the Potlatch and why it's un-American
April 23-May 4: The issue of the Rez and contemporary native Americans / The New Age, Dancing with Wolves and the love of things Indian, Summary and Assessment
Hand out EXAM II
May 4: **Research Paper Due—NO EXCEPTIONS—Late= 1 grade per day**
May 9: **FINAL EXAM Due May 9, 3:00pm my office**

SCIENTIFIC METHOD DEFINITIONS

The **METHODS OF SCIENCE** are only tools, tools that we use to obtain knowledge about phenomena.

The **SCIENTIFIC METHOD** is a set of assumptions and rules about collecting and evaluating data. The explicitly stated assumptions and rules enable a standard, systematic method of investigation that is designed to reduce bias as much as possible. Central to the scientific method is the collection of data, which allows investigators to put their ideas to an empirical test, outside of or apart from their personal biases. In essence, stripped of all its glamour, scientific inquiry is nothing more **THAN A WAY OF LIMITING FALSE CONCLUSIONS ABOUT NATURAL EVENTS.**

Knowledge of which the credibility of a profession is based must be objective and verifiable (testable) rather than subjective and untestable.

SCIENCE is a mode of controlled inquiry to develop an objective, effective, and credible way of knowing.

The assumptions one makes regarding the basic qualities of human nature (that is, cognitive, affective, behavioral, and physiological processes) affect how one conceptualizes human behavior.

The two basic functions of scientific approach are 1) advance knowledge, to make discoveries, and to learn facts in order to improve some aspect of the world, and 2) to establish relations among events, develop theories, and this helps professionals to make predictions of future events.

Research Design And Counseling
Heppner, Kivlighan, and Wampold

A **THEORY** is a large body of interconnected propositions about how some portion of the world operates; a **HYPOTHESIS** is a smaller body of propositions. **HYPOTHESES** are smaller versions of theories. Some are derived or born from theories. Others begin as researchers' hunches and develop into theories.

The **PHILOSOPHY OF SCIENCE** decrees we can only falsify, not verify (prove), theories because we can never be sure that any given theory provides the best explanation for a set of observations.

Research Method In Social Relations
Kidder

THEORIES are not themselves directly proved or disproved by research. Even **HYPOTHESES** cannot be proved or disproved directly. Rather, research may either support or fail to support a particular hypothesis derived from a theory.

Scientific research has four general goals: (1) to describe behavior, (2) to predict behavior, (3) to determine the causes of behavior, and (4) to understand or explain behavior.

Methods In Behavioral Research; Cozby

In order to verify the reliability and validity of scientific research it is important to replicate the results. It is the preponderance of evidence that establishes/supports the theory.
http://allpsych.com/researchmethods/replication.html

Excerpt from :

METACOGNITION: Study Strategies, Monitoring, and Motivation

By William Peirce © 2003

A greatly expanded text version of a workshop
presented November 17, 2004, at Prince George's Community College

The main points of the presentation are:

1. **Instructors should explicitly teach the reading, note-taking, and study strategies that will be effective in their courses.**
2. **Instructors should teach students how to monitor and self-assess their use of study strategies.**

