Welcome from the Editor


All articles that appear in this volume of the *International Journal of Social Science Research* have been recommended for publication by the Reviewers/Advisory Editors, using a double, blind peer review process. Personal thanks are extended to the Reviewers/Advisory Editors for all their hard work and dedication to the Journal. Without their work, the publication of this Journal would be impossible.

This is my first year as Editor-in-Chief, and I wish to express my sincere thanks and appreciation for all the support, encouragement, assistance and advice throughout this year. The publishing of the journal is an intense educational experience which I continue to enjoy.

Congratulations to all our authors. I extend a hearty invitation to submit your manuscripts for future issues of Mustang Journals!

Please also consider joining us at one of our friendly conferences. Our next conference is in February, 2015 in Las Vegas. I hope to see you then.

Dr. Joanne Ma
Editor in Chief
*International Journal of Social Science Research*
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WHO TENDS TO FORWARD VIRAL ADVERTISING VIDEOS? THE EFFECT OF DEMOGRAPHICS, SOCIAL MEDIA USE, AND PERSONALITY ON THE INTENT TO FORWARD VIRAL VIDEO ADS

Wilburn Lane*
Union University

Christopher Manner
Union University

ABSTRACT

The ability to create and replicate successful viral advertising campaigns still remains as something of the Holy Grail for marketers. Any new insights into why some consumers share messages but others do not is thus significant. This study suggests that individuals with certain demographic, behavioral, and personality traits are more prone to facilitate the propagation of viral video ads. The empirical results show that gender, age, and social media activity are important predictors of the propensity to forward video ads. Furthermore, including the “Big Five” personality factors in the analysis significantly adds to the predictive capabilities of the model. These findings have both theoretical and practical implications.

INTRODUCTION

The digital age has brought us more than computers and the internet. It has brought us completely new advertising medium—viral advertising videos. The interactivity that Web 2.0 provides has completely changed the way that marketers deliver messages to their target market. Internet-based social media and communication networks, such as YouTube, Facebook and Twitter, have supercharged the power of word of mouth (WOM). The Internet provides a much better way for consumers to gather product information and consumption-related advice from other consumers by electronic WOM (eWOM) like viral advertising videos. Today, 60 hours of video are uploaded every minute on YouTube. In 2011, YouTube had more than a trillion views, which equates to around 140 views for every person on earth. Over three billion hours of videos are watched each month. Social media such as Facebook and Twitter have accelerated this phenomenon. Five hundred years of YouTube video are watched everyday on Facebook, and over 700 YouTube videos are shared on Twitter each minute. Mobile devices, such as smartphones and iPads have also contributed to the tremendous growth of this new advertising medium. There are over 600 million views a day of YouTube videos on mobile devices. These staggering numbers have caught the attention of advertisers. Advertising Age reports that 98 of the top 100 advertisers have run campaigns on YouTube (YouTube Statistics, 2012).

This new method of communicating with potential customers provides several advantages over traditional media. It allows marketers to target their potential customer base by sharing the videos with those who have an interest in the product. It permits marketers to provide as much information as needed. They are not limited to the size of a magazine page or a 30-60 second television commercial. Given the "viral" nature of the medium, marketers can reach their target audience quickly. The cost of delivering the advertising message via a viral advertising video is a fraction of the cost of traditional media.

At first glance, it would appear that viral video advertising would be a marketer's dream. For most, however, it has become a nightmare. For every video advertisement that successfully generates a viral buzz, dozens fizzle (Leskovec et al. 2007). Why is it that some viral advertising videos go "viral" and others do not? One possible explanation is that online advertising is a relatively new medium and little is known about it. As such, marketers have attempted to apply what is known about successful television commercials to making viral advertising videos. This may not be the best approach. Unlike television advertising, the success of a viral advertising video campaign includes "sharing" the video as well as viewing it. Furthermore, as Teixeira (2012a) suggests, the ingredients needed to get someone to share a video are quite different than those needed to get someone to view the video.

For both practitioners and academics, identifying the factors that motivate consumers to share online advertisements is an important step in understanding why some ads go viral while others do not. This study contributes to the literature on viral marketing by determining who is more likely to share viral ads. In particular, we...
find that individuals with certain demographic, behavioral, and personality traits are more prone to facilitate the propagation of viral ads. Previous research indicates that consumers tend to forward ads that evoke strong emotional responses, such as shock, humor, fear, or inspiration. In keeping with this line of research, the current study models the propensity to forward viral ads by controlling for emotional content.

**BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

Hinz et al. (2011) suggests that the characteristics of the recipient are critical to the success of a viral video advertising campaign. While some research has been done in this area (Teixeira, 2012a), it is still a vastly under researched area. However, research on technology use has revealed three individual characteristics that may motivate consumers to forward online video ads: demographics, level of social media activity, and personality.

**Demographics**

Research related to modern forms of communication technology has indicated that various demographic characteristics play a role in their use. Entner (2010) found that men were more likely than women to have a smart phone. Also, research has indicated that Hispanics and African Americans were more likely to text (Texting, 2008). Mobile e-mail users tend to be younger and highly educated (Smartphone, 2011). Lane and Manner (2011) found that younger people were more likely to use a smart phone to text, access the internet, and play music. They also found that ethnicity influenced the likelihood of smart phone users to make calls, text and play music. Teixeira (2012b) suggests that women are less likely to forward viral advertising videos.

Marketers define electronic word of mouth (eWOM) as, “forwarding actions through e-mail, instant messaging or other communication media that are of high addressability” (Ho & Dempsey, 2010, p. 1000). Research on the use of eWOM suggests that gender significantly influences the exposure to information, information research and the processing of information. For instance, women usually use virtual communities in order to give and receive social support, whereas men tend to use virtual communities to improve and protect their own social status (Awad & Ragowsky, 2008). Similarly, Wolin and Korgaonkar (2003) have shown that men have more favorable beliefs and more favorable attitudes toward online advertising than women. Kempf and Palan (2006) found that women are likely to describe themselves as more receptive to traditional WOM than men. Similarly, it has been shown that friend’s recommendation for a shopping website allowed women to have a greater reduction of perceived risk and a stronger online shopping intention (Garbarino & Strahilevitz, 2004). In particular, it seems that gender can affect the use and recognition of the eWOM (Gefen & Ridings, 2005).

Prior studies on the propensity to forward viral videos, researchers have suggested that demographic characteristics should be examined. Eckler and Bolls (2011) suggested that future research should be done on the effect gender and age have on the propensity to forward viral videos. Southgate, Page, and Westoby (2010) recognized that there are factors other than creative content that should be examined. Given the long history of research that has examined the effect of demographic characteristics on consumer behavior and the recent research which indicates that demographic characteristics play a role in the use of various forms of technology, it is very appropriate to begin this research project by examining the demographic characteristics of those who would have a greater propensity to forward viral advertising videos. Thus,

**RQ1:** Do the demographic characteristics of the recipients of viral advertising videos influence their propensity to forward these videos?

**Level of Social Media Activity**

Usage rates have a long history of influencing not only what consumers buy but what they do. Very early in the study of consumer behavior, researchers learned that heavy users of a product purchased differently than light users and that brand loyalty was much higher among heavy users. As psychographics models were developed, usage rate was one of the variables employed to identify different types of consumers (Hawkins & Motherbaugh, 2010). It is reasonable to assume that the propensity to forward a viral advertising video would be influenced by the number of ways (social media platforms) a person has to forward a video and the amount of time a person spends on social media. Most people have either gotten a link to a video on their Facebook homepage or a tweet with a link to a YouTube video on their Twitter newsfeed. Many people also post videos on their blogs. In addition, people have the ability to access videos by going directly to YouTube, where popular videos are promoted. Research (Bampo et al.
indicates that the platform of the social media impacts whether information is passed along via a specific social media, so research needs to be done to determine if having more social media sites impacts not only the ability to forward a viral advertising video, but the propensity to forward it. Also, it would seem that the amount of time one spends on social media would also influence the propensity to forward a video. Following this logic, the next research question aims to determine whether the level of social media activity impacts viral advertising pass-on behavior:

**RQ 2:** Does the level of social media activity of recipients of viral advertising videos influence their propensity to forward these videos?

### Personality Type

Personality type has been a topic of consumer behavior research for years. The influence of personality type on purchase behavior has been well documented, so it would seem logical that personality type influences the propensity to forward viral advertising videos. Researchers have identified several reasons why consumers may share information. They may share it *for its social exchange value* (Homans 1958), *to generate reciprocity* (Fehr, Kirchsteiger, & Ried, 1998), *because of the emotional aspect of the content* (Heath, Bell, & Sternberg, 2001), *for altruistic reasons*—to be helpful to others (Wojnicki & Godes, 2008), and *self enhancement purposes, such as appearing to be knowledgeable* (Wojnicki & Godes, 2008). These reasons for sharing information suggest that personality type may play a role in how individuals view and use various forms of communications technology.

While personality types can be identified using a variety of instruments, the "Big Five Inventory" (BFI) is commonly used to identify personality type when studying variables related to technology. McElroy et al. (2007) found it to be a better predictor of personality indicators for technology related issues than the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. Briggs (1992) states that the BFI is “the model of choice for researchers wanting to represent the domain of personality variables broadly and systematically.” It is referred to as the most comprehensive and parsimonious model of personality (Costa & McCrae, 1992). The Big Five Inventory identifies five personality types— **extraversion**, **neuroticism**, **openness**, **agreeableness**, and **conscientiousness**.

Extraverts are optimistic, gregarious, ambitious, and seek out new opportunities and excitement (McElroy et al. 2007), active, outgoing, and place high value on close and warm interpersonal relationships (Watson & Clark, 1997). They tend to do well in jobs that have a high social component—such as sales and management (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Those high in extraversion are inclined to care about their image and other social consequences of behaviors. They are more likely to act based upon their perceptions of the opinions of significant others (Devaraj, Easley, & Crant, 2008).

Extroverts spend more time texting (Ehrenberg et al. 2008) and are more likely to own a smart phone (Lane & Manner, 2011). Teixiera (2012b) found that extraverts are more likely to share and even more so to broadly share (i.e. spam) humorous ads with acquaintances. Extraversion has been shown to correlate with the communicative features of SNS. For example, Correa, Hinsley, and de Zuniga (2010) found that extraversion was correlated with the use of instant messaging on SNS. Wang et al. (2012) found that extraverts are more likely to use the communicative function of SNS, including status update, comment, and adding more friends. Acar and Polonsky (2007) studied the influence of extraversion on SNS use and found that extraverts maintain bigger social networks. Researchers have specifically examined how the Five-Factor Model of personality relates to Facebook use. It is not surprising that extraversion is associated with greater Facebook use (Seidman, 2013; Gosling et al., 2011; Wilson, Fornasier, & White, 2010) and more friends (Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010; Moore & McElroy, 2012; and Ryan & Xenos, 2011). A study by Ross et al. (2009) indicated that individuals high on the trait of extraversion belong to significantly more Facebook groups. Other studies show that extraverts use Facebook to communicate with others by contacting friends (Correa, Hinsley, & de Zuniga, 2010) and commenting on friends’ pages (Gosling et al., 2011). However, there also have been studies reporting no relationship or even a negative relationship between extraversion and the communicative features of SNS. For instance, Goby (2006) found that extraverts were more likely to communicate with others in offline settings than online settings compared to introverts. Landers and Lounsbury (2006) found that extraversion was inversely related to Internet usage. Surprisingly, introverted individuals are more likely to report using Facebook to keep up with friends (Moore & McElroy, 2012).

