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ABSTRACT

This series of 34 one- to two-page essays provides brief descriptions of innovative approaches to various aspects of two-year college education. Included in the series are: "Debatable Learning," by Beti Thompson; "Mentors to the Rescue," by Cynthia A. Barnes; "How to Take Line Management Risks: Push Them Downward," by David P. Campbell; "Applying Basic Skills Concepts to the General Curriculum," by Donald J. Jung; "Teaching Small Business Management: Using Multiple Teaching Strategies," by William Dotson and Jean Names; "Playing Around with the Humanities," by Betty Jo Kramer; "Faculty Renewal: A Model for Professional Development," by Barrie J. Saxton; "Attacking the Skills Problem: A Useful Study Aid," by Peter Incardone; "Thirty-One Ideas for Initiating International Work," by J. Nick Eastmond; "An Alternative to Mid-Term Exams," by Donna A. Nickel; "Grade Expectations," by Trudy Drucker; "An Upper-Division Writing Course," by Robbins Burling; "The Professional: A Definition," by Joseph S. DiPietro; "The Instructor's Report Card," by Vernon A. Magnesen; "Teaching History in the Two-Year College: Some Current Challenges," by William F. Mugleston; "New Directions for Success," by Robert H. McCabe; "Teaching: Another Way of Loving," by Harold Whittington; "ESP in the Classroom," by Norman E. Tandy; "A Study of Honors Programs in Community Colleges," by Patricia M. McKeague and Christine M. White; "What I Did When... Excusing the Inexcusable," by Gary Budd; "Learning Strategies: The Flip-Side of Teaching Strategies," by Claire E. Weinstein; "Serving the Dislocated Worker," by James L. Lancaster; "Using Student Observers in the Classroom," by Diane Orlich Kuhlmann; "Learning to Read--In College," by Art Buchwald; "Application: Coaching Strategies in Oral Anatomy," by O. B. Rominger; "Teaching Thinking Skills," by David Perkins; "Passion and Pedagogy," by Bob Miller; "The History Journal: Writing-Across-the-Curriculum," by Martha J. Pierce; "Improving Qualitative Conduct: A Teacher's Perspective," by Bill Magill; "The Un-Committee," by Steve K. Mittelstet; "Teaching Accounting and Using Computers," by Thomas Vannaman; "Science Mastery: A Design for High-Risk Student Success," by Peggy McClure; "Thoughts and Actions on Student Retention," by John Weber; and "Testing: In Praise of Ambiguity," by Susan Parman. (LAL)

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SUANNE D. ROUECHE, EDITOR

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INNOVATION ABSTRACTS VOL. VII NO. 1

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DEBATABLE LEARNING

The lecture is a prevailing method of instruction on college campuses. Whether for convenience, tradition, and/or choice, the lecture continues to be popular among educators The lecture, however, is not altogether pleasing as an instructional technique. It is singularly one-sided and disturbing to those of us who subscribe to the philosophy that learning is a participatory process.

Faced with a large introductory class--characterized by bent heads, closed mouths, and pens constantly poised to take notes on my words of wisdom--I had a moment of enlightenment: the lecture was neither the most efficient nor the most effective means of transmitting knowledge. That belief led to experimentation with a variety of teaching techniques which were oriented toward actively involving students in the learning process. Among the various methods attempted, the "debate" emerged as one of my favorites.

Debate, as an instructional technique, is quite suitable for accomplishing many of the goals of higher education. It teaches students not only about the content of a topic, but also encourages them to do further research on the topic, to organize their thoughts, to think critically about a topic, to prepare arguments to substantiate a position, and to communicate clearly and forcefully. Students are invited to become active participants in the quest for knowledge rather than passive receivers. Indeed, it is continually amazing to me to see the extent to which most students become involved in presenting a good debate.

To utilize debate as an instructional tool does not require that students be familiar with "formal debate" and its attendant forms and nuances. The purpose of the classroom debate is to argue for or against a resolution or position by utilizing the best information available. Students can be taught the basics in a relatively short period of time. Setting up a classroom debate, however, requires some effort if the experience is to be satisfying for both students and instructor. The requisites for a successful debate, in my experience, include the following:

1. The debate must be structured.
2. The basic skills required must be reviewed.
3. Groups must be carefully selected.
4. Feedback is essential.

Structure

A successful classroom debate must be sufficiently structured so that students take the task seriously and have some guidance for the debate. This demands that students become familiar with the format of debate. A handout itemizing the resolution, the teams, the task, the logistics, and an evaluation procedure is an ideal way to provide the necessary structure.

The resolution should be stated rather specifically and should be written in such a way that the two opposing positions to be debated are immediately clear (e.g., "The United States government must continue to fund and support surveillance programs."). The parameters of the topic may be determined by the students after they initially research the topic. (In the above statement, for example, students must decide whether to address internal, external, covert, and/or overt surveillance.) Selecting the teams prior to the task allows the instructor control over the composition of the opposing groups (more about this later). A brief description of the task (i.e., convincing a referee of a position through examples, information, logic, etc.) will help the students plan their presentations. Inform the students of the logistics; that is, how much time will be allocated for preparation; how much time will be given to initial presentations, rebuttals, and summations; and how the debate will be monitored and evaluated. The evaluation process should be clearly specified. Generally a reinforcer (grades) provides a good motivation to participate.

Skills

Once the structure is outlined, students must become familiar with the basic skills required to present an argument. The first step is to acquaint the students with research techniques. The debates are organized around classroom readings; however, students are expected to find supplementary sources for their positions. A quick course in library research familiarizes students with potential avenues toward information.

Community College Leadership Program, The University of Texas at Austin, EDB 348, Austin, Texas 78712

Students will also require the skills to anticipate counter-arguments, organize notes, and communicate ideas. Many students have received some training in these skills as part of prior educational experiences, so that a short time spent giving examples and answering questions will hone those skills. Working together in groups also allows the dissemination of those skills among peers.

Groups

My first trial with the debate process ended in an embarrassingly clear victory for one team. Self-selection of teams appeared to be the problem. A better technique is to consciously select each team so that there is a diversity of skill, experience, and ability to communicate. Careful planning will encourage participation from the "quiet" students and break up any dominant cliques in the class. I prefer to allow the groups to choose their own presenters, though groups are encouraged to have as many people as possible contribute to the formal presentation.

Feedback

Feedback should be copious during the preparation stage. In class, the instructor may circulate and respond with critical questions to the discussions of the groups. During the formal debate, ongoing feedback is minimized so that the debate environment is realistic. Notes of logical flaws, omissions, strong and weak points, and successful and unsuccessful rebuttals should be kept for later reporting to the class. A written final evaluation should be given to each member of the class. Such an evaluation should include the instructor's perception of the "winner," the strengths and weaknesses of each team, and comments on the individual student's participation in the debate.

Experience with the classroom debate has uncovered some additional hints for a successful learning experience. The time frame appears to be fairly important. Too much prior notice is intimidating as at least some students will feel obliged to review everything ever written about a topic. Too little time results in an ill-prepared and fragmented debate. I like to assign the major reading(s) without informing the class of the upcoming debate. On the day the reading is to be completed, the structure of the debate is given and the final debate is scheduled to be held a week later. Two class sessions prior to the debate, an in-class preparation hour is held and extended to the next session if necessary. (It appears as though more time than allotted is always required for preparation. Students, however, are usually sufficiently motivated that they will meet and prepare for the debate outside of class time.)

The debate should always be followed by an oral debriefing, as well as a written evaluation. In addition to identifying strengths and weaknesses, the instructor can use that time to integrate the debate experience with other ideas and materials which are pertinent to the class. Individual kudos are much appreciated by the participants, especially when those "behind the scenes" are also recognized.

Finally, the instructor must establish the legitimacy of the debate as a learning technique. If the instructor is serious about the task, the students are likely to put more energy into the entire process.

Debate is ideal for pointing out the complexity of topics, and such complexity becomes apparent to students as they explore potential arguments on both sides of an issue. The insight that "there are no easy answers" comes more readily from the debate process than it does from standard lectures. The use of the debate, as well as other participatory learning methods, has not totally eliminated the lecture from my repertoire, but has greatly reduced dependence on that particular teaching technique. The consequences have been pleasing. Students appear to be better able to integrate ideas, communicate ideas, and understand main concepts as a result of such active involvement in learning. As one student commented, "I never imagined there were so many aspects to [the topic] until we got involved in the debate . . . I learned a lot." And that, to me, is the major objective of this enterprise.

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Suanne D. Roueche, Editor
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INNOVATION ABSTRACTS VOL. VII NO. 2

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MENTORS TO THE RESCUE

The Community College of Aurora (CCA) is a unique institution. A college without walls--or non-campus college--CCA offers day, evening, and weekend classes at eight different sites throughout its service area. Five full-time instructors/coordinators, one for each major discipline, and a cadre of lead teachers supervise the work of over 120 part-time faculty members. While part-time instructors usually have years of "hands-on," practical expertise, employing a predominately part-time instructional staff creates myriad challenges for those who monitor program continuity and instructional quality control.

More than half of the part-time instructors at CCA have some teaching experience. However, most of this experience has not been in community college environments and little, if any, in non-campus settings. So new part-time faculty find themselves faced with several "firsts"--teaching adults, working in a non-campus setting, and handling the diversity of the community college clientele.

Enter the Faculty Mentor Program. A mentor--in Greek mythology, Odysseus' counselor--is defined as a "wise and trusted teacher." A mentor has an apprentice, who is a beginner and a learner. These two individuals form a symbiotic relationship: a collaborative alliance structured to facilitate professional growth for both. The Faculty Mentor Program consists of eight steps:

Step One--Mentor/Apprentice Selection and Orientation

A cadre of mentors is selected. Usually, full-time instructors/coordinators or part-time lead teachers (experienced part-time faculty assigned to oversee a particular course or discipline) act as mentors.

Effective mentors must have all of these characteristics of successful teachers:

1. a desire to teach and help others grow
2. an ability to assess performance, establish objectives for skill improvement, and develop strategies for mastering these objectives
3. a mastery of sound oral/written communication skills
4. an ability to establish a rapport with others
5. a record of teaching success, as evidenced by positive peer and student evaluations
6. a demonstrated knowledge of effective instructional methods and activities
7. an ability to organize and plan effectively.

In addition, a mentor must have (1) a desire to participate in the Program, (2) the time needed to cultivate a mentor relationship, and (3) the ability to garner confidence and respect and use these investitures to motivate, counsel, and influence the behavior of peers.

Once mentors have been selected, they attend an orientation session to acquaint them with the philosophy and procedures of the Program and the backgrounds of their assigned apprentices.

A mentor is assigned to each new part-time instructor. Instructors/coordinators and lead teachers mentor the apprentices in their own disciplines. Apprentices--who are told about the Mentor Program during a new faculty orientation session held before each semester--are sent Mentor Program Orientation materials and the names of their mentors.

Step Two--Initial Apprentice Observation

Within the first three weeks of the semester, the mentor contacts his/her apprentice and arranges a time to observe the apprentice's class. The Classroom Observation Data sheet is used to evaluate apprentice performance in a number of areas, including (1) preparation, (2) clarity of objectives, (3) instructional materials and activities, and (4) rapport with students.