Outline

I. Introduction

II. Metacognition and Three Types of Knowledge

III. Metacognition and Study Strategies

IV. Monitoring Problems with Learning

V. Metacognition and Motivation

VI. Metacognition and At-Risk Students

VII. Five Generalizations from a Review of the Literature of Study Strategies

VIII. What Instructors Can Do to Help Students

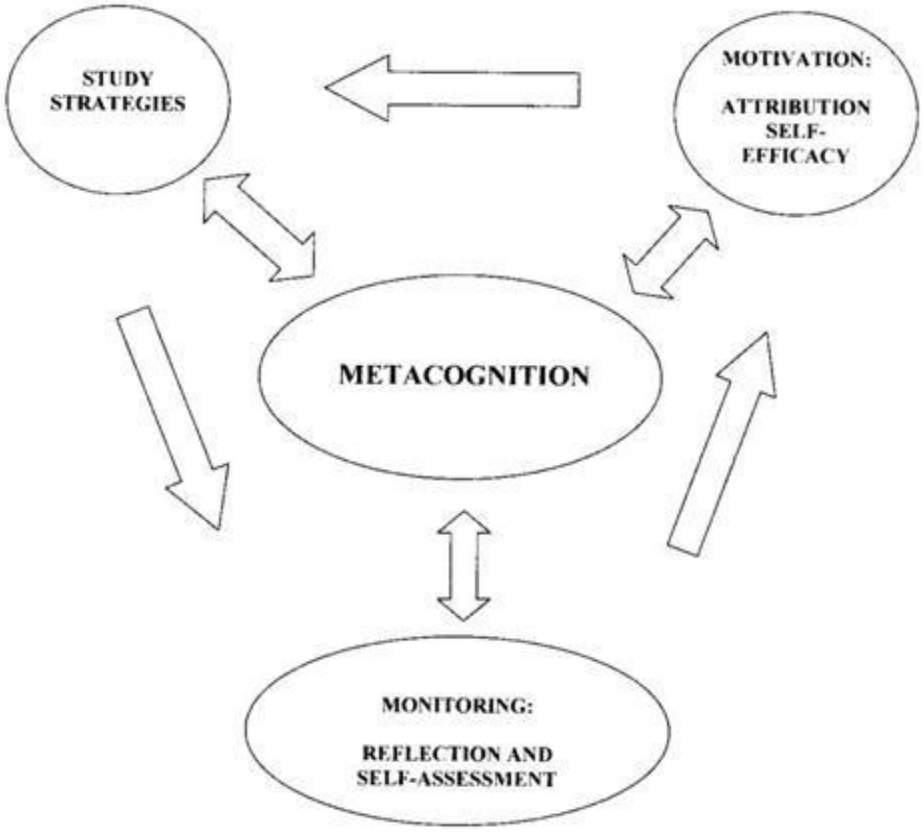
A.Some Sample Metacognitive Strategies

B.Strategies for Instructors to Use in Teaching Textbook Reading

C.Strategies for Students to Use for Textbook Reading

D.Sample Reflective Topics for Self-Monitoring and Self-Assessment

IX. References



I. Introduction

In general, **metacognition** is thinking about thinking. More specifically, Taylor (1999) defines metacognition as "an appreciation of what one already knows, together with a correct apprehension of the learning task and what knowledge and skills it requires, combined with the agility to make correct inferences about how to apply one's strategic knowledge to a particular situation, and to do so efficiently and reliably."

The more students are aware of their thinking processes as they learn, the more they can control such matters as goals, dispositions, and attention. Self-awareness promotes self-regulation. If students are aware of how committed (or uncommitted) they are to reaching goals, of how strong (or weak) is their disposition to persist, and of how focused (or wandering) is their attention to a thinking or writing task, they can regulate their commitment, disposition, and attention (Marzano et al., 1988). For example, if students were aware of a lack of commitment to writing a long research assignment, noticed that they were procrastinating, and were aware that they were distracted by more appealing ways to spend their time, they could then take action to get started on the assignment. But until they are aware of their procrastination and take control by making a plan for doing the assignment, they will blissfully continue to neglect the assignment.

II. Metacognition and Three Types of Knowledge

To increase their metacognitive abilities, students need to possess and be aware of three kinds of content knowledge: declarative, procedural, and conditional. **Declarative knowledge** is the factual information that one knows; it can be declared—spoken or written. An example is knowing the formula for calculating momentum in a physics class (momentum = mass times velocity). **Procedural knowledge** is knowledge of how to do something, of how to

perform the steps in a process; for example, knowing the mass of an object and its rate of speed and how to do the calculation. **Conditional knowledge** is knowledge about when to use a procedure, skill, or strategy and when not to use it; why a procedure works and under what conditions; and why one procedure is better than another. For example, students need to recognize that an exam word problem requires the calculation of momentum as part of its solution.