Highly neurotic people tend to be fearful, distrustful, sad, embarrassed, and have trouble managing stress (McElroy et al. 2007). They tend to be anxious, self-conscious and paranoid (Devaraj et al. 2008). Neuroticism is negatively associated with several elements of work behavior—job satisfaction (Smith et al. 1983), job performance (Barrick & Mount, 2000), and perceived career success (Judge et al. 1999; Siebert & Kraimer, 2001).
Individuals scoring high in neurotism are more likely to view technological advances in their work as threatening (Devaraj, Easley, & Crant, 2008), but they spend more time texting and report stronger mobile phone addictive tendencies (Ehrenberg et al. 2008). Picazo-Vela et al. (2010) found that neuroticism had a significantly positive effect on an individual’s intention to provide an online review (an important form of eWOM). With regard to neuroticism and SNS technology use, early studies found that neuroticism was negatively related to amount of time spent on the Internet (Amichai-Hamburger et al., 2002; Amiel & Sargent, 2004; and Tuten & Bosnjak, 2001). However, more recent research has reported that individuals high in neuroticism use the Internet more frequently to reduce loneliness (Amichai-Hamburger & Ben-Artzi, 2003) and are more likely to use it for instant messaging and SNS (Correa, Hinsley, & de Zuniga, 2010 and Wolftrad & Doll, 2001). Forest and Wood (2012) found that low self-esteem, a trait closely linked to neuroticism, was associated with the belief that Facebook provided opportunities to connect with others, and to get support and attention under circumstances they feared would burden others offline. These recent studies suggest that, compared with emotional stable users, neurotic users are more likely to use the Internet for social purposes. In addition, Wang et al. (2012) found that neurotics are more likely to use the SNS feature of status update as a way of self-expression.

Individuals who score high in openness are flexible, tend to devise novel ideas, hold unconventional values, and willingly question authority (Costa & McCrae, 1992). They seek out new and varied experiences and value change (McCrae & Costa, 1997).

Individuals with high scores on openness to experience are more likely to try new methods of communication, have broad interests, seek out new and novel experiences, and play online games on SNS (Butt & Phillips, 2008, McCrae & Costa, 1987, Tuten and Bosnjak, 2001, and Wang et al. 2102). Openness to experience has been correlated with the use of instant messaging and SNS (Correa et al., 2010) and the use of a wide variety of Facebook features (Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010). Those who are high on the trait of openness showed a greater tendency to be sociably through Facebook and report posting more on others’ walls (Ross, et al. 2009). However, two studies found that, surprisingly, openness to experience was not related to SNS use (Hughes et al., 2011 and Wilson, Fornasier, & White, 2010). These inconsistencies may be attributable to the finding that Facebook has become a relatively mainstream communication tool for young adults and is no longer a new experience (Wilson, Fornasier, & White, 2010).

People who score high in agreeableness are good natured, sympathetic, and forgiving (McElroy et al. 2007), likable, kind, helpful and cooperative (Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997). Devaraj, Easley, and Crant (2008) found that agreeable people viewed technology as useful. Phillips, Butt, and Blaszczynski (2006) concluded that those who scored lower in agreeableness were more likely to play games on their phones. Lane and Manner (2011) found that those high in agreeableness placed greater importance on using a smart phone to make calls and less importance on the texting function. With respect to the association between agreeableness and SNS use, several studies have found that agreeableness is related neither to overall Internet use nor to any form of social media use (Correa, Hinsley, & de Zuniga, 2010; Hughes et al., 2011; and Ross et al., 2009). However, Landers and Lounsbury (2006) found a negative relationship between agreeableness and Internet usage among college students. They suggest that students who do not get along with other students choose to spend more time on the Internet rather than interpersonal settings. Also, Amichai-Hamburger and Vinitzky (2010) found that agreeable females posted more photographs on SNSs.

Conscientious people are known for their self-control. They have a need for achievement and order (Costa & McCrae, 1991). In addition, they are deliberate, strong-willed, reliable, like to plan, organize and carry out tasks (McElroy et al. 2007). Conscientious people are more likely to look for ways to use technology to be more efficient at work (Barrick & Mount, 1991) and they are more likely to find technology to be useful (Devaraj, Easley, & Crant, 2008). For example, Picazo-Vela et al. (2010) found that conscientiousness had a significant positive effect on an individual’s intent to provide an online review. Little research exists on the relationship among conscientiousness and SNS use. It has been suggested that conscientious individuals tend to avoid SNS because these sites promote procrastination and serve as a distraction from more important tasks (Butt & Phillips, 2008). Alternatively, conscientious individuals may be more cautious online and may choose to meet belonging needs offline. Empirical studies support this hypothesis, finding that conscientiousness is negatively related to internet use (Wang et al., 2012), time spent on SNS and that conscientious individuals upload significantly fewer pictures to SNS (Ryan & Xenos, 2011).

There are four strong arguments for including personality type in a study related to the propensity to share viral advertising. First, the influence of personality on purchase behavior is well known. Second, the reasons individuals share information is closely related to personality type. Third, the influence of personality type on the use of various forms of technology is well documented. Fourth, a preliminary study (Teixeira, 2012b) using a
limited number of personality types indicates that personality type influences the forwarding of viral advertising videos. Therefore, to understand the impact of personality on the viral advertising pass-on behavior, the last research question asks:

**RQ 3:** Does the personality type of the recipients of viral advertising videos influence their propensity to forward these videos?

**METHOD**

**Design**

Since it is well documented that the emotional appeal of a viral advertising video influences the propensity to forward the video, the researchers decided to control for emotional appeal by selecting videos that had different types of emotional appeals. Approximately twenty advertising videos that had a high number of "views" (100,000+) on YouTube were selected for consideration. The research team narrowed the list down to ten videos. They asked two focus groups to review the videos. The focus groups were asked to describe the emotional appeal of each video, their propensity to forward the video, and their ability to recall the video. Then, the researchers narrowed the list to four videos for this project—an Allstate Mayhem video “Creepy Motel” [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XHuNFyN8z78](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XHuNFyN8z78) which represented the emotion of fear, an Evian Roller Babies video [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XQcVIlWpwGs](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XQcVIlWpwGs) which represented the emotion of humor, a Samsung Phone video “Camera Trick Challenge” [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=L_8BZLhBNyU](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=L_8BZLhBNyU) which represented the emotion of surprise, and a Google Chrome video “Dear Sophie” [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=R4vkVHjidQk](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=R4vkVHjidQk) which represented the emotion of sentimentality. At least 80% of the focus group members associated these emotions with each video.

**Independent Variables**

The purpose of this study was to determine if individuals with certain demographic, behavioral, and personality traits were more prone to facilitate the propagation of viral ads. Therefore, three sets of variables common to earlier technology-use models were used as independent variables: demographics, extent of social network use, and personality.

Participants were asked to report their gender, age, and ethnic background. A one-item score was used to measure gender (zero for male, one for female). Age (reported in years) and age-squared were used to test for a possible quadratic relationship. Due to an extremely low percentage of minorities in the sample, ethnicity was collapsed into two groups: zero for Caucasian, one for all other.

Two items were used to measure the participant’s extent of social network use. First, participants were asked to report, “How many social networking sites have you subscribed to?” Second, participants were asked to respond to the question, “How often do you check social networking sites?” This item was measured on a seven-point scale, with responses ranging from one (less than once a month) to seven (more than ten times a day).

Personality was measured with John’s (1991) Big Five Personality Inventory. Although somewhat inferior to standard multi-item scales, this instrument shows significant convergence with more widely used Big Five measures. The instrument (44 questions) takes only a few minutes to complete, so using it in an online survey enhances the response rate. Coefficient alphas for the scales used in this study ranged from 0.76 for Conscientiousness to 0.92 for Extraversion.

**Dependent Measure: Intent to Forward**

In this study, intention is defined as an individual’s likelihood of passing on a viral advertising video. As Ajzen (1991) suggests, it is important to study intention toward behavior because the stronger the intention, the more likely the performance of the behavior. For each of the four videos viewed, participants were asked to respond to the following question: “What is the likelihood you would forward or send this video to someone else?” Participants indicated their intent to forward the videos on a five-point scale anchored by “very unlikely” and “very likely.” This method of measuring intent to forward is similar to that used by Eckler and Bolls (2011), Chu (2011), and Taylor, Strutton, and Thompson (2012).
Participants and Procedure

An online survey (administered through Qualtrics) served to gather the data to answer the research questions. Social networking and various online techniques were used to draw participants to the survey. Specifically, undergraduate marketing students from a private, Southern university e-mailed a link to the online survey to student and non-student acquaintances. Those participants were then asked to forward the e-mail to their adult friends. All participation was voluntary and informed consent was obtained before launching the survey. After answering the questions relating to demographics, social network use, and personality, participants viewed the videos and completed the self-reported measure of intent to forward immediately after each video. The time needed to complete the survey was less than ten minutes. The online data collection technique recruited 567 participants; however, the elimination of incomplete responses reduced the final sample to 438 respondents for the data analysis. The data were downloaded, screened for anomalies, and analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics 21.0 software.

RESULTS

Sample Characteristics

The sample consisted of 41.1% men and 58.9% women, ranging in age from 18 to 76, with an average age of 27.7 years. More than half of the participants reported a family income of $60,000 or more per year. Most participants were Caucasian (83.6%), followed by African American (9.2%), Asian (1.6%), and Hispanic (1.4%). Almost 90% of the participants reported having at least some college education, with 38.1% having a four-year college degree or higher. Of the 438 respondents, 63% report that they visit two or more social networking sites and 85.5% report visiting those sites at least once a day. Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations of the study variables.

Data Analysis

As shown in Table 1, the correlation coefficient between age and age-squared is 0.99, indicating that multicollinearity is a concern. This is a common problem in polynomial regression. To remedy this, the age variable is mean centered. That is, age is subtracted from its mean and the deviations are used in the model. The correlation between the mean-centered age and the corresponding age-squared variable is less than 0.8. Although not reported in the regression analysis (Table 2), all Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) were well below 10.

To determine how much, comparatively, demographics, social media activity, and personality help predict the likelihood of forwarding a viral advertising video, four hierarchical linear regression models were estimated. Using hierarchical linear regression allows the researcher to choose the number and order of predictors inserted into the model and to group them based upon a theoretical construct. Furthermore, the increased proportion of variance explained in an individual’s intent to forward a video can be examined using the change in $R^2$ and associated $p$-value. In step one, gender, age, age-squared, and ethnicity were entered because they are well established in the information systems and marketing literature. In step two, the number of social media accounts used and number of hours per week spent on social media were entered. Finally, in step three, the Big Five personality factors were added to determine whether they added significantly to the model.