Based on the mentor's evaluation of the apprentice's classroom performance (as outlined on a Classroom Observation Data sheet), the mentor decides whether continued participation in the Program would be benefi-

cial. In other words, if the apprentice provides his/her students with clear objectives and an organized presentation, delivered through effective teaching methods and activities, the apprentice can be terminated at this point from the Mentor Program. The mentor discusses his/her observations with the apprentice.

If the mentor decides that the new instructor should continue in the Program, the Observation Data sheet is used to help the mentor identify the new instructor's strengths and weaknesses. An action plan, including suggestions for improvement and tips on teaching methods, is developed. Specific objectives for enhancing classroom performance are outlined and discussed.

Step Three--Apprentice Visit to Mentor Classroom

Between the third and seventh weeks of the semester, the apprentice observes his/her mentor's classroom. This provides the apprentice with an opportunity to observe an experienced peer and to note behaviors, methods, or activities that the apprentice could use in his/her classroom. The pair also discusses what progress the new instructor is making toward accomplishing the objectives outlined in Step Two.

Step Four--Ongoing Collaboration

The mentor and his/her apprentice stay in touch throughout the semester to discuss progress, questions, and/or problems. These discussions often identify specific faculty development needs which are shared with the Faculty Development Specialist in the Office of Academic Affairs.

Step Five--Follow-up Apprentice Observation

In the ninth or tenth week of the semester, the mentor conducts a follow-up observation of his apprentice's class. In this observation, the mentor assesses the status of those weaknesses identified in the initial observation

Step Six--Mentor Summary

The mentor is required to submit, by the last week of the semester, a final written summary of the mentor relationship and process. In this summary, the mentor recommends whether the apprentice should be continued in the Program for another semester or should be on his/her own. (Thus far, no apprentices have participated in the Program for more than one semester.)

Step Seven--Apprentice Summary

Each apprentice completes an evaluation form which outlines his/her assessment of the Program's effectiveness.

Step Eight--Final Review

The Assistant Dean of Instruction and the Faculty Development Specialist review all mentor and apprentice summaries. Suggestions for Program improvement are recorded, and practical suggestions are subsequently implemented. These summaries, in conjunction with the Observation Data sheets, document Program outcomes. Thus far, Program evaluations, by both mentors and apprentices, strongly support the continuation of this staff development activity.

The CCA Faculty Mentor Program, implemented in August of 1982, has fostered constructive, creative alliances between faculty members and has helped to sustain and retain new part-time faculty members. The Mentor Program has nourished the part-time faculty's commitment to the work of the College and has helped instructors/coordinators and lead teachers monitor instructional quality.

When new part-time faculty members need assistance, the Community College of Aurora sends mentors "to the rescue."

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Suanne D. Roueche, Editor
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HOW TO TAKE LINE MANAGEMENT RISKS: PUSH THEM DOWNWARD

One common feature of training courses on entrepreneurialism, creative management, or innovative problem solving is an emphasis on risk-taking. It is easy to demonstrate from history that the status quo can be deadly. We can invoke buggy whip, iron lung, or slide rule manufacturers, and thus argue that the organization seeking renewal needs to venture into new territory where the outcome can never be certain; that is, it needs to take risks.

Without risks, the theory goes, there can be no dramatic progress.

Further evidence of the generality of this phenomenon—progress through risks—comes from the research on innovative people; they are indeed risk-takers, they stand out from the pack in being willing to try something new, and they are resilient in the face of failure.

Along with this economic and social science evidence, we have the collective wisdom of well-worn proverbs:

Nothing ventured, nothing gained.
Faint heart never won fair lady.
Behold the turtle; he makes progress only when he sticks his neck out.

However, as with so many other good theories, putting a risk-taking approach into practice produces a significant quandary, which is: If you take big enough risks often enough, sooner or later you will fail, and the consequent fallout may be painful, humiliating, disastrous, perhaps even lethal.

Risk-taking can be particularly dangerous within an organization that has a low tolerance for failure, which, in the perception of most of the people within them, includes most large corporations and government agencies. If the organization cannot tolerate failure, then taking risks is stupid, especially as virtually all organizations do tolerate mediocrity. For the short run, mediocrity is much safer than innovativeness. Nothing ventured, nothing lost.

Let me suggest a way of looking at risk-taking that makes sense in a management environment, a strategy that can produce the benefits of risk-taking without risking a whacking disaster.

For purposes of illustration, let me use an example from your own financial life. Get a number in your head that represents the amount of money that you can personally afford to lose on some new imaginative investment—a hot stock tip, or leasing supermarket shopping carts, or some such—where the loss would neither affect your standard of living by creating a vacuum in your monthly cash flow, nor lower your sense of self-esteem by making you feel incompetent.

The number might be $50, $500, or $5000, or $50,000, though it has been my experience that even people who can afford to lose $50,000 feel stupid doing so—which may tell you more about my acquaintances than it does about the psychology of high rollers.

Anyway, get a dollar amount in your head that you could afford to lose without disastrous results.

Now here is the quandary. That number is so modest relative to your life style that winning that amount is not going to make much of a positive difference in your life any more than losing it would make a negative difference. If you can afford to lose it, then winning by doubling it, even tripling or quadrupling it, is not going to greatly affect your life style or self-esteem either.

The quandary is that winning the risks that you can afford to take is not sufficient to produce much excitement in your life or by extension, in your organization.

However, let's consider what would happen if you would delegate that amount of risk downward. Let one of your children, perhaps a teenager interested in the stock market or in old coins, invest that amount of money in a project while you provide the protective umbrella.

If they win that amount, it will be a really big deal for them, expanding their resources notably and building their self-esteem. With a success or two of that magnitude behind them, they can then ratchet themselves

up the scale of risk-taking, biting off slightly more each time, with you continuing to provide the protective umbrella.

The analogy holds for the managerial world: You can let—indeed encourage—your subordinates to take risks greater than they could personally afford to take without your backing. If they succeed, they will have moved up a step in their development and will have produced more resources for you to work with; if they fail, it will be on a modest scale where you will be able to cover their losses, both financially and psychologically.

If you have several subordinates, each working at a level appropriate to them and manageable by you, your odds of one of them hitting it big are improved.

Of course, the first time you allow a subordinate to take a risk and then don't support them if they fail, your credibility is gone forever. Tolerating failure means just that—tolerating failure.

The alternative to this strategy is either to take all the risks yourself, which is dangerous because sooner or later you are going to lose one, or to insist upon only sure bets within your span of control, an even more dangerous stance over the long run given the pace of change currently challenging all organizations.

Adopting this strategy of pushing the risks downward in an organization means that, at every level, people can be taking risks that are meaningful to them in size, yet not potentially disruptive to the organization because the people above them are providing the umbrella.

Curiously—again from my personal experience—many organizations operate exactly backward from this strategy; the risks get dragged upward. Managers not only will not allow their subordinates to take risks that they, the managers, can afford to lose; they will not even let the subordinates take risks that they, the subordinates, can afford to lose. The thought of loss of any size is seen as such an obvious failure that "the people upstairs" prohibit even moderate risks.

Perhaps that is true for you, too. How would you feel if your teenage child dropped $100 in trading for a rare stamp that turned out to be bogus? Teenagers today can survive such a loss, and you certainly can, but your first inclination might well be to chastise your child for stupidity.

Pursuing this strategy of pushing the risks down in either your family or your organization insures that you are going to be continually surrounded by experimental projects, any one of which could go awry and cause you mild embarrassment. But you also should be in a place to constantly observe a series of small wins that will ultimately be the source of new, invigorating ideas for your organization's future.

You do not have to do this, of course; you can play it safe, which may be the biggest risk you will ever take.

David P. Campbell
Smith Richardson Senior Fellow

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INNOVATION ABSTRACTS VOL. VII NO. 4

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APPLYING BASIC SKILLS CONCEPTS TO THE GENERAL CURRICULUM

The Castleton FIPSE project is a faculty development program in which faculty from traditional liberal arts disciplines are instructed by faculty colleagues in the teaching of basic skills. This instructional experience, in which Castleton faculty are matched in a mentor-colleague relationship with other Castleton faculty, emphasizes an individualized learner-centered approach to skills development. Newly instructed faculty not only teach in the basic skills program as part of their normal teaching load, but also serve as catalysts for curricular change. Within their respective departments they use their expertise to revise required general education courses so that fundamental linguistic and computational concepts introduced in the basic skills classes are systematically reinforced across the general education curriculum, resulting in a completed cycle.

Volunteer Faculty

The faculty who volunteer in the Castleton project represent a true cross-section of the liberal arts professoriate. They range in rank from instructors to full professors and represent such disciplines as Theatre Arts, Philosophy, Spanish, Music, Geography, and French. In the initial phase of the project, faculty mentors were professors from the Departments of English, Education and Mathematics, all experienced in the teaching of basic skills.

The Basic Skills Program

My own involvement with Castleton's basic skills program has been in the basic writing component, an instructor-intensive experience for the student. Small classes of eight to twelve students are divided into writing groups which practice prewriting as a problem-solving approach to topic selection, structure and development, organizational possibilities, and arrangement of ideas. Following Macrorie, the basic writing course emphasizes free writing as a procedure to assist the student in discovering and recording topics which he can develop into cogent structures. Considerable attention is devoted to editing the student's work. Writing groups edit both orally and in writing, and the students use this editing process as a method of self-discovery and self-improvement.

The instructors are active participants in the editing process, involving themselves in the work of the group and particularly in one-on-one sessions with the student Simulation exercises are frequent, assisting the student in developing analytical, research, and writing skills. Thus, much of the emphasis in the basic writing is on collaborative learning, a process which builds on the strengths of the group while motivating the individual and building his self-esteem. The instructor provides a framework for this collaborative learning and contributes to it directly and indirectly.

Curricula Revisions

Faculty who have been instructed in basic skills teaching and who have taught a developmental section or two are now turning their attention to revising curricula in the liberal arts/general education areas so as to reinforce specific basic skills concepts learned in their mentor-colleague experience. My own experience provides an illustration of this integration of basic skills concepts into the curricula. As a result of my instruction, I have made a number of changes in my Introduction to Theatre Arts course.

This course is offered as an option in the Fine Arts area of the general education core curriculum. The standard text is segmented and easily lends itself to incremental testing. Previous to my instruction in basic skills teaching, my examinations utilized the objective, short answer format. Now, however, this objective ap-

proach to testing has been revised in favor of one or two essay question tests. As a result of this single format change, more particularly my integration of the ideas of organizational possibilities and arrangement of ideas, there has been a marked improvement in the quality of student writing as well as a comparable improvement in the content of their essays. The time required to make personal comments on writing deficiencies and positive suggestions for improvement has proven to be time well spent.

Another technique which has proven particularly successful with both the basic skills writing students and students in Introduction to Theatre is my demonstration that, although I am not a composition teacher by trade, the ways of the "real" world demand precisely those skills normally expected of the composition teacher. Encouraging students to build on strengths in their writing and fostering their positive self-esteem serve ideally to reinforce important basic skills concepts. For example, students usually experience difficulty with editing their essay tests (often giving little more than a quick look-over before handing them in, if time permits); instructor's suggestions for editing can easily be noted on these tests and serve students well on future exams.