This notion of three kinds of knowledge applies to learning strategies as well as course content. When they study, students need the declarative knowledge that (1) all reading assignments are not alike; for example, that a history textbook chapter with factual information differs from a primary historical document, which is different from an article interpreting or analyzing that document. They need to know that stories and novels differ from arguments. Furthermore they need to know that there are different kinds of note taking strategies useful for annotating these different types of texts. And (2) students need to know how to actually write different kinds of notes (procedural knowledge), and (3) they need to know when to apply these kinds of notes when they study (conditional knowledge). Knowledge of study strategies is among the kinds of metacognitive knowledge, and it too requires awareness of all three kinds of knowledge.

III. Metacognition and Study Strategies

Research shows that explicitly teaching study strategies in content courses improves learning. (Commander & Valeri-Gold, 2001; Ramp & Guffey, 1999; Chiang, 1998; El-Hindi, 1997; McKeachie, 1988). Research also shows that few instructors explicitly teach study strategies; they seem to assume that students have already learned them in high school—but they haven't. (McKeachie, 1988). Rote memorization is the usual learning strategy—and often the only strategy—employed by high school students when they go to college (Nist, 1993).

Study strategies are diverse and don't work in every context. For example, reading for information acquisition won't work in a literature course and won't work if students are supposed to critically evaluate an article. But students who have learned only the strategy of reading to pass a quiz on the information will not go beyond this strategy. Study strategies don't necessarily transfer into other domains. Students need to know they have choices about which strategies to employ in different contexts. And students who learn study skills in one course need to apply study strategies in other contexts than where they first learned it.

Students need to monitor their application of study strategies. Metacognitive awareness of their learning processes is as important as their monitoring of their learning of the course content. Metacognition includes goal setting, monitoring, self-assessing, and regulating during thinking and writing processes; that is, when they're studying and doing homework. An essential component of metacognition is employing study strategies to reach a goal, self-assessing one's effectiveness in reaching that goal, and then self-regulating in response to the self-assessment.

IV. Monitoring Problems with Learning

When students monitor their learning, they can become aware of potential problems. Nickerson, Perkins, and Smith (1985) in *The Teaching of Thinking* have categorized several types of problems with learning.

A. Problems with Process; Making errors in encoding, operations, and goals:

1.Errors in Encoding

Missing important data or not separating relevant from irrelevant data. For example, some literature students will base their interpretation of a poem on just the first stanza.

2.Errors in Operations

Failing to select the right subskills to apply. For example, when proofreading, some students will just read to see if it sounds right, rather than making separatepasses that check for fragments, subject-verb misagreement, and other errors they have learned from experience they are likely to make.

Failing to divide a task into subparts. For example, some math students will jump right to what they think is the final calculation to get the desired answer.

3. Errors in Goal Seeking

Misrepresenting the task. For example, students in a speech communication class instead of doing the assigned task of analyzing and classifying group communication strategies used in their group discussions will just write a narrative of who said what.
Not understanding the criteria to apply. For example, when asked to evaluate the support provided for the major claim of an article, students will explain why they liked the article rather than apply appropriate evaluative criteria.

B. Problems with Cognitive Load
Too many subskills necessary to do a task. For example, some students might have not yet learned how to carry out all the steps in a complex nursing procedure.

Not enough automatic, internalized subskills. For example, students in an argument and persuasion class might have to check their notes on how to analyze persuasive strategies because they have not internalized the procedure.

C. Problems with Abilities
Lacking the level of needed mental abilities. For example, students are asked to think abstractly about general concepts and issues, but they can only think concretely about specific situations.
A good way to discover what kind of errors students are making in their thinking processes is to get them to unpack their thinking, to tell you step by step how they are going about the task. By listening to how they are doing the cognitive task, an instructor can detect where the student is going wrong. Asking students to describe their thinking processes also develops their metacognitive abilities—a very necessary skill to improve thinking.