The results of the hierarchical regression models are reported in Table 2. It is worth noting that although the four hierarchical regression models produced statistically significant results, only a small proportion of the variance was explained. The adjusted $R^2$ values ranged from only 0.038 in the Fear model to 0.135 in the Sentimentality model. Some might argue that these values are not particularly high, but explaining 4 to 14 percent of the variance in a highly complex human behavior is meaningful.

The first research question aims to examine whether demographics impact the decision to pass on a viral advertising video. As Table 2 reveals, women are more likely to forward the Fear, Sentimentality, and Humor videos, but less likely to forward the Surprise video. However, gender is no longer a significant predictor once the personality variables are added to the Fear and Humor video regressions.

Age is a significant predictor of forwarding behavior for the Sentimentality and Surprise videos. In addition, the results indicate a non-linear (quadratic) relationship between age and propensity to forward. For the Sentimentality video, the propensity to forward falls until age 35 and then begins to rise. In the case of the Surprise video, the crossover point is around age 33.
<table>
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<th>S.D.</th>
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<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
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<td></td>
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<td>.36</td>
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<td>-.01</td>
<td>.14</td>
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<td>11 Extraversion</td>
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<td>.14</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.10</td>
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<td>.06</td>
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<td>-.20</td>
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<td>.03</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.03</td>
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<td>.12</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<td>.07</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.15</td>
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<td>-.02</td>
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<td>.13</td>
<td>-.33</td>
<td>.04</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>15 Conscientiousness</td>
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<td>1.930</td>
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<td>.14</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.17</td>
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<td>.21</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*aGender and Ethnicity are nominal variables. Means indicate the proportion of the sample that are female and non-Caucasian, respectively.*
To examine how the extent of social media activity affects people’s intent to forward a viral video ad, two variables were added in step two of each hierarchical regression model. These variables were (1) the number of social media sites subscribed to, and (2) the number of hours per week spent on social media. While frequency of use did not emerge a significant predictor of forwarding behavior, the number of sites one subscribes to has a positive influence on such behavior.

The third research question investigated how personality influences the intention to pass on viral advertising videos. Table 2 shows that after controlling for demographics and social media activity, personality significantly helps explain the intent to forward a viral video ad. Agreeableness is a significant predictor of propensity to forward; agreeable individuals are more likely to forward viral advertising videos. Neuroticism is a strong predictor for pass-on behavior for viral advertising; neurotic individuals are more likely to pass on a viral video ad. Extraversion and openness also add to the explanation for passing on the Humor ad, with openness having a negative effect. That is, open individuals are less likely to pass on the Humorous viral advertising video.

The addition of the Big Five personality factors in step three resulted in significant changes for all four models. According to the changes in $R^2$, personality explains an additional 6.7 percent of the Sentimentality video variance beyond the 7.7 percent explained by demographics and Internet use. Personality increases the variance explained by demographics and Internet use almost by a factor of 2 for the Fear and Humor models. These results clearly show that personality is an important predictor of viral ad forwarding intent.

**DISCUSSION**

Viral advertising is a new and growing tool that marketers are using increasingly as a brand-building tool. By producing entertaining content that consumers are motivated to view and pass along to their acquaintances, viral video ads have the potential to engage more viewers than traditional TV ads. Since it requires little to no paid media, viral ads are also viewed as a lower cost alternative to television ads. However, out of the hundreds of online ads launched every year, very few succeed. If it is to become a reliable marketing communications tool, viral advertising needs to be better understood.

This paper contributes to the existing literature by shedding light on the role of the individual in the decision of whether to share viral video ads. Specifically, three attributes of the individual are examined: demographics (gender, age, and ethnicity), extent of social media activity, and personality.

The first set of findings relates to demographic characteristics and the propensity to forward viral ads. Consistent with previous research findings on social media use, gender and age are found to be significant predictors of forwarding likelihood. Women in this study report being less likely to forward the Surprise ad than men. Teixeira (2012b) found similar results, showing that women are less likely to view or forward viral ads. On the other hand, women in this study have a higher propensity to forward the Sentimentality video than men. This finding is congruent with much of the research on technology use and can be understood within the broader context of gender differences in technology use. Women, who are generally more social, tend to be more social using technology, such as talking on their cell phones and sending texts (Junco, Merson, & Salter, 2010). As such, one could conclude that women are more likely to share video ads that appeal to a sense of love, romance, or nostalgia. Given women’s greater purchasing power and their increasing representation online, advertisers have a great opportunity to spark viral marketing among online networks of women.

Regarding age and the propensity to forward, a quadratic (U-shaped) relationship was discovered. In particular, the likelihood of forwarding a viral video ad decreases until the mid-30s and then begins to increase. The relationship is especially strong for the Sentimentality video. This finding is somewhat surprising given that internet usage tends to decline with age; however, a Gallup poll shows that certain Internet activities, such as sending and reading e-mail increases after age 30 (Saad, 2006). Also, the observed relationship may reflect the nature of the videos used in the study. The Sentimentality video focused on a couple following the progress of their young children. Naturally, this would appeal more to the 30-plus generation.

In addition, this study offers a major contribution in the form of a better understanding of the relationship between the extent of Internet use and viral advertising forwarding behaviors. The amount of time spent on social media sites does not exert an influence on consumers’ intention to pass along viral advertising. However, the number of social media sites one subscribes to has a strong positive effect on their intent to forward. According to these results, if marketers hope to generate awareness of their product and encourage transactions through their viral advertising campaign, they should pick highly connected people as initial seeds. Hinz et al. (2011) refers to people with a high number of connections to others as “Hubs,” and suggest that these well-connected people actively use their greater reach and promise a wider spread of the viral message.
Table 2 – Hierarchical Regression Results for Propensity to Forward

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Allstate – Fear</th>
<th>Google Chrome - Sentimentality</th>
<th>Samsung – Surprise</th>
<th>Evian Babies – Humor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>Step 3</td>
<td>Step 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
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<td>.098**</td>
<td>.068</td>
<td>.198***</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age^</td>
<td>-.195**</td>
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<td>.124</td>
<td>.113</td>
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<td>.076</td>
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<td># sites</td>
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<td>.030</td>
<td>.149***</td>
<td>.142***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
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<td>.065</td>
<td>.065</td>
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<td>Extraversion</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
<td>.120**</td>
<td></td>
<td>.159***</td>
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<td>R^2 Change</td>
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<td>.005</td>
<td>.039</td>
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</table>

Note: *p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, and ***p<0.01. ^ Age is mean-centered.
The final issue that merits further attention is the extent to which personality can predict forwarding behavior. Sharing viral video ads depends not only on the content, but also on the role of the individual. Sharing is a social process and, as such, certain dimensions of personality matter, particularly those affecting social tendencies.

Several specific observations about the role of personality can be drawn from the results. Neuroticism is a strong predictor of forwarding intent for all four of the video ads studied. Forwarding video ads may enable neurotic people to escape the stress of face-to-face interaction. This is consistent with the findings of McElroy et al. (2007) and Amiel and Sargent (2004) who find that neurotic people are more likely to seek information, socialize, and sell goods online.

As extraverts are recognized as being gregarious and having extensive social networks (Costa & McCrae, 1992), it is not surprising that they are more likely to forward humorous video ads. Extraverted individuals are more likely to engage in sharing of viral ads, at least in part due to their ease of and desire for communication. Indeed, Teixeira (2012b) found similar evidence of the higher inclination for extraverted viewers to broadly share, i.e., spamming friends with different types of viral humor ads.

Agreeableness is a trait that is most concerned with interpersonal relationships that are based on the equal and honest exchange of information (De Raad, 2000). People with a higher agreeableness score typically score high on other categories such as trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty, and tenderness (Phillips, Butt, & Blaszczynski, 2006). Conversely, an individual low on agreeableness is principally selfish, uncooperative and self-centered (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Individuals are known to balance their desires to share content they judge beneficial to others with their tendencies to self-monitor; their urges to share unsolicited content. These results suggest that widely shared ads are, to some extent, the result of people altruistically sharing them, as some researchers (Ho & Dempsey, 2010; Phelps et al. 2004) have argued.

The implications of these findings for the targeting, distribution, and seeding of viral video ads are important. The current study shows that certain personality types are more likely to forward video ads. However, identifying those traits in the population may be difficult for the marketer. One approach is directly asking individuals about their personality as done by Hutch.com, a social networking site (Teixeira, 2012b). Another approach is to infer personality traits from clickstream data (Ansri & Mela, 2003). A third approach is to locate websites that attract consumers with certain personality types. For example, extraverted people write more blogs (Guadagno, Okdie, & Eno 2008), and use social networking sites more than introverts (Bibby, 2008).

Although this research sheds light on critical aspects of viral advertising, its limitations also offer opportunities for further research. First, although the sample was randomly selected, it may not be entirely representative of those likely to view viral ads in an Internet-enabled environment. Participants in this study were geographically concentrated, and the sample was younger and less racially diverse than the general population. Consequently, the findings cannot necessarily be generalized and further research on a broader demographic sample may be warranted. Second, the external validity is limited as participants knew they were involved in a study. Also, the data came from self-reports of traits and behavioral intentions. Further studies should examine actual forwarding behavior to provide a more precise indication of how individual traits affect the propensity to pass on viral ads. Finally, the purpose of this paper was limited to examining the forwarding behavior of consumers. As with any advertising, the ultimate goal is to generate sales. As such, brand recall and purchase intent are other important outcome variables for exploration in future research on viral advertising.

In conclusion, this study indicates that targeting the right people is essential to any viral effect. When attempting to design a successful viral video advertising campaign, marketers often focus on crafting contagious content. The current research indicates that it may be more beneficial to target a subset of viewers who are inclined to share it. As Phelps and colleagues (2004, p. 345) point out, “viral marketing can be compared with activating an affinity group where one is reaching people who are ready to hear one’s message. Once the affinity group is contacted (and hopefully activated) they are in total control.”

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AUTHORS

*Wilburn Lane is Professor of Marketing at Union University. He can be contacted at Union University, 1050 Union University Drive, Jackson, TN 38305. Email: wlane@uu.edu.

Christopher Manner is Associate Professor of Economics at Union University. He can be contacted at Union University, 1050 Union University Drive, Jackson, TN 38305. Email: cmanner@uu.edu.

*Corresponding author
CO-TEACHING IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A CHECKLIST FOR BEST PRACTICE

*Rebecca S. Davis
Eastern New Mexico University

Kathie Good
Eastern New Mexico University

ABSTRACT

Since the passage of 94-142, Education for All Handicapped Children’s Act in 1974, professional educators and schools have been scrambling to determine the best methods and strategies for effectively educating students with special needs (Polloway, Patton & Serna, 2008). Historically, two very common, yet philosophically different, methods have been used: collaboration and co-teaching. Although many professionals use the terms interchangeably, the two strategies are uniquely different in their goals and ultimate outcomes (Friend, 2011).

INTRODUCTION

Collaboration as defined by Friend and Cook (2010) is “a style for direct interaction between at least two co-equal parties voluntarily engaged in shared decision making as they work toward a common goal” (p. 7). Collaboration is a teaching or style of interacting with another educator in the planning, design, and assessment of learning. Successful collaboration requires more than simultaneous presentation.