Conclusion

Having viewed the inside of college writing through my exposure to basic skills teaching, I am convinced that the entire curriculum should be demanding competent writing—and demonstration of basic skills development—from our students. We should cease placing all the blame for the inadequacies of student writing on the failure of composition teachers. Instead, the burden of responsibility should be on all of us in the liberal arts

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TEACHING SMALL BUSINESS MANAGEMENT: USING MULTIPLE TEACHING STRATEGIES

Small businesses are starting and failing by the thousands every year. Are we also failing as educators and educational institutions by not providing that segment of our society with management skills and attitudes that could help them be successful? The three-year, non-credit Small Business Management (SBM) program at Lane Community College (LCC) offers the benefits of instruction in business management to small business owners.

The Small Business Management Program

The SBM program is characterized by: (1) limited enrollment, (2) topics of instruction formulated with student input and aimed at the accomplishment of business and personal goals, (3) monthly visits by the instructor to each student/owner's business, (4) classroom instruction once each month, and (5) analysis of each student's business operation and application of that information to improve its management and organization. Program instructors recognize the entrepreneurial traits of small business owners and implement teaching approaches that are consistently results-oriented.

Course information and materials are disseminated through: (1) class lectures, case studies, small group discussions, and demonstrations; (2) one-on-one instruction at the student's business: (3) the business library's books, periodicals, journals, and videotapes; (4) individual and group instruction on computers in the small business computer center; (5) hands-on experience with a portable computer, taken by the instructor to each student's business at the time of the on-site visit; (6) monthly, quarterly, and/or year-end business computer analyses; and (7) interaction among business owners in SBM classes.

Classroom Instruction

The instruction in SBM classes must be innovative and flexible to meet the changing business environment and structured to give immediate feedback. This unique business and education partnership relies heavily on successfully combining traditional instructional strategies with contemporary technology.

A number of traditional methods of instruction are used to convey management material to small business owners—for example, lecture, case study, small group discussion, and demonstration. A typical class session might include a lecture on employer-employee relations, followed by student/business owners working in small groups on a related case study and then demonstrating the skills and/or attitudes necessary for a response to the case study material. Using a lively combination of instructional methods builds in activity and student motivation which, in turn, helps stimulate a business owner who must work all day and then attend a three-hour class session.

On-Site Instruction

The one-on-one instruction at the business site is the key to the program's focus on individualized learning. Each business owner has special problems that may pertain only to his/her specific business interests. Therefore, the instructor's visit to the business site is the best opportunity for discussion of individual questions specific to that student.

As well, classroom instruction is amplified and personalized in site visit discussions. For example, if employer-employee relations is taught in class, the subject is one topic of discussion at the next site visit. The instructor's role is one of asking questions, listening, guiding, and reinforcing. The instructor might ask a question about employee morale, listen to the answer, and then guide the business owner toward the development of a solution—all the while reinforcing the appropriate behaviors, helping evaluate and praising the plan for future improvements.

Instruction at the business site is an opportunity to develop or reinforce new skills and attitudes. When interest in course content has been stimulated, the student is referred to other available instructional resources and encouraged to continue the inquiry and solution development process.

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Additional Instructional Opportunities

The opportunity for additional individualized learning activities is excellent. The student/owner may use the business library at the LCC Downtown Center and have access to books, periodicals, and journals, Small Business Administration materials, videotapes, and other business aids, as well as computers in the small business computer center. As a follow-up to the class instruction and the site visit, the student may choose to view a specific videotape on the current instructional topic and/or check out books or other materials for at-home study. Obviously, with this design, it is absolutely imperative that the instructor and college are up to date on contemporary technology and its applications in the business world!

The use of the microcomputer as a teaching device in working with small business owners is unlimited. However, at this time in the SBM program, microcomputers are used primarily for working with financial information. The instructor takes a portable computer to the monthly site visits. And, for example, during the visit the student/owner and instructor may input information that will demonstrate the effects of a three percent decrease in cost of sales and emphasize the importance of keeping good records to correctly analyze costs of doing business.

A major component of the SBM program is instruction in preparing and understanding financial statements. The use of the monthly, quarterly, and/or year-end computer analyses is important in teaching business owners the importance of ratios and their use in decision-making. The financial information becomes a pivotal point in the interrelationship among all areas of business management.

Another significant program component is the opportunity to learn from other business owners. Once trust has been established among the participants in the program, sharing becomes a common feature of each class session. In the employer-employee relations class, for example, each student shares various experiences about his/her employees and describes the responses to these different situations. There is no effort to seek agreement, but there is an effort to look closely at different methods for handling the more commonplace situations. Moreover, these students learn to feel comfortable calling the other students/owners for special help and feedback when, for example, they experience particularly perplexing problems with employees.

A real feeling of the community is developed within the group; they want to help each other build successful businesses. As a rule, individuals who are in direct competition with each other in the business world are never allowed to enroll in the same class. However, if in consultation with the instructor they agree that they are able to put aside the natural competitive behavior and commit themselves to maintaining the all-important supportive instructional environment, the rule is set aside.

Small business is an important part of our economy. Business owners deserve an educational environment that is practical and is relevant to their needs. The Small Business Management program at LCC has been helping business owners successfully for eight years and has proven that education and business can be a good combination.

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Suanne D. Roueche, Editor
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PLAYING AROUND WITH THE HUMANITIES

This is a confession: I always hated playing games. Fortunately, the ivy league universities which I attended encouraged the professors to lecture and to develop theories without recourse to fancy games in the classroom. My model professor was a particularly inaccessible and aloof lecturer. I was getting quite good at this role until I accepted a short-term faculty position at a small community college in Arizona. To my astonishment, my usual style of rarefied, if impassioned, lectures in the Humanities engendered considerable disinterest among the community college students. I confided my frustration to my husband, a filmmaker, who must have said something like: "The students don't seem to 'see' the social dynamics. Why can't we get them to 'act' it out for themselves?" I reluctantly agreed to the collaborative development of an educational game.

Our effort resulted in "The Renaissance Game" which we hoped would illuminate the conditions which transformed western European society. In preparation for the game, I wrote very brief descriptions about the responsibilities and lifestyles of various medieval social categories, such as nobles, clergy, troubadours, peasants, alchemists, astrologers, and craftsmen. In class, students were divided into small groups, assigned a category, given the appropriate description to read, and told to discuss what their daily lives, sorrows, and joys might have been in the late 13th century. We circulated among the groups, encouraging them to verbalize their ideas and subtly preparing them for the next stages of the game.

When the students felt comfortable with their roles, we called them together and asked each group to describe its lifestyle. One of the students panicked and fell back on reading the prepared statement. Nevertheless, an undercurrent of solidarity emerged between the "clergy" and the "nobles." An incidental event made the game realistic. One of the "peasants" got up to make a phone call, and a "noble" called for his arrest. There were discontented rumblings from the "peasants" and "craftsmen," but somehow the change for the phone call ended up in the palm of the "clergy" as tithing.

The stage was now set. We asked a "troubadour" how he felt about having the greatest tale in the world and knowing it would have only a limited audience. Then we asked him what he thought of the new technology for a printing press. While he retired from the game to write an epic in the vernacular, the "peasants" began to grumble that they would never be able to read it anyway. The "clergy" told them to put their minds at rest and offered to interpret anything that was important. We asked an "alchemist" and an "astrologer" to discuss the new technologies to observe earthly and astronomical phenomena. They got huffy and insisted that prediction was an art, not a science. The "nobles," who were not expecting the Black Plague, tried to run the "alchemists" out of town. The "peasant" who, in the meantime, had been trying to scrape up more change for his phone call, decided to invest in a piece of property, the owners of which had succumbed to plague. "Who says he can do that?" asked a "noble." One of the "craftsmen," now turned entrepreneur, explained how a money system works, set up a bank, and was elected councilman by a majority vote. The "clergy" immediately opened up a bank account.

The instructor's playing role in "The Renaissance Game" was to introduce dynamic elements, such as the changing economy, demography, or technology, and to tantalize students to discover the implications. Because the students were able to relate to the idea of real people with genuine concerns, fears, and opportunities, the Renaissance came alive. Students readily handled the more abstract concepts—that social forces may affect people s lives and that these forces are comprehensible. After that game experience, the students participated more effectively in class discussions and began to apply their intuition and knowledge to new information.

After that initial success, I created games each time the students seemed to lose touch with the course material. "The Philosophy Game" helped to enrich their understanding of 17th and 18th century philosophers and writers. Before playing the game, students were asked to review brief summaries which I had written about each philosophy. We drew our chairs into a circle, and each student received a name plaque: Rousseau, Voltaire, Hobbes, Locke, Spinoza, Leibniz, Goethe, Swift, Descartes, etc. With the cast of characters assembled, the students and I took turns posing questions and evaluating the responses. Extremely abstract questions—such

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as, "What is man's essential nature?"—failed to provoke sufficient enthusiasm. However, concrete ethical dilemmae—such as, "What would you do if a person was falsely imprisoned?"—led to a lively debate.

After each question was discussed, we passed the name plaques to other students so that everyone had an opportunity to represent several philosophies. During the discussion, the prepared summary was essential to refresh students' memories and to prompt students who felt more comfortable reading a prepared statement. Occasionally, students needed to be reminded to stay in character when responding to a question, but almost as frequently "Voltaire" and "Rousseau" needed to be cautioned against coming to blows over their disagreements.

"The Philosophy Game" was the most effective in stimulating students to analyze both course material and their own lives. Student interest was demonstrated by their topical choices for term papers and in topics discussed during the final review session. The students also commented that the game clearly defined distinct ideas, so they felt better prepared for exams.

I soon found that I could use games to convey (read: protect, if you must) my own sensitivities. Hearing that students in another Humanities section had described Ibsen's Hedda Gabler as "a bitch and a slut," I was determined to demonstrate the notion of social tragedy, lest any of my students slander one of my childhood's few female role models. "The Hedda Gabler Game" simply asked students to create discussions between Hedda and her husband. The first discussion was to take place in their parlour during the late 19th century, the second discussion was to take place in our town during the late 20th century, and the third discussion was to take place on a space station in the 23rd century. Although the game only called for six active players, the entire class fully participated in analyzing why these three couples seemed so very different. The game facilitated an exploration of contemporary, as well as 19th century, concepts about human equality. Questions about personal freedom in any society naturally arose from the discussion.

The most ambitious game I created was "The Greek Drama Game" which would be used to demonstrate the transformation of artistic and social ideas. After lecturing on the Athenian *polis* and Greek dramatic forms, I asked students to create a Greek drama based on recent news events.

Class was divided into (1) players who reenacted an event, (2) the chorus which commented on the background of the story, the unfolding elements, and the moral message, and (3) the audience which thoroughly discussed the presentation. This game was successful in making students aware of the Greek forms in contrast to later neo-Classical revivals. This game relied heavily on students performing without intervention from the instructor, and that proved to be its weakness. Without the instructor to overtly guide the play, the students were hesitant to respond in the game format.

All of the games allowed the students to manipulate ideas and gave them an opportunity to contribute to the class in unexpected ways. Applying their own imaginations, intuitions, and insights enhanced the educational experience. Furthermore, the games challenged some students to use more mature thinking and learning styles. The games concept can be tailored to enrich most of the course material in introductory Humanities courses.