V. Metacognition and Motivation

Metacognition affects motivation because it affects attribution and self-efficacy. When students get results on tests and grades on assignments (especially unexpected results such as failures), they perform a mental causal search to explain to themselves why the results happened. When they achieve good results, students tend to attribute the result to two internal factors: their own ability and effort. When they fail, they might attribute the cause to these same internal factors or they might, in a self-protective rationalization, distance themselves from a sense of personal failure by blaming external causes, such as an overly difficult task, an instructor's perverse testing habits, or bad luck. This tendency to attribute success to ability and effort promotes future success because it develops confidence in one's ability to solve future unfamiliar and challenging tasks. The converse is also true. Attributing failure to a lack of ability reduces self-confidence and reduces the student's summoning of intellectual and emotional abilities to the next challenging tasks; attribution theory also explains why such students will be unwilling to seek help from tutors and other support services: they believe it would not be worth their effort. In addition to blaming failure on external causes, underachievers often "self-handicap" themselves by deliberately putting little effort into an academic task; they thereby protect themselves from attributing their failure to a painful lack of ability by attributing their failure to lack of effort (Stage et al, 1998) (Click here for a review and summary of *Creating Learning Centered Classrooms* by Stage et al.)

VI. Metacognition and At-Risk Students

The last two decades have seen a great deal of research directed towards improving the academic success of at-risk students. As McKeachie (1988) explains, the problems are

- Students "enter the higher levels of education with . . . strategies that handicap them in achieving success." (p. 5)
- "[N]either home backgrounds nor schools have helped young adults become aware of alternative ways of approaching learning situations, and of options other than increasing or decreasing one's effort as one approaches different learning situations" (p. 5)

- Teachers give plenty of feedback about the correctness of learning outcomes but not about how to achieve these outcomes.

The use of learning strategies is linked to motivation. When students fail, they tend to assign the cause to something stable and unchangeable—low innate ability—rather than to something they have the ability to change—employing different, more effective, learning strategies.

. . . . . .

C. Strategies for Students to Use for Textbook Reading

1. Answer instructor-provided questions
2. Ask and answer student-generated questions
3. Produce an outline or concept map
4. Write summaries of each section in the chapter
5. Use the SQ4R method: Survey the text, formulate questions, read, record notes, recite, reflect
6. Write notes that elaborate on the textbook:

    a. Cornell method: one column for key words and concepts, a second column for comments, summaries. Useful for comprehension and later recall.

    b. Double-entry method: one column/page for copied passage, adjacent column/page for personal reflections on the passage. Developed by Berthoff (1987); useful for engaging with the text.

    c. Simpson and Nist (1990): seven textbook annotation processes

    - Write brief summaries in the text margins
    - List ideas (causes, effects, characteristics, etc.)
    - Identify examples in the margin (write "EX")
    - Write key information on graphs and charts
    - Predict potential test questions
    - Call attention to confusion with a ? in the margin
    - Underline key words

7. Connect the reading to a past lecture or to prior knowledge
8. Compare/contrast with another reading
9. Critique/evaluate the reading
10. Apply the chapter content to a scenario or case
11. Write self-assessments of your understanding of the reading. See D. below in next list of topics.

D. Sample Reflective Topics for Self-Monitoring and Self-Assessment

Reading for Comprehension

"What do you notice about your reading when you are understanding what you read? What is it that causes you difficulties when you read? In what areas of reading and remembering do you feel most at ease?" (Soldner, 1997)

"Did any parts of the passage confuse me? What did I do to clarify the confusion?" (Gourgey, 1997)

Associative and Affective Personal Response

"How does this poem make you feel? What in your own life might have influenced how you responded to the

poem?” (Newton, 1991)