Friend (2011) notes that successful collaboration includes several critical factors: teacher compatibility and willingness to collaborate, defined roles and responsibilities, mutual goals, shared decision making, and shared accountability. Education is not successfully completed in isolation. Collaboration is necessary for the success of all students, especially those with special needs.

Co-teaching, though often viewed as a form of collaboration, offers a distinctive delivery methodology that extends beyond mere collaboration. In the co-teaching model, two or more licensed professionals jointly plan, deliver and assess instruction in a shared space with a diverse group of students (Friend, 2011). “Although research on the effectiveness of co-teaching in higher education is limited, preliminary investigation suggest that co-teaching can be an effective pedagogical strategy with a number of benefits for faculty and students” (Chanmugam & Gerlach, 2013, p. 110). In a positive co-teaching model, the combined strength of two licensed and highly qualified educators can supply additional sources of instructional support and intervention that are not be available in a traditional classroom setting. In the co-teaching model, students receive increased attention and their questions are addressed with much less “wait time” with two sources of expertise available (Ferguson & Wilson, 2011). This form of uniquely planned and executed instruction can result in improved learner outcomes. All learners benefit from instructional delivery that capitalizes upon the strengths and expertise of co-teachers.). Similarly, faculty report increased job satisfaction, an increased sent of self-efficacy, and greater collaboration, trust and collegiality (Vermette, Jones, & Jones, 2010).

CO-TEACHING AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The rise of inclusionary education (educating students with special needs alongside their general education peers) has mandated that co-teaching be used as an effective and productive teaching method (Smith, Polloway, Patton, J., & Dowdy, 2012). Like all teaching methods, there is no one size fits all approach. Co-teaching offers the learning platform that can best meets the needs of twenty-first century classrooms (Graziano & Navarrette, 2012). Various co-teaching formats are currently represented within the public school setting. Friend (2011) notes that educators and school administrators must find the type of co-teaching that best fits the needs of the students, the educators and ultimately the mission of the school. The most common styles of co-teaching are:

- **One teach, one observe.** This format occurs when one teacher is in charge of instruction while the second teacher may gathers and records data.
- **Parallel teaching.** Parallel teaching occurs when co-teachers split the classroom into two student groups and simultaneously teach the content.
• **Station teaching.** As the name implies, the students move from one academically themed “station” to another within the classroom. Co-teachers monitor performance and/or provide additional instruction within the station.

• **Alternative teaching.** Alternative teaching involves the implementation of a whole-group lesson. Upon conclusion, students are placed into smaller groups where the lesson content will be differentiated and reinforced based on student needs and academic levels of performance.

• **One teach, one assist.** This is the most frequently implemented form of co-teaching models. In this model, teacher instructs while the other assists the teacher and the students.

• **Teaming.** Teaming is the most evolved and collaborative co-teaching model. When engaged in teaming, both educators must have established trust in their individual skills as they seamlessly weave teaching and assessment together.

Historically, co-teacher “pairing” has been based upon teacher experience with novice teachers being paired with school “veterans”. However, since over 70% of American teachers report co-teaching at some point in their career (Vermette et al, 2010), many university teacher education programs have included the teaching of “co-teaching” as an alternative platform for classroom instruction. University instructors versed in co-teaching view the perpetuation of the “isolationist” model of instruction as both archaic and as a disservice to their students.

### CO-TEACHING IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Universities are tasked with the responsibility of preparing teachers to enter the workforce armed with strategies and instructional models that result in improved student performance. Teacher education programs must embrace, demonstrate and model the most effective, and often evolving, methodologies. “Co-teaching university courses is one way to effectively model and develop the collaborative skills of teacher candidates” (Bacharach, Heck, & Dahlberg, 2008). This paradigm shift offers ready benefit to the classrooms of the future.

The idea of co-teaching in higher education is intriguing, yet filled with many questions. While public school teachers and university faculty may both be receptive to the idea and philosophy underlying co-teaching, both share common concerns that are often viewed as obstacles to success: willingness to collaborate, common planning time, grading issues, teacher accountability, and administrative support.

Teachers in the K-12 public schools cite the lack of administrative support as a primary obstacle to co-teaching. According to teachers in the field, administrators are often unwilling, or unable to provide teachers willing to co-teach with a common planning time during the school day. Similar to their public school colleagues, higher education faculty members also cite the lack of administrative support, yet use the term to reflect a perceived administrative inflexibility in scheduling (Villa, Thousand, & Nevin (2004).

### INSTRUCTION

Attitudes and egos often hinder a successful collaboration and ultimately could negatively impact the success of the co-teaching model. Teachers in the K-12 public education setting often demonstrate the “my kids, your kids” attitude in regard to students with and without special needs (Smith, Polloway, Patton, & Dowdy, 2012). Public school teachers may be reluctant to relinquish responsibility for “their students” to a co-teacher in another discipline and may assert a special allegiance to the students listed on their own class roles.

Perceptions of “ownership” are also reflected in higher education (Chanmugam & Gerlach, 2013). However, unlike their K-12 colleagues, faculty perceptions of ownership are more closely linked to specific course content. In addition, university faculty are accustomed to teaching from the perspective of “accomplished leadership”. Consequently, egos and attitudes may influence instructor willingness to collaborate with others in a shared arena of responsibility. Like K-12 educators, faculty in higher education must put aside their credential-based arrogance when it comes to ownership of the course and the material to be taught in the course. It is vital that potential co-teaching faculty agree on the course design, use of materials, and have a “property” plan. Faculty must see the value in both fields of study and plan instruction to highlight each aspect of faculty expertise within the co-teaching classroom. The idea that two heads are better than one can open the door for a different approach to a common curriculum. Faculty must be willing to share their expertise as they develop a unified approach to a common curriculum.

### ASSESSMENT

Most recent obstacles in co-teaching collaborative partnerships are related to the K-12 public education teacher evaluation system that links student test scores with teacher performance ratings. Teachers are becoming more and
more unwilling to let go of any control which could come back to negatively impact their own teaching evaluations (personal communication with Jackie Burns, Special Education Director, Portales Municipal Schools September 6, 2012).

University faculty encounters an equally problematic scenario. Teacher evaluations in higher education are aligned with tenure and promotion decisions. Comments from students enrolled in coursework are considered as substantial component of the evaluation system. While university faculty evaluations are not currently tied to student test scores, faculty are aware of the practice and fear that higher education may follow a similar model. Like their K-12 colleagues, university faculty might be reluctant to participate if a co-teacher’s performance could negatively impact their semester teaching evaluations.

Like the curriculum, the dance of grading must be discussed and decided proactively. Will each faculty member be responsible for grading the work in their expertise area? Are there assignments that will require grading input from both co-teaching members? If so, is there a grading plan in place to ensure, or at least level the idea of, inter-grader reliability?

RESPONSIBILITIES

Faculty load, defined as the number of courses that an individual teaches during the academic year, determines teaching schedules and faculty responsibilities. Similar to their K-12 counterparts, university co-teachers must consider the question of divided responsibilities. How will load be divided among faculty who are teaching the same course? Departmental Chairs and College Deans must be imaginative and forward thinking when viewing faculty load in regard to best practice. Faculty volunteering to co-teach should not be penalized by having their “load” reduced when they choose to co-teach.

More than just teaching schedules and office hours must be taken into consideration when it comes to co-teaching in higher education. Teaching in higher education is often viewed as half-time work for full-time pay. “Faculty who sit on review committees, most of whom have never co-taught, often perceive co-taught courses as easier and less time consuming than they do solo-taught classes” (Graziano & Navarette, 2012, 113).

“The potentially largest barriers to co-teaching at the college level may be the policies and practices for promotion, tenure, and merit reviews” (Graziano & Navarette, 2012, 113). The requirements of the faculty evaluation system dictate that faculty engage in, not only teaching, but service and scholarship as well. Planning time for co-teaching has to fit in between the mandatory committee meetings, conference presentations, course grading, mandatory student advising sessions and the actual teaching of courses (Platt, Walker-Knight, Lee, & Hewitt, 2001).

DISCUSSION

In line with the common obstacles of co-teaching in both K-12 and higher education are the shared benefits in co-teaching both levels share. “Preservice teachers who graduate from teacher preparation programs where co-teaching approaches are taught and modeled in pedagogy courses will be in high demand for K-12 teaching positions” (Graziano & Navarette, 2012, 123). Bacharach et al., (2008) share that a classroom which evolves from an isolated island of learning to an “all students can learn” classroom demonstrates one of many positive results found in co-teaching. Co-teaching combines the talents of two professional educators along with the diversity each teacher’s background brings to the classroom and ultimately learning within the classroom.

Friend and Cook (2010) remind us that co-teaching provides all students (those in K-12 public education and in higher education) access to two teachers, two points of view, two teaching styles and experience in a classroom with a lower student to teacher ratio. The students are not the only people who benefit from a successful co-teaching experience. The educational professionals reap the rewards in a co-teaching classroom as well. Bacharach et al., (2008) stress the added value in successful co-teaching includes class coverage; the class can and will go one even if one teacher is out for the day.

The unparalleled professional development gained by all educators in the co-teaching experience may be one of the most beneficial aspects of co-teaching. Bacharach et al., (2008) note that co-teaching faculty reported, “I would co-teach again in a heartbeat,” “I would love to co-teach again. I learned so much in the process; planning, sharing, general information, and current studies/research,” and, “after teaching ‘solo’ my whole career, I found consulting with a peer on all decisions (small and large), really forced me to be conscientious about all that I do and say. I also relearned the art of listening to another’s perspective when it comes to making pedagogical decisions. In some ways, this experience felt like I was student teaching again” (13).
The preparation of all students can be enriched through a successful co-teaching model. Teacher candidates in higher education have the benefit of observing and being mentored by two highly qualified experts. Two expert practitioners only enhance and support teaching and learning in the co-teaching classroom (Villa et al., 2004). In addition, pre-service teachers have the advantage of observing methods for blending both special and general education. For example, the university student can learn successful strategies for emergent literacy from a faculty member experienced with the general education curriculum, while at the same time learning how to modify reading strategies for struggling readers from a faculty member knowledgeable of special education. The resulting methodology successfully integrates the constructivist and behaviorist philosophies envisioned by both disciplines.

The benefit of multiple instructors may extend beyond the classroom. Varied teaching schedules may make it more difficult for university students to meet with their faculty mentors. The practice of having two professors in the same course provides students with access to two professors for advising, assignment questions, collaboration and mentorship (Duchardt, Marlow, Inman, Christensen, & Reeves, 1999).

Two professors also provide for the continuity of coverage if one professor must be out of the classroom. Unlike K-12 education, substitute teachers are not available at the collegiate level; when a professor must miss class, students miss out on the class time as well. In a co-teaching environment one teacher being absent would not have to negatively impact the class with a cancellation. While the expertise of the absent professor would be missed, the class could continue as planned.