For those who might want to "play around" with the idea, let me offer three suggestions. The first is from the students: give the class warning and specific assignments in preparation for a game. The second two are from me. First, the instructor's role in any game should include inherent leadership and should be structured as part of the teaching process. Second, any supplementary material that you prepare for a game should be educational and ensure full participation and smooth [illegible]

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FACULTY RENEWAL: A MODEL FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Community college teaching is an attractive occupation; consequently, staff turnover is low. At Humber College, Toronto, Ontario, there are 545 full-time faculty, of whom 256 (47%) have been employed at the college for 10 years or more. A major concern in the professional/vocational areas is that faculty who have been out of the mainstream of their professions for too long soon become redundant. The implications of this redundancy are the potential for: (a) students being inadequately prepared for the job market, (b) employer dissatisfaction with graduates, and (c) the undermining of program and college credibility. In order to address the issue of faculty relevance, an innovative professional development program was introduced in 1980, involving the faculty of the Applied Arts Division at Humber College.

The Model

The original concept was initiated by Dean Richard Hook. His division consisted of 38 full-time faculty teaching in 15 programs, ranging from Early Childhood Education to Arena Management. Given the variables of a broad mix of programs, faculty of different ages and stages in their tenure at the College, and the wide variance of professional and academic backgrounds of the faculty, it was apparent that the old format of on-campus seminars would not address the current professional needs of the staff. A unique program was required; and as a result, the following philosophy and guidelines were articulated as a framework from which to design a professional development plan.

The stated philosophy was to establish a mutually acceptable professional development program with each participating full-time faculty member. The plan required the faculty member to engage in an experiential professional development activity for a minimum of two months during a three-year period, commencing May, 1980. The objective was to provide a period of time during the working year for staff to pursue a meaningful learning experience in a practical manner.

The guidelines were as follows:

1. May and June were preferred for this professional development activity because faculty were still working during these months; but for the majority, teaching responsibilities finished at the end of April.
2. The plan did not require faculty to do a two-month "block" project. In other words, the two-months' activity could be spread out over three years at the discretion of the individual.
3. The emphasis was to be on increasing the individual's level of competence in his or her own profession.
4. The plan was to allow faculty time, not only to keep abreast, but to expand their professional expertise.
5. Some flexibility was allowed in terms of individual activities. For example, faculty who had recently come from their professions may still have been involved in the professional development program for new staff.

Implementation

Initially, a short meeting was held with the individual faculty member, and the philosophy and parameters were explained. At this stage, any doubts or questions about the process were addressed before discussing what the content of the individual's plan might be. As well, the time factor was an issue to be discussed in view of other commitments during the May/June period. These commitments by faculty varied significantly, depending on the program. At the end of the first interview, faculty were asked to spend a few days thinking and reflecting on identifying areas where they could upgrade themselves, learn new skills, and generally strengthen their ability to deliver the highest quality of education within their courses.

A second interview was then arranged to crystalize the notions of what they perceived to be appropriate learnings. The next step in the process was to decide which learnings were priorities and in what order they should be approached. When the teacher was quite clear in his mind what he wanted to do and when he wanted to do it, a learning contract was drawn. The learning contract stated the teacher's name and program, a list of learning objectives, the method of achieving those objectives, and estimated target dates or time frame required. After the contract was typed, it was given to the faculty member to read and change, if he wished. Provided everything was satisfactory, he would sign the contract; then his respective supervisor (Chairman or Senior Program Coordinator) would sign, and each would keep a copy. Some teachers decided to do eight weeks' renewal during the first year; and others decided to spread the time out, making a short-term commit-

Community College Leadership Program, The University of Texas at Austin, EDB 348, Austin, Texas 78712

ment of a few weeks in the first year and saving the remainder for the second and third years of the plan. The latter approach, in my opinion, had a great deal of merit given the ever-changing technology in the workplace. Obviously, all staff members could not participate during the first year. There were still many jobs to be done during May and June in preparation for the next academic year, and so some staff delayed commencement of their professional development programs until May, 1981.

At the beginning of May, 1980, all the completed learning contracts were given to Dean Hook, signifying that the renewal program had become operational. The follow-up was an annual review of contracts by the faculty member with his immediate supervisor to discuss progress and any changes. Ultimately, at the end of three years, a new contract was to be drawn between those parties.

In summary, then, the model was an individualized learning program, based on the concepts of self-directed learning. Each faculty member had a learning contract which he had helped prepare, had agreed to and signed as a commitment to pursue stated learning objectives. Some excerpts from faculty contracts are:

Mr. A. Travel and Tourism Program—to update on procedures and fare structure in transatlantic and transpacific travel by working in British Airways tariffs department for one week.

Mrs. S. Ski Arena Management Program—to learn about the use of computers in ski area accounting and snowmaking by returning to the workplace in conjunction with taking a computer course.

Ms. M. Equine Studies Program—to learn the skills of horseshoeing, e.g. pulling, trimming, nailing and foot preparation by taking a blacksmithing course at a sister college.

Mr. K. Landscape Technology Program—to update skills in relation to landscape construction techniques by working for one month doing "hands on" work with A.T. Landscaping Co.

Evaluation and Outcomes

In August, 1984, a follow-up study of the renewal program was conducted to evaluate its usefulness. After reviewing the results of a survey conducted of more than half the faculty who had completed the program, it was determined that evaluation data substantiated the following outcome statements:

1. College faculty who have had previous work experience are capable of planning realistic professional goals for themselves.
2. It is essential that teachers of the professional/vocational subjects take the time to keep abreast with changes in their fields in order to maintain currency in their professions.
3. The "renewal model" of professional development programs provides an opportunity for faculty to expand their professional skill and knowledge.
4. Faculty feel very comfortable with a self-directed learning process in their professional development pursuits.
5. Faculty feel motivated to learn in a self-directed learning program.
6. Generally speaking, faculty prefer an individual professional development program as opposed to group activity, particularly in the vocational areas.
7. The "renewal model" is perceived by faculty as a very worthwhile method of pursuing professional development.
8. The "renewal model" of professional development programs is not a very effective way to learn pedagogical skills.

The Renewal Model has subsequently been adopted into other divisions of Humber College and is enjoying considerable success. However, I hasten to add that this is only one segment of a large staff development program which exists and is given strong support by the administration at this College.

In summary, the most important function in any College is the teaching/learning process. It follows, therefore, that in order to maintain the highest quality of education, teachers must be allowed time to keep abreast of advances in their particular professions.

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ATTACKING THE SKILLS PROBLEM: A USEFUL STUDY AID

The increase in numbers of students experiencing reading, writing, and studying difficulties is obvious. One major cause of these difficulties is student lack of essential study, organizational, and work habits. Contemporary research documents a close relationship between a learner's reading and writing patterns; therefore, it stands to reason that instructional emphasis should be placed on *both* methods of learning—verbal and written communication.

A Study Aids Sheet

One method by which college instructors can help learners to read better, write more effectively, and take more comprehensive notes (which in turn will improve study habits) is to require student use of a special study aids sheet. This sheet—with proper supervision—assists students in better retention of conceptual information, key facts/data, and important vocabulary.

Spiral, lined notebooks or blank, loose-leaf note folders—most commonly used by college students today—offer no direction to the reader/writer. However, this specifically designed study guide sheet emphasizes the role that critical reading information plays in learning; at the same time, it visually depicts the interrelationships between main ideas, factual information, and vocabulary—three key elements in the reading, writing, and studying processes. In effect, these study aids sheets become a substitute for an ordinary college notebook.

An Important Introduction

At the beginning of the course, the instructor gives each class member a number of blank copies of the study sheet. Then, in several carefully planned, brief lectures on basic course content, the instructor verbally provides direction for the appropriate placement of essential information and notes on the sheet—significant conceptual matter in the upper section and key factual information/terminology in the lower two sections. Chalkboard instruction in using the study sheet serves to visually demonstrate the learning strategy for students. In addition, students are instructed to record the pertinent course information—names of texts (course and reference), exam dates, study assignments, etc.—in the designated spaces for easy reference. Students are advised to keep all notes by chapter or by lecture titles and in chronological order so that using them in preparing for exams is facilitated. Finally, it is suggested that when a sheet is filled with information, students may either write on the back side or use additional sheets.

Evaluation

Those of us who have used this study aids sheet in our classes have found it to be a most effective teaching tool. Gradually, students begin to see differences between significant and less important information. They learn to discriminate between main ideas and small, but critical, facts.

This study aids sheet appears on the reverse side of this *Abstracts*.

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Assistant Professor

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Community College Leadership Program, The University of Texas at Austin, EDB 348, Austin, Texas 78712

STUDY AIDS SHEET

COURSE _____ RELATED READINGS _____

INSTRUCTOR _____ FUTURE EXAMINATIONS/ OR QUIZZES _____

LECTURE TOPIC _____ HOME STUDY ASSIGNMENTS _____

TEXT TITLE _____ DATE _____

KEY CONCEPTS, MAIN IDEAS, GENERALIZATIONS OF CHAPTER, PASSAGE, LECTURE, FILM

KEY VOCABULARY AND TERMS

	Word	Syllabication	Definition
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			
6.			
7.			
8.			

CRITICAL FACTS, DATA

Use Back of Sheet for Additional Space/Get Additional Sheets

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THIRTY-ONE IDEAS FOR INITIATING INTERNATIONAL WORK

1. **Maintain your own personal network** of overseas contact people. Stay in touch by letter or at times by phone. Work through these people contacts.
2. **Join the international division** of a professional organization to which you now belong (e.g., PODCAN, AERA, ASTD, or AECT international divisions).
3. **Scan journals** for expressed and latent needs for overseas work.
4. **Be aware of local proposals** with international potential, and volunteer to assist.
5. **Write a paper for an international conference.** Deliver it in person.
6. **Search out the international programs office** on your own campus. Explain your interest to the Director. Provide background information for their files.
7. **Send an application and/or a resumé** to international organizations (e.g., FAD, UNESCO, USAID).
8. **Meet with counterparts in international organizations.** Find a person who does the sort of work you do, and exchange war stories. Express availability to help solve some pressing problem *now*.
9. **Work through international students** (and former students) for contacts.
10. **Join associations with international purposes** (e.g., Association internationale de pedagogie universitaire, Society for Intercultural Education, Training and Research, World Future Society, etc.)
11. **Become well known** as a source of help. There is no substitute for recognized expertise.
12. **Apply for international scholar programs** through sponsoring organizations (e.g., NATO Scientific Affairs Division, Fulbright Scholars Program).
13. **Exchange jobs with a colleague.** In many cases, an exchange of homes will allow you to handle the trade financially. Organizations promoting this type of arrangement are the Faculty Exchange Center (Lancaster, Pennsylvania) and the National Student Exchange Program (Washington, D.C.), which is now branching into faculty exchanges.
14. **Do volunteer work overseas.** Numerous programs are looking for people willing to work overseas on a long-term or short-term basis. Depending upon the assignment, you may need to finance part of the travel expense.
15. **Select thesis or research topics** with international implications
16. **Work for an institution** with international ties. Among colleges and universities, for example, the level of international activity going on or encouraged presently varies considerably.
17. **Establish an institute or workshop program** which will attract international people, and then set up contacts (or contracts) for future work.
18. **Work out an exchange visit,** probably short-term, with a counterpart abroad. Finance it creatively, gaining organizational support for your effort.
19. **Give a joint presentation** with a colleague from abroad.
20. **Coauthor an article** with an international colleague. Explore opportunities for publishing it, with modifications, in journals in more than one language.