Teacher candidate training classes, or field service, are vital components of teacher preparation. Having two professors sharing the observation and data collection burden during field service work only provide a more positive outcome (York-Barr, Bacharach, Salk, Frank, & Beniek, 2004). In addition, co-teaching supports lower student–teacher ratios in the classroom. While 30 university students in an elementary education methods class may be viewed as problematic, two professors sharing the load, result in a more appealing 15:1 ratio. As an added benefit, Devlin-Scherer and Sardone (2013) report that co-teaching results in more than greater student achievement. As might be expected, co-teaching results in greater student retention.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE

As in all professional collaborative experiences, time must be expended initially to help ensure success of the project. “it is especially important that education faculty teach and model effective K-12 practices in preservice education courses” (Graziano & Navarette, 2012, 124). If the university co-teachers are aware of the obstacles they face, together they can proactively strategize to plan for the obstacles as they move toward a successful co-teaching experience (Cook & Friend, 1995). Research can provide proven strategies and methods for success. However, research must be expanded beyond written, historical data and include ongoing qualitative experiences. Potential collaborators should be mindful of the following strategies for success (Bacharach et al., 2008; Rehmeyer, 2008; Murawski, 2002; and Murawski & Dieker, 2008):

Know your co-teacher. Never enter into a co-teaching situation without personally and professionally knowing your co-teacher. You must understand your partner; emotionally and intellectually. Do you have an empathetic relationship that permits shared responsibility?

Commonly develop teaching and classroom routines. One person’s style cannot overwhelm or engulf the others. Time must be spent proactively to determine common routines in planning, teaching, assessing, and debriefing each class session. While the co-teacher should not lose their individuality, compromise must be forefront with setting up the co-teaching classroom.

Communicate honestly and with kindness. Co-teachers must be honest yet remember that everyone is vulnerable in a co-teaching situation. Partners must be reflective practitioners, aware of classroom dynamics and willing to offer both praise and criticism. Always look for the third solution: not yours not mine, but ours.

Share your strengths. The training and experiences of co-teachers may be very different. Strengths are easy to share but co-teachers may find it difficult in an arena where perceived weaknesses are evident. Successful co-teaching requires full disclosure. While curricular weaknesses may be inevitable, faculty must also remember to celebrate the strengths that they bring to the blended instructional environment. Optionally, the strengths of one will help to fortify the weaknesses of the other (Vaughn, Schumm, & Arguelle, 1997). Be honest with the strengths and use them to the advantage and success of your classroom and your students. Remember, their success is your success (both of yours).

Present your needs. What do you need to be successful, supported and celebrated? Share your needs with your co-teaching partner. Co-teaching cannot and should not be confused with mind-reading. You must present what you need and expect from your co-teacher.
Watch and learn. Be a focused observer. Watch your co-teacher and learn from their strengths. Ask questions and be a life-long learner in your own classroom; consider co-teaching as a form of professional development.

Get up, don’t just sit. Have the agreement that both of you will get up and be continually engaged in the classroom. If one teacher chooses to always sit, the student may view this passive behavior as an indicator of unequal leadership. When one partner is teaching, the other should walk around the classroom, observe the students, and engage in the lesson.

Model positive professional behaviors. Make organization part of the teaching routine. Together decide on the processes the classroom will follow. Spend the time upfront organizing the room and the routines within the classroom. Model the professional teaching behaviors you want to observe in your own students.

Be reflective. Make time and plan for debriefing after each class session, project, and observation. Both teachers should each know the students. Frequent sharing promotes strong relationships and the possibility of strong mentorship for students. Remember, while you may not reach the needs of one student, your co-teacher might make the connection. Discuss the outcome of the class or the project, is it what you expected? While recognizing the importance of planning instruction, do not neglect the reflective, debriefing aspect of teaching and learning.

Equal power between co-teachers. Co-teaching is a partnership. Can you be an empathetic observer as well as a “critical friend” within the co-teaching dynamic?

Advocate for co-teaching. Co-teaching is relatively new to higher education. Publicly celebrate experiences in co-teaching. Talk in the hallway with departmental colleagues about something great that happened in class. Use the mailroom as a collaboration space so others can hear you at work. For co-teaching to be successful and have potential expansion in higher education, faculty must see co-teaching as a positive, professional experience.

While collaboration and co-teaching are often viewed as two distinctly different strategies for teaching students, co-teaching cannot be successful without strong and positive collaboration. The model of co-teaching chosen is not as important as the fidelity used when actually co-teaching (Friend, 2011). Co-teachers must choose a model that works for their teaching assignments, case loads, students, district mission, and the content to be taught. A good fit must be developed between the co-teaching model and the co-teachers. Administration, in both K-12 and higher education, must celebrate the dedication and recognize the vulnerability experienced by co-teachers. Furthermore, university and public school administrators alike must acknowledge the professional risk teachers are willing to take for the success of their students.

Higher education has recognized the potential value of co-teaching since the mid-1970s (Friend & Cook, 2010); however, universities are just now beginning to embrace the practice. Friend (2011) reminds us that successful co-teaching takes more time, energy, planning, direction, dedication and open mindedness than teaching in an isolated classroom. Educators are putting their reputations on the line daily when working in a co-teaching venue. Villa et al., (2004) warn that obstacles must be identified up-front and solved before co-teaching begins. While unanticipated problems will inevitably occur, it is imperative that all recognized obstacles and roadblocks be eliminated. Many questions remain unanswered and potential roadblocks await discovery. University leaders must be willing and prepared to put our lectures, theory, and philosophy into practice.
REFERENCES


### APPENDIX

**A Checklist for Co-Teaching in Higher Education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive Traits and Behaviors for Successful Co-Teaching</th>
<th>Co-Teacher</th>
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<td><strong>Relationship Building</strong></td>
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<td>1. Have you taken the time to get to know your co-teacher personally?</td>
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<td>2. Have you taken the time to get to know your co-teacher professionally?</td>
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<td>3. Do you share an empathic relationship that permits shared responsibility?</td>
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<td>4. Do you have trust in your co-teaching partner?</td>
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<td><strong>Communication</strong></td>
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<td>5. Do you and your partner use a common language in and out of the classroom?</td>
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<td>6. Do you look for a third solution – not yours, not theirs, but ours?</td>
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<td>7. Can you speak honestly with your co-teacher?</td>
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<td>8. Do you trust your co-teacher enough to receive constructive criticism?</td>
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<td>9. Do you and your co-teacher share a common communication style?</td>
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<td>10. Do you make time to communicate with each other a priority?</td>
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<td>11. Do you communicate with kindness and respect?</td>
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<td>12. Do you feel comfortable communicating your needs to your co-teacher?</td>
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<td><strong>Professionalism</strong></td>
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<td>13. Have you developed common teaching and classroom routines?</td>
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<td>14. Do you agree and use individual strengths?</td>
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<td>15. Are you willing to be a student and learn from your co-teacher as a focused observer?</td>
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<td>16. Do you both agree to be active teachers in the classroom?</td>
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<td>17. Do you model the behaviors you expect of your students?</td>
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<td>18. Are you a reflective practitioner?</td>
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<td>19. Do you and your co-teacher take time to share your reflections?</td>
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<td>20. Do you agree on what can be learned from each co-teacher?</td>
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<td><strong>Advocacy</strong></td>
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<td>21. Do you model positive interactions in regard to the practice of co-teaching?</td>
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<td>22. Are you a cheerleader when involved in and around co-teaching?</td>
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### AUTHORS

Rebecca Davis is an Associate Professor of Special Education at Eastern New Mexico University. She can be contacted at Eastern New Mexico University, Station 25, 1500 South Avenue K, Portales, New Mexico, 88101 or at rebecca.davis@enmu.edu.

Kathie Good is a Professor of Special Education at Eastern New Mexico University. She can be contacted at Eastern New Mexico University, Station 25, 1500 South Avenue K, Portales, New Mexico, 88101 or at kathie.good@enmu.edu.
CONDUCTING MIX IT UP LUNCH: 
TEACHERS SUGGEST INGREDIENTS FOR SUCCESS

Michele A. Marable, Ph.D.*
Education Department
Canisius College
marablem@canisius.edu

Karen M. Dutt-Doner, Ph.D.
Education Department
Canisius College
duttdonk@canisius.edu

Erin Cleary, BS.Ed.
Canisius College

Lauren Van Wie, BS.Ed.
Canisius College

Corinne Kindzierski, Ph.D.
Education Department
Canisius College
kindzierc@canisius.edu

Nancy V. Wallace, Ph.D.
Education Department
Canisius College
wallacen@canisius.edu

Abstract

Respect is developed by teaching children to understand each other and differences that may exist across social, racial or cultural lines. This qualitative study sought to examine different ways teachers implemented Mix it Up Lunch; a technique grounded in creating respect. Findings provide insight to create an experience that yields the effort’s goal; making friendships across boundaries. The motivation behind “Mix it Up” is serious, but if carried out responsibly, it has potential to create friendships among students who never may have come in contact with one another; an important goal for any classroom in America.
CONDUCTING MIX IT UP LUNCH: TEACHERS SUGGEST INGREDIENTS FOR SUCCESS

A fundamental value in all humans, respect forms the basis for character and personality (Miller & Pedro, 2006). Respect is developed in children by teaching them to understand each other and the differences that may exist across social, racial or cultural lines. Nurturing relationships among children from diverse backgrounds provides the foundation that supports the development of respect (Miller & Pedro, 2006). Samanci (2010) discusses the importance of the elementary schools years in the child’s socialization process and reports, “children learn how to live with others in the same environment, how to share, how to communicate and how to express themselves” (p. 154). These findings suggest that respect can have a great deal of influence on the interactions among and between children at school.

Studies have indicated that a racially diverse student population does not guarantee friendships that cross social and racial boundaries. Moody (2002) found that extracurricular mixing was the strongest determinant of students’ ability to make friends across social boundaries. Holladay (2008, 2010); Samanci (2010); Miller & Pedro (2006) now suggest that specific interventions need to become a part of the school experience that provide students opportunities to explore outside their social comfort zones. And, as Miller and Pedro (2006) point out, simply imposing values on students is not an effective strategy. Instead, they recommend that “as part of our ‘hidden curriculum’ within the school, respect can be one way schools serve to socialize students to learn respect for themselves, teachers and peers” (p. 296). “Mix it up Lunch” (MIUL) and its accompanying curriculum is one such recommended intervention (www.tolerance.org) that can play a part in the hidden curriculum.

MIUL is a strategy that requires students in a school, grade level or classroom to sit next to someone other than those they normally sit near during lunch. Kindzierski, et al., report the experiences of children (2012). These authors assert the success of the program is contingent upon careful and thoughtful preparation. Their findings suggest that students who experienced activities or assignments that prepared them to interact with others tended to report a more positive experience while those who entered lunch and were assigned a different seat reported more discomfort and a less enjoyable experience interacting with children other than their friends. These findings resonate with those of Holliday (2008) who suggests that MIUL addresses recommendations of educators who suggest the importance of student centered teaching methods. These strategies enable students to develop social skills and participate in social activities within the classroom and outside as well.

The importance of nurturing social emotional development (SEL) of children in schools is clear (Stransberry-Brusnahan, 2011). In current revisions of learning standards, educators have recognized importance of including SEL in the curriculum (Kress, Norris, Schoenholz, Elias, & Seigle, 2004) as well as the implications for SEL beyond K-12 (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010). It is important to engage the whole student because educators want to promote positive growth that can lead to academic achievement and well-being. Children who have not developed social skills lack confidence, are harmfully shy, and may display violent behaviors at school (Samanci, 2010). Stransberry-Brusnahan (2011) also suggests that in addition to curricular support, teachers can develop SEL through the use of classroom expectations and routines and positive behavioral intervention and supports (PBIS) initiatives. Teachers are important role models who affect social skill development (Samanci, 2010). SEL is important but in this era of testing and standards, some educators view it as additional instead of an integral component of learning.
The role of the teacher is critically important in developing SEL in the classroom because the teacher’s behavior serves as a model for the children. Wessler (2003) defines a respectful classroom as a place where all students feel physically and emotionally safe and valued for whom they are. The teacher must be an active listener who engages students in clarifying their feelings and choosing options (McConnell & Elliot, 2003). In order to model appropriate procedures that foster respect among students, teachers must reflect on their own values and biases, consider the context of students’ lives and the content they are teaching (Sanville, 2003). Further, this author asserts that when teachers work in environments that are very different from those they are familiar, they must commit to being well read, understand the surrounding community, and the demands on the lives of the children they teach. It is only after they have considered these factors and reflected on the impact of their practice, that teachers can create caring and respectful classrooms where all children feel welcomed and valued.

According to Miller and Pedro (2003) the development of respectful classroom environments leads to a “greater understanding of and appreciation for diverse populations within a school community…respectful classroom environments decreases the fear of the unknown and the unexplored” (p.296). Students learn to respect others when the teacher respects them and values their opinions. When students believe that their teacher cares about their feelings, they will learn to respect themselves and their classmates. When children get the opportunity to know each other, share new ideas and listen to others’ ideas they will become more open-minded and feel more connected to each other (Miller & Pedro, 2003). By developing relationships within the classroom, connections are made that create an environment of respect among children and can directly impact the quality of the interactions.

Even though recent studies indicate that this generation of students is among the most racially tolerant, “one in four students reports being a target of racial or ethnic bias in a typical school year; one in ten say they’ve been called an offensive name at school…. and schools are the third most common location for hate crimes (Holladay, 2008, p. 21). This author offers promising practices to address these issues. These include implementation of anti-racist curricula, developing character education, providing equal academic opportunities, and promoting cross group contact. Each of these practices focuses on respectful interactions; the foundation of a respectful classroom. Holladay (2008) describes research findings from a meta-analysis of 203 studies involving 90,000 subjects that report face to face interaction between group members lead to a reduction in prejudice in 94% of the cases (p. 22).

Wessler (2003) reports the importance of teachers’ respecting children’s feelings and taking the time to intervene in interactions that should not be tolerated. In the same way, this author found that children place importance on teachers’ validating and respecting their feelings. The teacher must pay careful attention to the ways that classroom interactions can positively or negatively impact student relationships and feelings of safety. Holladay (2008) reports that while teaching students of diverse backgrounds is covered in teacher training; only 39% of subjects report the training was useful in the classroom. The result is teachers who do not feel prepared to create classroom communities that are respectful and welcoming to all students as suggested as important by Wessler (2003).

Since the 1980s Johnson (1981) has asserted that constructive relationships among and between students are probably an absolute necessity for student development in all areas. Further, this author suggests that structuring supportive and accepting interaction among students may influence both the amount of interaction with peers and the development of social skills.
An interview with the 2004 National Teacher of the Year, Willoughby (2005) reports that in order to find equity in education, the best teachers should seek the most difficult assignments. The author describes the educator’s perception of the overwhelming feeling regarding the poverty and neglect she encountered in some of her students. She mentioned that she wanted to fix the world for the children and felt that her classroom needed to be a place where they felt safe, cared for, and nurtured. She believed that school was the best place some of her children ever got to go to and thus, made sure it was exciting, interesting, colorful, and a place that was going to be a good place all day. The views of this honored educator compel teachers to find ways to influence their charges beyond academics. Each author stresses the importance of interactions among children being a priority for teachers.

According to McCollum and Rene (2011) ten years of MIUL Day has provided proven ways to give “‘Mix’ an extra stir” (p.1). These include: inspire student buy-in, inspire teacher and staff involvement, reach beyond the walls, build the buzz, prep students and teachers, make it a big deal, ensure everyone is in, repeat, follow up and change up, and evaluate. The effects of MIUL and reports on practical application in the classroom are few. One study (Kindzierski, et al., 2012) reports children’s perspective after the MIU experience. Those findings serve to inform teachers and administrators as they plan for future events. This study was intended to build on that knowledge base by providing feedback and insight from teachers’ perceptions. The purpose of this qualitative study was to examine different ways that teachers can implement MIUL to develop students’ social skills in order to make recommendations about the critical elements of the strategy.

Method

Because the nature of this research is qualitative, hypotheses were not tested. Rather, the data led the researchers to a better understanding of students’ and teachers’ experiences before, during and after their participation in Mix it Up across multiple classrooms in multiple school settings. By collectively analyzing data across multiple classroom and school settings, researchers will be able to provide suggestions for classroom practice based on consistent patterns and themes of data that may emerge. Using a grounded theory approach, themes emerged in the data analysis phase. The following research questions define the initial scope and sequence of this qualitative study:

1. What are teachers’ perceptions of the MIUL experience and curriculum?
2. What are the social experiences of students’ in the classroom before, during and after MIUL?
3. How does MIUL impact social boundaries among children in a classroom?
4. To what extent and in what ways does the MIUL curriculum need to be implemented to have an impact?

This study included eleven teacher candidates and their respective cooperating teachers during the final seven-week student teaching placement in eleven different schools representing both urban and suburban schools. School sites were determined by the student teaching placement for graduate teacher candidates. Participation was voluntary for teacher candidates and the level to which the intervention would be implemented was determined by the willingness of the classroom teacher, students, and school. Participants represent a cross section of grade levels, schools, and types of MIUL implementation in order to provide practical recommendations that may be considered by teachers in many classroom settings.

The procedures were developed in collaboration with all researchers. Data collection took place during the spring and fall semesters in the same academic year. Teacher candidates
enrolled in student teaching were invited to participate on a voluntary basis. Candidates who agreed to implement MIUL in their classrooms attended a training session on the program and its curriculum. Parents were sent a letter describing the study seeking consent for their child. Any children who did not receive permission participated in the MIUL activities, but were not included in data collection.

After attending the training, each candidate and their cooperating teacher determined the most effective way to implement MIUL in their classroom and school setting. During implementation, candidates collected data from students about their experience to better understand its effectiveness. Data collection included: student survey, random follow up interviews with students and any artifacts from the MIUL activities as reported by Kindzierski, et. al., (2012). Upon completion of implementation, teachers were interviewed together to reflect on their experience with the intervention. While the interview was guided by open ended questions focused on allowing teachers to share their experiences, follow up questions were asked for to probe for deeper responses and to allow participants to elaborate on their answers.

The interview was tape recorded and transcribed. Two of the researchers independently coded the interview and then met to determine common themes. Then each researcher independently coded the data again using the refined codes. Findings presented represent the common themes that researchers identified. Data were analyzed for their value in offering instructional recommendations to classroom teachers.

Findings

Major themes emerged from the teachers’ experiences in implementing MIUL and offer important instructional recommendations for consideration. Findings are organized by factors to consider when implementing this strategy across all grade levels and school settings.

One of the major findings from this research study was that students participating in MIUL were resistant to participating in the experience. Some students experienced discomfort during the experience. One candidate reported that when asked to reflect on the experience, students “wrote that it was pretty stupid of me to make them do this.” Another candidate reported, “When we got into the lunchroom it seemed that kids were whining about sitting next to each other and kids were just going nuts about it.” All of the candidates implementing this strategy indicated that some of the students felt this about the experience. Findings suggest that there were a number of factors that contributed to this resistance. First, some students reported feeling uncomfortable sitting with classmates they did not know. As one candidate reported, “children don’t like change and didn’t really enjoy sitting near peers that were outside of their cliques. They already have their social cliques at that young age.” Other candidates reported that gender differences played a role in students’ discomfort. One candidate reported, “Some of it was definitely a gender thing, some boys saying they wouldn’t want to sit next to some girls; that kind of thing.” At a young age, children will begin to identify with individuals that are similar to them and feel discomfort in getting to know others not part of their chosen peer group. On candidate explained, “I just think all change, they are just used to being around the same people all of the time and all of a sudden it is so mixed up, and they didn’t like that particular change.” So, the simple act of asking students to do something different than what they are used to can cause discomfort in the process.

Many students reported to the candidate that they were resistant to the experience because lunch was the only time they were allowed to socialize with friends. One candidate explained and others agreed, “One of the things that I found, the kids that were resistant, their
main reason was that lunch time was the only time they got to hang out with their friends. So they felt offended by me pulling them away from their friends. So, for some students their resistance could be a response to the structure of the school day not allowing for time to socialize.”

It became apparent from the candidates’ experiences that some of the level of discomfort that created the resistance came from students’ inability to know how to interact with each other while other aspects were just resistant to the experience. One candidate explained the students’ experience, “The first day was very awkward and a lot of them just sat there in silence because they didn’t want to have to talk to each other or didn’t know what to say. So we had to talk and improvise and we made people conversation cards and questions (my favorite hobby is…..) and then they could use those for help. The second day I asked them if using those cards would help them and they said no. I just felt it was more or less the resistance than it was knowing what to do.” Students’ skill level in being able to manage a new social situation clearly has an impact on their ability to connect with others.

Participating teachers, while believing in the importance of developing students’ social networks and skills, expressed hesitancy about the logistics of implementing the MIUL strategy. One candidate expressed the general feeling of almost all the participating candidates, “Honestly I thought it would be a good idea in theory it seemed like a good thing to do but I was concerned about putting it into practice and the logistics of it.” Most of the concerns came from the uncertainty of how the implementation would go and how students would receive the process. These concerns were similar to those expressed by the students. One candidate explained, “Switching kids up every day when they went into lunch made us nervous and we didn’t know how the kids would respond especially having it be a week-long and to understand the purpose. But also we wanted to see if any were to get enjoyment out of it also. Actually at first we were nervous but wondering, because the theory is great of a program like this, we didn’t know how it would influence or affect the kids at the time and during the school day. I was particularly nervous because I have 4th grade students all day and feel like at that age they already at their “cliques.” The other group was first grade so I was a bit more apprehensive about it. I was a little hesitant also because I understand people don’t like to change up their normal daily routines, so I was interested to see the different ways in which the kids would react.” Teacher concerns mirrored the concerns of the students. Teachers need to think about ways in which these concerns can be addressed to alleviate some of the resistance.