21. **Join the CIA, KGB** (or both) or similar organization. You'll go far. Then quit when overseas.

22. **Identify individuals or institutions** who are now involved internationally. See how they did it and imitate. Become associated with them. (Consider the remora fish paradigm for symbiotically associating with SHARKS.)

23. **Link up with available seed money** sources which actively promote international work. For example, the Title XII program, BIFAD, earmarks funds for program development specifically for U.S. land grant colleges to assist food and nutrition progress in Third World countries.

24. **Use networking** to reach overseas contacts. Important leads can be found often through referrals from colleagues. It is widely held that with three phone calls (at the most, five), an individual can reach anyone else in the world. One person, experimenting with the concept, reached Queen Elizabeth in five calls.

25. **Use contacts through relatives.** If Uncle Harry has an international contract, go to work for Uncle Harry.

26. **Learn a foreign language** or polish up the one you studied back in high school. The effort involved will make certain that you go to the country where it can be used. The cultural insights alone will make the effort pay off.

27. **Review literature from overseas in a professional journal.** For example, the *Educational Communication and Technology Journal* (AECT's research journal) now has a section reviewing related international periodicals.

28. **Respond to inquiries** about your program from overseas. Take the extra effort to maintain a mailing list, and keep people informed via newsletters and the like.

29. **Combine pleasure travel with work opportunities.** For example, if you vacation in Mexico, stop by the local university and meet colleagues.

30. **Work through church groups and service organizations.** Make certain your motives are somewhere close to those of the sponsoring organization.

31. **Expect serendipity.** Amazing things happen linking one contact to another. There are many opportunities which you make and which just come along. Have a suitcase packed. BON VOYAGE and BONNE CHANCE.

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AN ALTERNATIVE TO MID-TERM EXAMS

Community college instructors often search for an alternative to mid-term exams, especially for classes which meet only once a week. Since a mid-term exam often means that three hours of instruction time are lost, the following alternative was found to be most successful and would help to advance the goal of writing across the curriculum.

When the class meets each week, the first activity is a writing activity. One essay question is presented on the content of the previous week's class activities and/or reading assignment. The question is placed on an overhead transparency and made visible to the class at the very minute class is due to start—for example, 7:00 p.m. The students are told at the beginning of the fourteen-week session that they must complete at least ten of the essay questions for a maximum of three points for each question. A total of thirty points then is given for the mid-term exam.

The students are given the first fifteen minutes of each class to write a short essay answer to the weekly question. If a student arrives late, he has whatever portion of that time remaining to answer the question. The composition serves a dual function: encouraging students to arrive on time and having all students in place and ready when the instruction begins.

Each week the graded essays from the previous week are returned to the students while they are writing. When the fifteen minutes have elapsed and the essays have been collected, a model student essay from the previous week is read aloud. Students look at their own answers and compare them with the student response that the instructor thought was close to ideal. Each week a different student's paper is read so that the positive reinforcement is spread among the class members. Students note an improvement in their own writing styles as they have multiple opportunities to actively write on a weekly basis and to compare their responses with models

This writing activity has proved to be a successful alternative to a mid-term exam, a reinforcement of writing skills, and an instructional process which improves the conduct of the class.

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GRADE EXPECTATIONS

Last semester I performed a modest and not especially scientific experiment in two sections of WR 201, a second-semester required writing course The idea arose in some informal discussions, early in the term, in which students expressed some interest in "self-fulfilling prophecies"—especially with reference to class performance.

Method

At the beginning of the semester, each student was asked to write down two grades: the one s/he *wanted*, and the one s/he *expected*. Students were pledged not to change these anticipations and expectations during the term. At the last class meeting, students submitted these grades on identified index cards; these were sealed in an envelope by one student in each class, and I pledged not to open the envelopes until my grades were entered and recorded.

Results

With N = 41, approximately half (20) of the students received precisely the grade they expected; the range was A to C. None of the students in this group received or expected a D or an F. For the rest, the expectancy curve assumed a classic bell shape: one student overestimated his grade by two units, and nine students overestimated their grades by one unit; ten students underestimated their grades by one unit, and one student underestimated his grade by two units.

When desired grades were compared to actual grades, the curve skewed as expected, but not as sharply as expected. Sixteen students got precisely the grade they wanted; these students all received either an A or a B. One student desired a grade three units higher than received; six students desired a grade two units higher than received; fifteen students desired a grade one unit higher than received; three students desired a grade one unit *lower* than received.

Comment

Comparison of the *expected* to *actual* grades indicates that students seem to estimate their abilities fairly well; an alternative explanation is that the "self-fulfilling prophecy" phenomenon does in fact exist and students perform as they have been led to expect to perform. There was almost precisely as much underestimation as the reverse.

Comparison of the *desired* to *actual* grades produced interesting results. Almost as many students received the grade they wanted as received the grade they expected. Only seven students wanted a grade two or more units higher than the one they earned. I am interested in the three students who wanted a grade lower than the one they received: I hope they will not be dissatisfied with the academic process!

Summary

A small sample of students in this second semester of an English Composition course indicated a good correlation between the grades they expected to receive and the grades they finally earned; the correlation between the desired grade and actual grade was higher than might have been expected.

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Suanne D. Roueche, Editor
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AN UPPER-DIVISION WRITING COURSE

Background

Several principles underlay the organization of my upper-class writing course in anthropology. First, it was focused specifically on writing rather than on a particular topic in anthropology. I was not obliged to cover any special substantive area so we were free to spend class time discussing exposition. We did use anthropological examples, but these ranged as widely over the field as did the students' interests.

Second, earlier experience with my own writing convinced me that the secret of writing—if there is one—lies in re-writing: in fussing with words, in trying varied combinations, in producing second, third, and fourth drafts.

Third, I stressed, from the start, that my concern would be with the craft of organizing words in clear, logical and, if possible, graceful ways, and that I was not yearning for creativity. I wanted, instead, to focus on the more mundane, but far more manageable, craft of getting one's ideas across. Creativity can find an outlet only after some skill with the craft has first been achieved.

Finally, and most important, I wanted to help the students to help each other. I believed that I would accomplish more by encouraging students to help each other than by showing a handful of isolated individuals how to attend more carefully to their own problems. I decided, therefore, to turn my course into a class in mutual criticism. It is this aspect of the course that has been most successful, and it is this aspect that I will stress.

Mutual Criticism

I announced, at the beginning, that the course grade would depend upon how helpful they had been to their classmates rather than upon the quality of their own writing. Immediately the threat of judgment was removed from my own criticisms. I could express myself freely without implying a grading or a ranking. In their own writing, students were free to experiment without worrying about a grade, but they knew that whatever they wrote would receive searching criticism. Reciprocally they knew they would have to grapple with the writing of others and to ask themselves, repeatedly, not only how to improve their own writing, but how to help their classmates. I have looked at student papers only after they have first been read and commented upon by another student. In this way, I have looked simultaneously at one student's writing and at another student's criticisms.

Getting Started

The first week I brought a half dozen samples of published anthropological writing to class, some that I liked and some that I did not. I asked students to read the samples and to rank them according to their judgment of writing style. I put rankings on the board, including my own, and we spent the next hour discussing the basis of our varying judgments. We were beginning to ask ourselves what makes some writing seem more appealing than other writing. During that first class session I also brought the successive drafts of a piece of my own writing, I showed them how radically I had reworked my first terrible draft, and how I had then modified it again for a third, and then a fourth, draft.

I also gave them copies of two pages from a poorly written book. I had written in the margins and at the end of these pages the kinds of comments that I might have offered had it been a student paper. This, I suggested, was the kind of help needed by any writer, experienced or inexperienced. It is the kind of help that I would expect them to give each other.

I gave them two assignments for the second class. First they were asked to rewrite a passage that I gave them. They were told to rework this passage with care so as to make it clearer and more readable. Second, they were to search through the anthropological literature for two samples of writing—one that they felt was particularly good, the other that they found particularly bad.

The students made copies of these assignments to pass around to the class, and we spent the second meeting discussing what they had brought. We had a particularly joyous time comparing notes on the passage that we had rewritten. We found that the same problems in the original passage had bothered many of us, but we also saw that a problem could usually be solved in many different ways.

For the third class, at last, students wrote something of their own. I did not want them to get hung up on worrying about what topic to choose, so I offered them a list of topics that I felt would be possible; but I also told them that if they didn't like my topics that they could write on something of their own choosing. Since no one has yet chosen one of my topics, I must conclude that finding a topic is not a problem for juniors and seniors. I said no more about length than "a few pages" and "whatever seems reasonable in the available time."

They brought their first papers to the third class, and we arranged a round-robin in which each student gave his paper to the next student in the circle. Each student was to look at, think about, and offer suggestions to his classmate and then pass the paper on to me in time for me to look over the whole batch and return the papers the following week. This became the pattern for the rest of the term.

The Rest of the Term

Class time has been spent in several ways. We have discussed samples of published writing that one of us has brought to class. We have discussed the differences between oral and written English. When commas seemed to be used a bit too imaginatively, I have taken 10 minutes to explain a few conventions about commas. I have also experimented with exercises designed to tap their intuitions about language. I once passed out a sample of writing from which the paragraph breaks had been removed and, somewhat to their surprise, the students found that they agreed quite closely about where the breaks should go. These exercises helped a bit to increase the students' awareness of the inner constraints upon writing.

I have tried to encourage discussion of specific points by occasionally rewriting a student paper and offering both the student's version and my own to the class. We have then spread out the versions and considered the alternatives: Why did I change this word? What are the pros and cons of that phrasing? We get into detailed discussion of particular points: whether this word or that word works better in a particular sentence; whether it would be better to break this sentence into two shorter sentences or to leave it alone; whether the two sentences toward the bottom might better be moved to an earlier spot on the page; whether the logical relationship between two sentences might be made more apparent by adding a clarifying phrase; and, over and over again, whether anything at all would be lost by cutting out a few words here and there.

Rewriting a student's paper has its risks. The first time I tried it, I chose a paper that was already reasonably sound and a student who seemed to be reasonably tough. I did my best to let the class know that I had selected a paper that was good enough to be worth the effort of rewriting, for I did not want to hold anyone's writing up to ridicule. At the same time, however, I did not want to encourage anonymity. I wanted the writer to be able to defend himself, to argue with my suggestions. So far as I can judge, my experiments in rewriting have been well received. It is surely more illuminating to see how someone has struggled to reword and to reorganize than to be left with a few vague comments in the margins like "awkward"; and since students can always find flaws in my version too, they get the idea that each draft is simply a trial, one step along the way, not something to be left inviolate.

I like to believe that in the course of the term I can see the students gaining some confidence in their writing. Their phrasing seems a bit more solid, their organization a bit tighter. But I see no revolution in their writing, and I cannot be entirely confident that a blind examination of their first and last papers would confirm their progress. I even suspect it is too much to hope for unambiguous evidence of better writing in a single term. What I hope, instead, is that students will have begun to think seriously, and in productive ways, about the craft of writing. If we can help students begin to understand how they can work toward learning to write, that is probably enough.