Some apparent differences were noticed by participating candidates in the implementation of MIUL. In the older grades, it was clear that underlying or existing friendships played a role in the challenges of implementing MIUL. One candidate acknowledged an observation of many in the following, “in fifth grade there were more underlying friendship issues and more deeper level issues as opposed to minor surface issues of “Oh I don’t like you,” in the first grade.” Social development levels need to be considered in how MIUL implementation is approached and students are prepared for the experience. One participating candidate explained, “You should really look at your population that you’re doing it with to make sure that they would need an activity like this or can benefit from an activity. Now with the junior high separated into boy- girl classes, for our purposes for gender; if I would have been in sixth, seventh, or eighth grade class doing this; because they are separated I think I really could have really driven the point of mixing it up.” When the candidates were asked if they think MIUL is a relevant experience to provide students at all grade levels the middle school; candidates offered the following, “I would, again with an older group, I had a very good
classroom and like we just mentioned that it is more relevant to an older grade maybe a middle school or even a high school would be great to observe them and do this even though there is more resistance I think that it would be more relevant.” So, from the standpoint of creating discomfort for middle schools students to give them an experience that helps them develop a strong social circle and social skills, candidates feel this is valuable. Candidates of younger children were in agreement that this is relevant social skill building strategy. One candidate explained,

I would of course do it again but I would actually like the younger groups because I think they need to have the experience because they know what we are teaching them they respect everybody and it is ok to play with other people who are different they are really not thinking that so that it is not ok to be different but I know when you are answering a survey to answer that way. So I know what is supposed to be said but experience wise or what they are doing is with my research showed that it is not there not going the same way so I think if we hit the younger grades earlier and do more mix it up with younger grades it will reduce and also help them with the problem solving. If you’re in third, fourth or fifth grade because you are going to have the experience and have those skills and know how to implement them into their relationships with their classmates.”

Candidates all believe that this strategy is an important for students to experience and that teachers need to consider development considerations for implementation.

Data from this study indicate that consistency of implementation plays an important role in the impact of MIUL. The normal implementation of MIUL is to conduct it once a year but, the teacher candidates from this study suggest that more consistent implementation may be more beneficial for students. One candidate explained, “Then the mix it up was only that one day at one time but I think doing it on a bi-weekly basis might be best.” Candidates also indicated that trusting the teacher and each with a developed relationship played an important role in the success of implementation. One candidate suggested, “doing some more getting to know you or team building activities before. Not just throwing them right in the situation” Another candidate echoed this idea, “They asked me a couple times are you sure and this no one is going to see it but you and I think it is really important to have that relationship because if the kids are afraid of getting in trouble for saying the wrong thing or afraid of being stigmatized by the and their classmates and they won’t answer honestly and it will not work.” Another candidate iterated the importance of utilizing the strategy multiple times during a school year, “I definitely think it’s unfair to just watch and observe them one time in the year because you have a bad day, you know, one of the kids has a bad day or something traumatic happened in their life the night before and maybe at lunch they’re not themselves and then, nasty, which is not maybe tradition of how they would act. I think definitely doing it more often throughout the school year is a better assessment of children interacting with one another. Plus you get to know your students better, too.”

In using this strategy on a consistent basis, the candidate is better able to develop a trusting relationship with the students to make it a more authentic experience. One candidate explained, “They asked me a couple times are you sure and this no one is going to see it but you and I think it is really important to have that relationship because if the kids are afraid of getting in trouble for saying the wrong thing or afraid of being stigmatized by the and their classmates and they won’t answer honestly and it will not work.” Since honesty is an important part of the
reflective nature of this experience, using the process regularly and building trusting relationships is a key element to success and growth.

The implementation success of MIUL relies on the teacher’s ability to develop a solid, trusting relationship with students and with each other. And, because MIUL creates a discomforting feeling for some students, a one-time application may not be enough to have a significant impact on how students develop relationships and develop social skills.

To help students prepare for the MIUL experience, the teacher can conduct scaffolding activities. One candidate compared the impact of MIUL in two classrooms; one class participated in scaffolding activities while the other did not. This candidate observed, scaffold activities with one sample class and another, they were just kind of thrown into it and I found that the kids really enjoyed the activities prior to and it just showed they were getting hyped up about it and generated some energy. When I would say, “Oh we are doing something different tomorrow at lunch,” I would hear a lot of sighs. It was interesting to the activities prior to and to see the reaction. The day of there wasn’t so much initial shock and the children seemed somewhat excited and talked amongst themselves about it. So I thought that was good. Another candidate prepared first graders for the experience and noted the following, “My groups of first graders were given out prior information and surveys, so it was kind of an introduction to the whole mix-up lunch and my first graders seem to enjoy and not have as much struggle.” And, another candidate did a pre-journaling activity and observed the following, “We did a pre-journaling activity on how they thought peers would describe them. And the children hadn’t been in the classroom that long, but the children who you thought to be pretty confident and really assured, had serious concerns on how peers would describe them.” Conducting scaffolding activities can help students prepare for the experience in a way which makes them feel less anxious and thus resistant. One candidate explained the benefits scaffolding,

My group, (the one school I worked) with was fantastic because the activities we did prior to the lunch were almost leadership building activities more so than ‘get the partner the partner’ and do this. We did this great activity with a hula hoop where you time it to see how long it takes to the hula hoop around while everyone holds hand and it goes all the way around, not breaking the chain because you are depending on one another. I did activities that depend more on one another more so than activities that were work with a partner and do this sort of thing. The kids really had a ball with that and those ice breakers a week or two leading up to before the lunch, the kids really had an easier time not sitting next to their favorite person in the class, or a different gender.

Teachers may be tempted to skip introductory activities to MIUL in order to save instructional time, but findings from this study suggest that these important activities enhance the outcome for students. Providing opportunities to interact with each other and build trusting relationships allows students to engage more actively with peers outside their normal groups.

Discussion

These findings can serve to inform teachers who seek to foster relationships among their students and challenge children to get to know others who may appear to be different. The themes reported resonate with the suggestions made by McCollum and Rene’s (2011) list of suggestions to create successful MIUL. These include: expecting some resistance from students, hesitancy on the part of teachers, differences among grade levels, the importance of consistency, and scaffolding the experience by laying groundwork prior to implementing MIUL.
First, it is important that teachers respect and expect student resistance to “forced” interaction with peers outside of their normal peer group. Children often find comfort in interacting with peers that are most like them and given the choice, would prefer not to engage in an uncomfortable experience. This finding supports those of others who suggest the importance of building social skills among children and providing opportunities to interact with others in an effort to reduce the discomfort (Kress, Norris, Schoenholz, Elias, & Seigle, 2004). This finding also supports McCullum and Rene’s (2011) suggestion to ‘inspire student buy in’.

Second, teachers’ own concerns of the process should not deter them from working with children to develop relationships across peer groups. It is important to provide information and support to teachers prior to implementation of MIUL. Their hesitancy has potential to inspire the same in their students and detract from the objective of the experience. Administration, colleagues and veterans to the process must be sensitive to the possibility that some may be hesitant and that it may be their responsibility to address those issues before they have a detrimental effect on the experience. This finding supports McCollum and Rene (2011) assertion to ‘inspire staff and faculty involvement’ and to ‘reach beyond the walls’. Potential buy-in can be influenced when school board and community members join the effort.

Third, the developmental level of students will impact the implementation. Thus, teachers need to pay careful attention to children at different ages and recognize the need for different levels of support and trust building to make the implementation effective. Preparation before and debriefing after the event can provide insight to children’s thinking at various stages of development as suggested by McCollum and Rene’s (2011) suggestion to evaluate soon after the event by soliciting input from all parties (staff, faculty, and children).

Finally, the MIUL strategy is most effective when implemented continually in the classroom and supported with scaffolded preparation and time for reflection. The impact of MIUL can result in stronger peer relationships and friendships across cultural and socioeconomic boundaries. As suggested by McCollum and Rene (2011), ‘repeat, follow-up and change-up, and evaluate’. Findings from the current review of teachers’ perceptions and previous work by Kindzierski, et al., (2012) suggest that MIUL can have a powerful impact on participants when it is carried out responsibly. The motivation and work to prepare for the event is serious and requires careful attention by the adults. Preparation can better assure that the result is an enjoyable time for children to build relationships and friendships with those who may be different. Shouldn’t that be a goal for every classroom?


MEAN EFFECT OF STUDIED VARIABLES RELATED TO CHILD LABOR
IN DUM DUM MUNICIPALITY

D.Ghosh
Research Scholar, Dept. of Rural Development and Management
University of Kalyani, Nadia, West Bengal.
mail2debolinaghosh@gmail.com

Prof. A.Goswami
Animal Husbandry and Fisheries University
Belgachia, Kolkata, West Bengal.
arunasisvet@gmail.com

Dr. D.Mazumdar
Ex-Head, Department of Agricultural Statistics
Bidhan Chandra Krishi Viswavidyalaya, Mohanpur, Nadia.
debstat@gmail.com

Abstract

Child labour is a very complicated development issue, affecting human society all over the world. In the present survey Job pattern, Earning potentiality, Safety and comfort aggregate, Schooling concern, Health & hygiene concern and Awareness are dependent variables. Presence of owner, Residence, Gender, Age Caste, Education of the respondent, Religion, Family type, Family size and Family educational status are the nine independent variable here. After appropriate statistical analysis mean effect of independent variable on dependent variables of the studied variables is discussed.

Key Words: Child labour, Dum Dum Municipality, mean effect, dependent and independent variable.

Introduction

Child labour is a concrete manifestation of violations of a range of rights of children and is recognized as a serious and enormously complex social problem in India. Working children are denied their right to survival and development, education, leisure and play, and adequate standard of living, opportunity for developing personality, talents, mental and physical abilities, and protection from abuse and neglect. The problem of child labour therefore, does not constitute the age of child, but its exploitation and abuse. A generally valid definition of child labour is presently not available either in the national or international context. Any definition turns upon the precise meaning we attach to two components of the term “Child Labour” i.e. “Child” in terms of his chronological age, and “Labour” in terms of its nature, quantum and income generating capacity. However, child labour, can broadly be defined as that segment of the child
population which participates in work either paid or unpaid. At international level International Labour Organization (ILO), The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), United Nations International Children Emergency Fund (UNICEF) has also been making efforts to combat with the problem of child labour.

The main legislative measures at the national level are The Child Labor Prohibition and Regulation Act -1986 and The Factories Act -1948. To study the factors related to child labour - like the reasons for working, problems faced by the child, workplace condition, educational status as well as health status of the working children, awareness against child labour, it is very necessary first to identify the sectors which have the highest incidence of child labour activities and establish the social, demographic and economic characteristics of working children. Again to study how to mitigate the evils of child labour, it is important to generate accurate information of hazards, risks and potential diseases related to the worst forms of child labour and simultaneously to identify the benefits – if any – which children derive from working. As the issue of child labour is a sensitive one, the study had to cope with several obstacles during the field-work like the study was conducted with limited time and resources, lack of full cooperation of employers and child labours etc.

Materials and Methods

Methodology is documented process for management of projects that contains procedures, definitions and explanations of techniques used to collect, store, analyze and present information as part of a research process in a given discipline.

The ten independent variables selected for the study as follows:

Presence of owner, Residence, Gender, Age Caste, Education of the respondent, Religion, Family type, Family size and Family educational status.

The six dependent variables selected for the study as follows:

Job pattern, Earning potentiality, Safety and Comfort aggregate, Schooling concern, Health and Hygiene concern and Awareness.