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THE PROFESSIONAL: A DEFINITION

Health care is an area in a constant state of flux. And one of the primary reasons for this state is the astronomical advances in technology over the past two and one-half decades. Many of these advances have left us "holding the bag," if you will, as they have provided us with not only moral, ethical, legal and religious dilemmas—dilemmas for which there are few answers . . . but deeper and more complex questions.

As a respiratory care practitioner for over a decade and now a health technologies educator, my concerns regarding these moral and ethical dilemmas have expanded to include: What *is* the health technologies professional, and how does this individual *fit* into the health care milieu? As these questions about the "professional" assumed greater and greater importance to me personally and in my classroom preparations, I decided upon what I believed to be a valuable teaching and learning experience: I would ask my students to help me formulate a definition of the term.

The students in my class were involved in an extremely intensive, high-technology program requiring stamina, dedication, and a commitment to excellence; they were in an open-forum classroom setting that most of them had never before encountered; and I was embarking on a mission in assisting them toward a basic understanding of what may seem to be the intangible. The open-forum facilitated team effort in problem resolution and provided some freedom of verbal expression. Both the team effort and freedom of expression facilitated the thought process. When the time seemed appropriate, we embarked on our mission. Following a brief discussion of the "perceived" professional, each of the students was asked to define the term.

I share these key points gleaned from this experience; the freshness with which these first-quarter students joined their minds and hearts to address not only the definition but where the professional fits into the schema of health care is too exciting to keep to myself. They said that the professional is

- -- an individual who, because of an interest in caring for others, has accomplished specialized training/education and has thus developed a high level of expertise.
- -- an individual who demonstrates adaptability, integrity, and the ability to apply knowledge previously learned and is further interested in continuing the learning process.
- -- an individual who demonstrates courage in the most difficult of situations.
- -- an individual who is expeditious and efficient in carrying out his/her responsibilities.
- -- an individual who demonstrates an adherence to established ethical standards.
- -- an individual who demonstrates an extremely high level of compassion with patients, peers, and superiors.
- -- an individual who is adept in communication at all levels, regardless of the situation.

My students had indeed defined an intangible. *And this definition is applicable to any and all individuals who endeavor to develop themselves.* During the next class meeting, I shared my feelings and the pride that I felt with them. I call it DiPietro's Law I:

> Any monkey can wear a white coat, but that monkey becomes a professional when there is a fundamental understanding of what that white coat holds and how it is used to offer assistance to those who are less fortunate.

As I walked out of class, I realized that my students had become my teachers. And I further realized that they had taken those first difficult steps toward that intangible that they had so vividly defined . . . the professional.

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THE INSTRUCTOR'S REPORT CARD

+ EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTORS		- INEFFECTIVE INSTRUCTORS
1. I have a basic conviction that I can make a difference.	□ ■	1. People come to me with basic attitudes, and they will not change. The forces against change are too strong.
2. My responsibility is to teach people.	□ ■	2 My responsibility is to teach subjects.
3. The process of learning is exciting.	□ ■	3. The process of learning is painful.
4. Students must grow personally as well as intellectually.	□ ■	4. The sole responsibility of the college is intellectual development.
5 I will do my best to reach each student in spite of the many external forces that may be working against him/her.	□ ■	5. I cannot expect to succeed with the student if there are negative environmental factors working against me.
6. The development of values will be an integral component of my instructional plan. Values play a significant role in the future success of the student whether in additional academic pursuits or in the workplace.	□ ■	6. The development of values is the responsibility of the home and/or religious component of the student's life. You can't measure "value" development; therefore, it is inappropriate to include this area in one's goals.
7. The basic humanistic qualities of the instructor are vital to the success of the student.	□ ■	7. The limits of learning are set by technology.
8. A capable instructor will be successful even though all conditions for learning may not be present.	□ ■	8. An instructor cannot be expected to succeed unless all classroom conditions are perfect.
9. Understanding is not remembering. Even though students may indicate immediate understanding of my presentations, a variety of reinforcement activities must occur for long-term memory to take effect.	□ ■	9. If students understand my presentation, they will automatically remember the material.
10. Learning is a two-way process. The more active the student is in the learning process, the more likely retention will occur.	□ ■	10. The best approach to learning is the lecture approach (total, instructor-presented lecture). It is a waste of time to involve students through encouraging their questions or comments.

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Suanne D Roueche, Editor
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TEACHING HISTORY IN THE TWO-YEAR COLLEGE: SOME CURRENT CHALLENGES

I teach at a large urban community college of some 5200 students. We have the rather typical student body for colleges of our type: the majority of our students hold full- or part-time jobs; many are married with families; all are commuter students; about half attend at night; many are the first generation in their families to attend college. For many, college is only one of several competing demands on their time. Their average age is 26. About 20% are Black and 7% Hispanic.

Like most history teachers, I was raised on the traditional lecture-discussion method and gave no thought to changing when I began teaching in the late 60s. However, my school, like many, went through the self-pacing phase several years ago. It was mandated that self-paced sections of certain courses would be offered, and I found myself developing and teaching such sections of our Colonial through Reconstruction U.S. History survey.

My course involved 12 unit exams plus a final, three mandatory class meetings early in the semester, and periodic individual conferences with students thereafter. I concluded that only a certain breed of student can succeed in such a course: those who are highly motivated to learn, those who can work well on their own with little guidance, and those who have a considerable amount of self-discipline. For these students, and I did have some, the course was highly satisfying.

Unfortunately, though, most of our students do not fit this description. As I mentioned earlier, for many of them college is only a part-time commitment competing with other priorities in their lives. Many of them have weak study skills. Especially if they are recent high school graduates, their reading and writing skills tend to be dreadful, to put it charitably. Self-discipline is a concept unknown to many of them, at least as it pertains to college. The recent high school graduates have come from an environment where, most likely, they took five or six courses, were challenged little if at all, and were routinely passed on to the next grade. Now in college, they believe they can also take and pass four or five courses with as little effort as in high school—plus work 20-30 hours a week, of course. By the end of the first or second semester, the truth begins to sink in for some of them.

None of this is a surprise to those who have been in higher education for any length of time. None of us was shocked by the spate of recent national attention directed to the weaknesses of our public educational system. Our reaction was probably something like: "It's about time the rest of the citizenry learned what we've known for years."

Where do we go from here?

At my college the emphasis is no longer on self-pacing, although we have not entirely abandoned the concept. I submit that we who teach history (and the other social sciences, for that matter) have a different obligation and agenda before us.

(1) *We must work to develop in our students basic learning and study skills and self-discipline.* This means such mundane but essential things as adhering to deadlines in a course, maintaining grading standards, and seeing to it that our students take remedial courses as needed. I am pleased at the trend in my school and others to institute academic assessment of entering students and place them in appropriate English and math courses. We can also devote a little time in our own courses to teaching skills essential in studying history.

(2) *We must require meaningful amounts of reading and writing in our courses.* Teachers who demand no writing are looking out for their own comfort, not for the welfare of their students. Six years ago Dick Cavett told a university graduating class:

> I can imagine your saying to yourself . . . I'm sorry the language is ailing but there's nothing I can do. It doesn't affect me anyway, since that's not my field. I can still get through the day. I can always get my meaning across . . . . I am here this afternoon to say it *does* affect you, and there *is* something you can do. No matter what you majored in; you're still English majors. We're all English majors whether we like it or not.

To paraphrase Mr. Cavett: "We're all English *teachers* whether we like it or not."

In 1983 the Advisory Council for Technical-Vocational Education in Texas asked 1100 employers to rate the importance of education, training, attitudes, grooming, etc. to the acceptance or rejection of job applicants. The second and third most cited reasons for rejecting job applicants were "lack of job-related skills/education" and an "incomplete and/or poorly filled out job application form." Ask your students when it was that they last filled out a job application form that had multiple-choice questions. The employers surveyed also cited the "ability to write and speak effectively" as the *number one* area needing improvement among job applicants. This item was not even among the top five in a similar survey eight years before. Because many of our students are aiming for full-time employment as soon as they complete two or four years of college, we as their educators clearly have our work cut out for us.

History is particularly suited to developing the reading and writing skills our students will need. It is blessedly jargon-free, unlike some of the other social sciences. Writing essays and papers helps reinforce grammatical skills. While no history textbook will ever win a Pulitzer Prize, we can require our students to read some of the more felicitously written books and essays which have graced our profession. The reading of history for pleasure by the general public remains high, as Bruce Catton, Barbara Tuchman, and David McCullough, to name just three, have proven. Exposure to good writing can rub off on students. Indeed I encourage them to read anything—magazines, newspapers, books of any kind—just to develop the reading habit. Unfortunately, many two-year college students come from homes where reading is the exception, not the rule.

(3) *We must offer students experiences in hopefulness.* My students too often display a resignation that the national and world situation is hopeless and there's nothing anyone can do about it. I am depressed at such passivity in young people. Some of them are from lower socio-economic rungs of the ladder and are struggling to get by economically. Such people sometimes feel that others higher up are "running things" and that there is little they can do to effect change. Most depressing, some students tell me they do not expect to live to the age of 50—they will die in a nuclear war first.

History is a study of how people bring about change and react to change. Change is inevitable in all of our lives--how well we cope with it determines how well we manage both individually and collectively as a society. History shows again and again that constructive change *is* possible. In the United States, progressive reformers of the early twentieth century showed that the working class could improve its condition. The massive shift in public opinion over the Vietnam war surely had something to do with getting us out of that unhappy conflict. The civil rights movement is eloquent testimony to those who sought change for the better. Of course, history has its grim side, too—and we must show this in our teaching. Basically, history shows the processes of societies coping and changing. It's the same for individuals. How well each of us handles the challenges and changes in our own lives—aging, divorces, family deaths, and the like—determines the state of our own mental health. History can provide some guidance in this regard.

I am upbeat and hopeful about my students, despite my negative comments about their skills. They are good people, well-meaning, and sincere—I haven't met one I didn't like personally. I'm sure at 18 I had some of the same weaknesses I now criticize in them. Some of them are incredibly hard-working and determined to make it. I think we can help them.

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Suanne D. Roueche, Editor
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NEW DIRECTIONS FOR SUCCESS

It cannot be denied that the problems of open admissions institutions have escalated in recent years. The academic preparation of entering students has declined, and community colleges are working hard to eliminate the effect of practices developed in the late 1960s and early 1970s. Dealing with the dilemma of lower academic skills of entering students and higher expectations for program completion is an awesome task. In many cases, it calls for full-scale reform of the educational program; however, throughout the country, there is evidence that community colleges are responding to this challenge and are already moving in new directions. They understand that simply raising requirements for admission provides an unsatisfactory solution for our country, that commitment to the open door must be maintained. Community colleges have the capability to provide the necessary programs, but we will not be successful with practices of earlier years. I offer the following suggestions for program direction to effectively integrate both quality and access.

Emphasize Information Skills

Information skills—the abilities to read, analyze, interpret, apply, and communicate information—and learning skills have become of paramount importance in order to live productively and to obtain employment in the information age society. In order to adapt to the phenomenon of change—the most consistent characteristic of the information age—the ability to continue to learn throughout one's life is essential.

To graduate students who have strong information skills and are skilled learners, there must be considerable change in our approach to instruction and a decrease in dependence on objective testing. Students at all educational levels are reading too little, and the data concerning writing skills are discouraging. One suspects that course assignments have been adjusted to accommodate those who work and attend part-time and that assignments have also been adjusted because of the lower performance levels of incoming high school students.

The information skills policy instituted at Miami-Dade Community College in 1983 illustrates the new direction. There is now a writing requirement in every course, and faculty in all disciplines are being trained to deal with an increased volume of writing across the curriculum—from brief classroom assignments to essay examinations and lengthy term papers. In addition, instructional objectives relating to information skills and learning skills are required for every course; and faculty are increasing reading expectations, instituting higher level learning competencies, and applying information skills in their classes.

Provide a More Directive, More Supportive Program

There should be a controlled student flow, carefully constructed so that students progress through the program based on their competencies and performance. In a more directive system, students with deficiencies are required to take necessary developmental work before proceeding to programs where the lack of skill could cause failure. Such a system also ensures that students are assisted in selecting courses and in maintaining reasonable loads. In addition, the curriculum should be aligned so that students who cannot complete a program will have gained skills and competencies that are useful in life.

Provide More Service for the Less-Prepared Students

Students should be informed at the outset that if they begin with deficiencies in academic skills, they will take longer to be successful. There is little prospect that a standard application of educational service will move a student who is four or five years behind in academic skills to an acceptable level within a standard period of time. Programs should be organized to allow students variable time for achievement of a program, a course, or even a unit within a course.

In addition to developmental courses, there must exist a system which will accommodate appropriate reduction in load for students experiencing difficulty (one of the few procedures that can document results). Many working students—especially the underprepared—underestimate the amount of time that courses require and often enroll for more credits than can be handled successfully. The college system should provide necessary restrictions, advisement, and additional support services to help students coordinate extracurricular responsibilities with coursework. Further, there should be continued emphasis on the development of faculty skills necessary for effective individualization of instruction; reduction of the academic range in classes will not eliminate in-

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dividual differences. College credits must be viewed as currency, and institutions must not award credits until course standards have been met.

Assure Standards

It is most important that student expectations be raised and that degrees and certificates be awarded on the basis of demonstrated competencies. In the future, most individuals will require some postsecondary education, yet society is demanding that funds not be expended where there is little hope of achieving a successful result. A student's first year at the community college may well become the deciding point as to whether the public will continue to pay for further education. The college should assume responsibility to assist individuals to succeed; and an ordered curriculum should be instituted to deal with reading, writing and computational deficiencies first, so that all benefit from attendance. However, the colleges must be prepared to suspend students if there is no evidence of reasonable progress.

Use Communications Technology

It appears that faculty are now ready to use communications technology after years of resistance. Computers and other communications devices have become an integral part of all of our lives. It would be most unusual not to use them in the field of education, which is a combination of communications and human interaction.

Using computers for individualization of instruction, Miami-Dade Community College sends all students information about their current academic progress approximately six weeks into each term. Ninety-three percent of our students have expressed appreciation at receiving this personal computerized information; and recent studies show that students improve performance, increase completion rates and GPA, and lower suspension rates when they are informed early of performance deficiencies and avail themselves of needed special assistance. In addition, computerized instructional systems serve in more than one hundred courses, especially those with large enrollments.

Effect Economic and Institutional Planning

The changes that must take place in the educational program of open-door colleges indicate the need for a different configuration of services. Institutions cannot regard all of the new elements merely as additions to the standard format; *this has long been a stumbling block to advances in education*. Rather, they must think in terms of reconfiguration of costs, based upon substantial change and reorganization of the educational program.

Provide Services for Superior Students

Overwhelmed by the problems of the underprepared and the task of providing support for them, the community college and other open-door institutions have, over a period of time, neglected superior students. The superior student is an important asset, not only to other students, but also in building and maintaining a positive public attitude toward the open-door colleges. Many institutions are implementing creative new programs for these students, and a number of community colleges now enroll more than 30 percent of the top 10 percent of high school graduates.

Provide Leadership with High School Programs

For large numbers of Americans, it is too late to begin improvement of academic deficiencies at the community college level. Community colleges and high schools should work closely in order to bring about necessary curricular change prior to enrollment in the postsecondary system, to bring about close cooperation with high schools, and to convince the community and parents of the increasing need for higher levels of education—to be both *more supportive and more demanding* of all schools.

Data indicate that there are sufficient examples of success in combining quality and access to encourage us to improve our approaches and programs and to continue in that direction. Expanding requirements of the information age and the need for all individuals to have strong information skills leave no other choice.

Robert H. McCabe, President
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TEACHING: ANOTHER WAY OF LOVING

When I was asked to make this commencement address, I begged off at first. I don't think it should be made by a faculty member. I think that for our commencement address they should get somebody important—like President Reagan or Dolly Parton.

However, there are a couple of things I wanted to say. Some of you have been hearing me say these things for the last semester or two, but I want very much to say them again. I think they are very important, and neither President Reagan nor Dolly Parton would say them.

The first is the fact that all of you are in enormous debt. From the day you were born until the day you graduated from high school, your parents had to spend from one hundred thousand to one hundred and fifty thousand dollars on you.

Now, you've gone through at least two years of college—and you personally paid much of the bill. But I don't think you realize how much of the bill was paid by other people. The tuition and fees you paid to attend Temple Junior College actually were less than ten percent of what it cost this college to educate you. For every dollar you spent on tuition and fees, the taxpayers provided more than nine. In other words, you were hired to go to college.

We like to say that college is for *your* benefit. Actually, that's only part of the story. We, of the older generation, provided the money for this college because we don't want you to "louse up" the world we've provided for you.

The ancient caveman taught his cave kids how to catch rabbits—not so much for the kids, but because some day when he was old, he would have to rely on others for food. And he wanted the kids to know how to hunt.

But along with how to catch rabbits, the kids were taught the importance of learning everything they could about them—and other varmints as well. And in that way, every generation would learn something new and, thereby, make life easier for everybody.

Now, my generation hasn't quite created a perfect world. But we did defeat Hitler and conquer polio; we did put men on the moon and invent scotch tape, radar, and the cordless telephone; we have managed to achieve the highest standard of living in the world. We hope you have learned enough to keep these traditions going. That's why we've spent so much money on you.

Now you're graduating—and it's time you start paying back some of that debt. There is no such thing as a free lunch. It's time to start catching those rabbits—or going on to senior colleges and universities and learning how to catch things other than rabbits.

You have been singled out as something special. It is a little ironic; as a political scientist, I talk about our country being a nation of equals. Yet, we have spent much time and money doing our best to make you graduates as unequal as possible. We've tried to elevate you above the ordinary. Right now, you are more highly educated than 98 percent of the people on the face of the earth.

We have made you unequal—and you owe society something for that advantage. We have tried to provide you with more creature comforts than are enjoyed by the cave kids of any other nation. We have given you an education that is worth thousands of dollars more than you have paid. Not only have we invested much money in you, but we also have invested a lot of faith and love.

What do we expect of *you*? Well, the Temple Junior College catalog tells us what we are supposed to do here. It is the responsibility of the faculty to try to develop these things in each of you: intellectual potential, occupational competence, social awareness, ethical values, aesthetic appreciation, and cultural heritage.

Now, I don't know how well we have succeeded. It seems as though almost everybody hangs heavy on that "occupational competence" and wants to skip the rest. There is a strange notion that more education means more money in the market place, but that is a foolish notion. If people were paid on the basis of their college degrees, college faculty would be the wealthiest group in Texas. We're not trying to teach you how to

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earn a living—but what to do with a living after you've earned it and how to make living worthwhile for yourself and for society.

We know that within a few years, many of you will be working in jobs that haven't even been invented yet. That's why, in almost every course you've taken, we've tried to help you gain some skills which will last you a lifetime, whatever your job: how to analyze and evaluate the situation you're in; how to go about solving problems intelligently; how to think critically and objectively; how to organize your work and where to find help; how to communicate with other persons in speech and writing; how to make decisions, even when you don't have all the information you think you need; how to apply things you've learned to new and unexpected situations; and how to be an honorable and productive citizen of your country—and a strong, moral member of your family.

If those of us on the faculty have succeeded in helping you with these things, then I suppose that your parents' and the taxpayers' investments in you are good ones.

We've put a lot more into your education than dollars, and that brings me to the second—and most important—thing that I have to say to you tonight. It is a very personal thing that I want to say one more time—and I'm talking only to you people out there in the square hats.

You see, a very big investment we have made in you is a part of our own lives. As far as I am concerned, teaching is simply another form of loving. We are good teachers only in direct proportion to how much we really care about your learning. And because those of us on the faculty demonstrate that we really do care, I'm convinced that the quality of our teaching is affected in a very positive way. Wherever you may go, you take a part of us with you—just as many of you have left some very vivid impressions on us!

Teaching is just another form of loving. We've recognized that we cannot actually teach you anything. We can show you some of the things we have learned and can try to help you learn them. We have tried to tell you about some of the things we have learned and tried to motivate you to learn them, too. But you've had to do the learning.

Teaching is just another way of loving. We can read about ways in which to improve our teaching; but we teach most effectively, regardless of method, when we really want you to learn—when we are motivated by sincerely wanting to help you discover new things.

Teaching is another form of loving. If our greatest desire is to help you avoid some of the difficulties the older generation has had to face—if we really want to help you cope with the real world, then learning will occur; we will be regarded as "good" teachers.

Teaching is another way of loving—but we must be aware that discipline is a part of love and that one can love not wisely but too well.

Teaching is another way of loving—and that makes events like this rather sentimental. It is often difficult to separate the affective from the cognitive elements of our task.

Let's be sentimental, then. Let's confess that you have an investment in us, and we have an investment in you. You will be remembered, and we are always pleased when you return to see us after you've gone on to bigger and better things.

I accepted the invitation to speak to you tonight because I wanted to bring you that message. And neither President Reagan nor Dolly Parton could have delivered it.

Teaching is simply another way of loving, and I want to put into words what I've been trying to show you these last couple of years: I love you.

Now go catch me a rabbit.

Harold Whittington
Political Science Department

Reprinted with permission: "Remarks" by Dr. Harold Whittington (at the Fifty-Eighth Commencement Exercises of Temple Junior College, May 11, 1984).

For further information, contact the author at Temple Junior College, 2600 South First Street, Temple, Texas 76501.

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ESP IN THE CLASSROOM

Most of us remember the story about the mule trainer: A farmer brings his balky mule to the trainer, expressing the hope that no brutality will be used. Reassuring the farmer that his methods are humane, the trainer takes a 2-by-4 and whomps the mule right between the eyes. Sputtering with rage, the farmer shouts, "I thought you said your training was humane." "It is," replies the trainer, "but first you have to get their attention."

This homely lesson has some relevancy for psychology instructors. We cannot assume that our students' attention is automatically ours. They are young adults for whom television, with all its hype and drama, has not only been a source of entertainment, but also their primary way of obtaining information about the world. A good psychological "2-by-4" may be just what is needed to engage their attention and provide the motivation for critical evaluation. *Un*critical thinking is easier and provides attractive short-term thrills, as indicated by many students' fascination with the occult and the paranormal. Attempts to disprove even the most preposterous of their beliefs may meet obstinate resistance—they may easily interpret our efforts as a personal attack. These are *their* beliefs.

Many years ago an entertainer gave a "demonstration of ESP" at my college. Realizing I was a skeptic, my students deluged me with the entertainer's "proofs." Since then, I have begun each semester with my own "demonstration." What is really being demonstrated, of course, is the need for critical thinking skills.