For the measurement of variables, scales already available were used.
Table 1: Variables selected for the study and their empirical measurements:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>MEASURES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Independent Variables</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence of owner</td>
<td>Schedule Developed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residence</td>
<td>Schedule Developed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Schedule Developed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Schedule Developed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caste</td>
<td>Schedule Developed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education of the respondent</td>
<td>Pareek &amp; Trivedi (1964)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>Schedule Developed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family type</td>
<td>Pareek and Trivedi (1964)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Family size</td>
<td>Pareek and Trivedi (1964)</td>
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<td>Family educational status</td>
<td>Ray (1968)</td>
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<td><strong>Dependent Variables</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Job pattern</td>
<td>Schedule Developed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earning Potentiality</td>
<td>Schedule Developed</td>
</tr>
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<td>Safety and Comfort aggregate</td>
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<tr>
<td>Schooling concern</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and Hygiene concern</td>
<td>Schedule Developed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td>Schedule Developed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The field investigation was carried out during April 2011 to June 2011 in Dum Dum Municipality of North 24 Parganas district. The district was selected purposively for the study considering the need for availability of data and usual limitations of a student research project. From each selected wards eleven respondents were selected randomly with judgment sampling. In this process, 10 wards were selected from Dum Dum municipality. Hence, the total sample size was one hundred ten (110).

The statistical methods used included Percentage Analysis, Mean, Analysis of variance, Coefficient of correlation/Pearson’s correlation coefficient, Spearman Rank Correlation, Mann-Whitney U Test, Canonical Correlation Analysis.

Results and Discussion

The results of the study are discussed in this chapter after appropriate statistical analysis. In the present survey, Job pattern, Earning potentiality, Safety and comfort aggregate, Schooling concern, Health & hygiene concern and Awareness are dependent variables. Nine
independent variables related to general profile of child labour are Presence of owner, Residence, Gender, Age Caste, Education of the respondent, Religion, Family type, Family size and Family educational status.

In table 2-10 the effect of independent variables on different dependent variables is illustrated.

Table 2: Mean effect of Presence of owner on different variables under study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Presence of owner</th>
<th>Job pattern</th>
<th>Earning potentiality</th>
<th>Safety and Comfort aggregate</th>
<th>Schooling concern</th>
<th>Health and Hygiene concern</th>
<th>Awareness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absence</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>20.99</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>14.56</td>
<td>2.32</td>
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<tr>
<td>Presence</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>5.96</td>
<td>22.04</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>18.13</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Test Statistics

| Mann-Whitney U | 953.00 | 167.00 | 845.50 | 614.50 | 332.00 | 591.00 |
| Sig.            | 0.72   | 0.00   | 0.25   | 0.00   | 0.00   | 0.00   |

Table 3: Mean effect of Residence on different variables under study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residence</th>
<th>Job pattern</th>
<th>Earning potentiality</th>
<th>Safety and Comfort aggregate</th>
<th>Schooling concern</th>
<th>Health and Hygiene concern</th>
<th>Awareness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Village</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>20.73</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>15.93</td>
<td>2.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-urban</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>22.00</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>15.09</td>
<td>2.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>21.29</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>15.07</td>
<td>2.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Test Statistics

| Chi-Square  | 2.00 | 2.41 | 2.07 | 0.82 | 1.87 | 0.27 |
| df          | 2    | 2    | 2    | 2    | 2    | 2    |
| Sig.        | 0.37 | 0.30 | 0.36 | 0.66 | 0.39 | 0.87 |

Table 4: Mean effect of Gender on different variables under study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Job pattern</th>
<th>Earning potentiality</th>
<th>Safety and Comfort aggregate</th>
<th>Schooling concern</th>
<th>Health and Hygiene concern</th>
<th>Awareness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>21.07</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>2.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>21.68</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>16.36</td>
<td>2.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Test Statistics

| Mann-Whitney U | 939.00 | 858.00 | 960.00 | 997.00 | 816.00 | 774.00 |
| Sig.           | 0.36   | 0.13   | 0.46   | 0.63   | 0.08   | 0.03   |
Table 5: Mean effect of Age on different variables under study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Job pattern</th>
<th>Earning potentiality</th>
<th>Safety and Comfort aggregate</th>
<th>Schooling concern</th>
<th>Health and Hygiene concern</th>
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<td>Below 7 years</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>19.94</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>15.76</td>
<td>2.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-11 years</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>21.16</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>15.16</td>
<td>2.34</td>
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<tr>
<td>12-14 years</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>21.69</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>15.29</td>
<td>1.94</td>
</tr>
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Test Statistics

<table>
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<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<td></td>
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<td>0.10</td>
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<td></td>
<td>0.45</td>
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Table 6: Mean effect of Caste on different variables under study

<table>
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<th>Caste</th>
<th>Job pattern</th>
<th>Earning potentiality</th>
<th>Safety and Comfort aggregate</th>
<th>Schooling concern</th>
<th>Health and Hygiene concern</th>
<th>Awareness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>21.53</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>15.80</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schedule cast</td>
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<td>20.39</td>
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<td>14.19</td>
<td>2.26</td>
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<tr>
<td>Schedule tribe</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>22.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>2.50</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other backward classes</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>21.00</td>
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<td>11.50</td>
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<tr>
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Table 7: Mean effect of Religion on different variables under study

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<th>Religion</th>
<th>Job pattern</th>
<th>Earning potentiality</th>
<th>Safety and Comfort aggregate</th>
<th>Schooling concern</th>
<th>Health and Hygiene concern</th>
<th>Awareness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hindu</td>
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<td>20.70</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>14.70</td>
<td>2.14</td>
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<tr>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>21.47</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1137.00</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>1327.50</td>
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### Table 8: Mean effect of Education on different variables under study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Job pattern</th>
<th>Earning potentiality</th>
<th>Safety and Comfort aggregate</th>
<th>Schooling concern</th>
<th>Health and Hygiene concern</th>
<th>Awareness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Illiterate</td>
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<td>21.24</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>15.94</td>
<td>1.53</td>
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<tr>
<td>Can read only</td>
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<td>2.00</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>16.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Can read &amp; write</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>19.71</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>13.43</td>
<td>2.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>2.95</td>
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<td>20.55</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>14.48</td>
<td>2.26</td>
</tr>
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<td>Middle school</td>
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<td>3.33</td>
<td>15.90</td>
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<td>High school</td>
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<td>5.33</td>
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**Test Statistics**

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</table>

### Table 9: Mean effect of Family type on different variables under study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family type</th>
<th>Job pattern</th>
<th>Earning potentiality</th>
<th>Safety and Comfort aggregate</th>
<th>Schooling concern</th>
<th>Health and Hygiene concern</th>
<th>Awareness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nuclear family</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>21.28</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>14.97</td>
<td>2.40</td>
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<tr>
<td>Joint family</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>21.10</td>
<td>3.27</td>
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**Test Statistics**

<table>
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Table 10: Mean effect of Family size on different variables under study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family size</th>
<th>Job pattern</th>
<th>Earning potentiality</th>
<th>Safety and Comfort aggregate</th>
<th>Schooling concern</th>
<th>Health and Hygiene concern</th>
<th>Awareness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orphan</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nuclear family</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>21.28</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>14.97</td>
<td>2.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint family</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>21.10</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>15.63</td>
<td>1.86</td>
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Test Statistics

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<tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8.46</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Effect of independent variables on different dependent variables (illustrated in words)

Presence of owner

It was found that presence of owner had significant effect on the respondent’s earning potentiality, schooling concern, health and hygiene concern and awareness at 1% level of significance. But presence of owner has no significant effect on job pattern and safety and comfort aggregate.

The present study showed that presence of owner had more effect the respondent’s answer regarding earning potentiality and health and hygiene concern.

Residence

It was found that Residence had no significant effect on any dependent variables like Job pattern, earning potentiality, safety and comfort aggregate, schooling concern, health and hygiene concern and awareness.

Gender

It was found that gender has significant effect on awareness at 5 % level of significance. But gender had no significant effect on other dependent variables like job pattern, earning potentiality, safety and comfort aggregate, schooling concern and health and hygiene concern.

The present study showed that Female is more aware than male.

Age

It was found that age has significant effect on earning potentiality and safety and comfort aggregate at 5% level of significance. But age has no significant effect on job pattern, schooling concern, health and hygiene concern and awareness aggregate.

According to this study children belong to 12-14 years earn most followed by children belong to below 7 years and belong to 8-11 years. It was also found that children belong to age group 12-
14 years feel most safe and comfort followed by children belong to 8-11 years and children belong to below 7 years.

Caste

It was found that caste had significant effect on schooling concern at 1% and on health and hygiene concern at 5% level of significance. But it had no significant effect on job pattern, earning potentiality, safety and comfort aggregate and awareness.

According to the present study other backward classes were most schooling concern followed by Schedule tribe, Schedule caste and General caste. Schedule tribe was most health concern followed by General, Schedule caste and Other backward classes. (It must be said that the Muslim respondents were regarded as General in the present study.)

Education

It was found that education had significant effect on dependent variables like earning potentiality, safety and comfort aggregate and health and hygiene concern at 5% level of significance and schooling concern at 1% level of significance. But it had no significant effect on Job pattern and Awareness.

According to the present study children belonged to high school had most earning potentiality followed by illiterate, middle school children, children who can read and write, primary school children and children who can read only. High school children feel most safe and comfort followed by middle school children, illiterate, primary school children, children who can read only and children who can read and write. Regarding to schooling concern children who can read only were most concern followed by children who can read and write, primary school children, middle school children, high school children and illiterate. High school children are most health concern followed by children who can read only, illiterate, middle school children, primary school children and children who can read and write.

Religion

It was found that religion has no significant effect on earning potentiality, safety and comfort aggregate, health and hygiene concern and awareness. But religion had significant effect on job pattern and schooling concern at 5% level of significance.

According to the present study Muslims were more engaged in different job patterns than Hindus. But just contrary was shown regarding to schooling concern.

Family type

It was found that family type has significant effect only on schooling concern and awareness at 5% level of significance. But it had no significant effect on job pattern, earning potentiality, safety and comfort aggregate and health and hygiene concern.

Respondents belonged to nuclear family are most schooling concern followed by respondents belonged to joint family and orphan. The same trend was also shown regarding to awareness.
Family size

It was found that family size has significant effect only on schooling concern and awareness at 5% level of significance. But it had no significant effect on job pattern, earning potentiality, safety and comfort aggregate and health and hygiene concern.

Respondents belonged to nuclear family are most schooling concern followed by respondents belong to joint family and orphan. The same trend was also shown regarding to awareness

Summary and Conclusion

It has been observed and repeatedly stated in recent times that ‘child labor’ does not remain a mere means of economic exploitation but has become a necessity due to the economic needs of the parents and the child himself. To counter the real situation called child labor and save little humans from abuse at a tender age, the government should be compelled to provide compulsory and free education to all children up to the age of fourteen years. The working age limit for an individual should also be raised to allow consistent and full physical and mental growth for every individual. According to the present study, the main reasons of child labour are poverty and unemployment, urbanization, limited access to compulsory, free education. Existing laws or codes of conduct are often violated, inadequate laws and enforcement are often, repressed workers’ right, the global economy intensifies the effects of some factors. Study on determining the prevalence of child labour, estimating the no. of child labours employed in different sectors, examining the trend in employment of child labour, assessing and describing the nature of child labour needs to be undertaken for all sectors irrespective of rural and urban of West Bengal for further studies in future.

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