One word of caution: If you use these techniques, do not first poll the students to determine the degree of their belief in ESP. Most of them will believe; and if you then proceed to dramatically debunk ESP, you risk humiliating—and alienating—your audience. And it is vital that you debrief the class at the end of the demonstration and let them know how it was done. It proves how easily anyone can be fooled and puts you on their side in a cooperative quest for truth.

The Demonstrations

The following three exercises are simple, effective, and virtually foolproof. Props are minimal, and no fancy sleight of hand is necessary.

For the first demonstration you will need a telephone directory, a notepad, and two medium-sized paper clamps. Pick a name from the directory—one which is easy to remember in order to make your patter smoother—and note its page number, column number, and number of names down from the top of the column. Write these last three items on each of three notepad pages, fold each paper separately and identically, clamp them together, and place them in your pocket. If you have not memorized the chosen name, address, and phone number, prepare a crib sheet and place it on your lectern, out of the students' sight, but within your view.

Give each of three volunteers a blank notepad sheet. Look through the directory and write on the blackboard the number of white pages (e.g., 14-346), the number of columns per page (e.g., 4), and the approximate number of names per column (e.g., 100). Ask the students to write their choices of three numbers: from 14 to 346, from 1 to 4, and from 1 to 100. Have them fold the papers exactly as you folded yours and place them in the other clamp. Put them in your pocket.

Ask for two more volunteers who feel they have the "capacity to send mental images." Give one of them the phone book and take your clamp from your pocket. Ask the other student to pick one of the papers from the clamp and begin to "divine" its numbers. As you painfully extract each number from the mental airways, ask the directory holder to turn to the page, the column, and the number down, and "send" the information to you. Gradually "extract" the name, address, and phone number from the volunteer's mind.

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As the admiring gasps die down, ask what hypotheses have been generated. If no one guesses what actually happened, suggest that you memorized the entire directory! To prove your phenomenal memory, produce a sheet of paper containing 50 10-digit numbers. Ask a volunteer to choose one of the numbers and give you its index number. You will then proceed to write the number on the board. Don't worry; there is a system. Here is the first number: 1. 3145943707. To obtain it, add 12 to the index number (1), which equals 13. Reverse the digits, write 31 on the board, and add each number to the preceding one: 3+1=4, 4+1=5, 5+4=9, 9+5=14 (for double-digit numbers, only write down the second one), etc.

The third technique can be tied to comments about possible collusion between you and the volunteers. Simply ask the doubter to help you and to write the following numbers on the board:

1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16

Have the student pick either 1, 2, 3, or 4. Circle the choice and cross out the three numbers directly below it. For example, if 2 is picked, circle it and cross out 6, 10, and 14. Then go to the next line and ask the volunteer to choose either 5, 7, or 8. Proceed in the same manner until only one number remains to be circled on the last line. Add up the circled numbers. The answer will always be 34. Have the volunteer turn to page 34, column 3, name 4 down from the top of the phone directory; then recite the entry, which you have previously memorized.

The Hypotheses

Ask the class again what hypotheses have been generated. The hypotheses probably will fall into two categories: (1) you actually are exhibiting ESP powers, or (2) some sort of fraud is being committed. If you have performed the demonstration well, neither of these hypotheses will be readily testable, giving you an excellent opportunity to discuss good (testable) vs. bad (untestable) hypotheses. If you do get caught, remember that, just as with a bad experiment, the demonstration can always serve as a bad example. Be sure to debrief the class after the discussion.

Conclusion

There are hundreds of scams being run on the public under the guise of ESP, and most of them are as simple as these examples. There is nothing wrong with being mystified by a good entertainer; but just as a diet of junk food will have an impact on one's physical health, so will a diet of intellectual junk food affect one's mental health. Whatever we can do to cultivate our students' reality-testing skills will be worthwhile indeed.

Norman E. Tandy
Mount Wachusett Community College

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A STUDY OF HONORS PROGRAMS IN COMMUNITY COLLEGES

In the past decade, more and more community colleges have begun to respond to their commitment to excellence for all students by offering honors programs for the growing number of high achievers on their campuses. In early 1984, a survey to analyze existing programs was developed by Moraine Valley Community College in conjunction with the League for Innovation in the Community College.

Methodology

Surveys were sent to districts and colleges in the League, requesting information about: the honors program, the honors student, honors courses, honors faculty, and honors organizations. Those institutions with an honors program underway were requested to answer all 60 questions; those with no honors program were requested to answer only a portion of the survey.

Results of the Survey

Two of eight districts reported district-wide honors activities; forty-three of forty-six colleges reponded to the survey, indicating that nineteen currently have an honors program, ten do not have an honors program but are planning to implement one, and fourteen do not have an honors program and do not plan at this time to begin a program.

The results of a composite report on the nineteen community colleges with honors programs are as follows:

The Honors Program

- The most likely length of time (63% of honors programs) for planning an honors program is between seven and 12 months.
- Both administrators and faculty members are involved in the planning process for every honors program.
- A large percentage (84%) of the honors programs have an advisory committee.
- The advisory committee includes administrators (100%) and likely includes faculty members (88%).
- The most common responsibilities for an advisory committee include organizing/planning special functions (75% of honors programs) and approving applicants for the honors program (63% of honors programs).
- Eighteen of the 19 honors programs (95%) have a director or coordinator. Eleven of the directors receive from six to nine hours of released time per semester.
- The most likely academic program related to an honors program is a Liberal Arts/Transfer Program (74%) or a General Education Program (68%).
- One-half of honors program budgets (dollars specifically allocated for this program) are in the category of $10,001 - $20,000 per year.
- The four features which the largest percentage of honors programs offer are special "honors sections" of classes (84%), academic advisement (84%), scholarships (84%), and recognition banquets (79%).
- The three most important features for students as rated by the respondents are scholarships (20%), special "honors section" of classes (14%), and "special privileges"—such as, early registration, bypassing requirements, etc. (12%).

The Honors Student

- To enter an honors program, students must meet one or more of the entrance requirements, which generally include: top 10% of high school graduating class; high school GPA ranging from 3.1 to 3.5 (4 point scale) or a college GPA ranging from 3.25 to 3.5; ACT score of 25 or above; minimum SAT composite ranging from 1,000 to 1,200 with 1,100 being the most prevalent score required; 90th percentile or above on entrance tests at the college; one or two faculty recommendations; demonstration of special abilities or talents through portfolios, projects, papers, awards, or auditions; a personal interview with the honors committee or program director; a 1,000 word essay.
- To remain in the program, a student must meet one or more of the retention requirements, which generally include maintaining a GPA ranging from 3.25 to 3.5 at the institution, receiving no grade below B in an honors class, and participating in one to three honors courses per academic year.

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- There is a wide range of student enrollment in honors programs The number ranges from ten to 250 students per program. The mean value is 71.
- The majority (84%) of the honors programs allow part-time students to enroll.
- Approximately two-thirds of the programs assign special counselors to the honors students.
- Students are recruited into the program primarily through special mailings to high school students (84%), high school visitations (79%), special mailings to currently enrolled students (74%), and through the college schedule/mailer (74%).
- On the average, sixty-one percent of honors students are female; thirty-nine percent are male.
- The majority of honors students are in the age group of 18-20 years (43%) or are 25 years or older (33%).
- Eighty-two percent of all honors students are Caucasian. The next single largest ethnic group is Hispanics which compose 12% of the students.

Honors Courses

- Approximately one-half of the honors programs offer five or less honors classes per semester. Seventy-seven percent of the programs offer ten or fewer honors classes per semester.
- Slightly more than one-half of the institutions limit the size of honors classes.
- The average enrollment in honors classes is 15 students or less per class in 50% of the honors programs.
- Sixty-three percent of the programs offer honors classes both during the day and in the evening rather than only one or the other. Honors classes are block scheduled by 43% of the programs.
- Only 13% of the programs offer honors classes during the summer session.
- Overall, the completion rate in honors classes is 12% higher than the completion rate in classes for the college as a whole.
- The most commonly given major instructional differences between regular classes and honors classes are additional reading assignments (88%) and more in-depth discussion (88%).
- Honors courses are most commonly evaluated by students (100%) and faculty (88%).

Honors Faculty

- At 59% of the colleges, full-time faculty only are allowed to teach honors classes. The remaining 41% allow both part-time and full-time faculty to teach honors classes.
- The most commonly agreed upon individual involved in choosing honors faculty is the departmental chairperson (65%).
- Honors faculty receive additional compensation in only 12% of the institutions.
- Honors faculty are evaluated primarily by students (94%) and by the departmental chairperson (75%).
- Seventy-nine percent of honors programs do not allow faculty to teach more than two honors courses per semester.

Honors Organizations

- The organizations with which the most honors programs are affiliated are Phi Theta Kappa (81%) and the National Collegiate Honors Council (75%).

Conclusions and Recommendations

A broadly-based planning committee should design an honors program that is tailored to the mission and character of the institution; a competent and charismatic faculty member should direct it. The admission requirements and retention criteria must be high enough to establish credibility for the program and yet broad enough to allow returning adults and "late bloomers" to participate. The curriculum, designed and implemented by competent and caring faculty members, must be demanding enough to challenge students and yet flexible enough to permit them to pursue individual interests. Continuous program evaluations should assure that the honor students will always feel that the program is worth the extra effort.

Patricia M. McKeague
Professor of Communications

Christine M. White
Director of Research

For further information or for a copy of the complete report, contact the authors at Moraine Valley Community College, 10900 S. 88th Avenue, Palos Hills, IL 60465.

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WHAT I DID WHEN . . . EXCUSING THE INEXCUSABLE

We hate excuses, both giving and receiving them. They drain us because we know they are often more deftly delivered with lies—from innocuous exaggerations to wholesale manufacture of fake and gravely ill relatives—and because both creating and enduring excuses are thankless jobs. I seldom ask for excuses (not for "real" ones, at least) and usually would rather not hear them. Still, students insist on explaining; and, strangely, it is always Something Valid that has obstructed a Sincere Student's Education. Not once have I heard a ruthlessly true explanation: "Last Wednesday when it was time to leave for class, I was eating potato chips and watching *General Hospital*; and I thought, 'Composition is a crock, anyway.'" I do hear the word *hospital* quite often, though; elementary ESL students rely on it and *doctor* in the first ten seconds of their excuses.

Admittedly, listening to excuses is a minor pain; but because they are irksome, I immediately loved the perverse logic of the excuse assignment. Gary Short, a colleague at Modesto Junior College, assigned, as an essay topic, an entirely false written excuse for a missed class; he asked for Russian ballerinas, the CIA, bank robberies—anything but flat tires and sick uncles. Intrigued, I told my basic writing class that henceforth an "excused absence" would count as half an absence and that to get an absence "excused" a student would have to stand in front of the class and read a two-page lie, the more outrageous the better.

About a week later I had forgotten about giving the assignment when a woman raised her hand and asked to read her excuse. She had been struggling with her umbrella in a recent rainstorm, she said, when she was wafted to Hawaii where she landed in a mixed drink. Regularly, before I had unpacked my satchel, someone would say "Joe has an excuse" or "Let's hear Dawn's excuse." In four classes now I have been greeted by basic writing students eager to read and to hear excuses like these:

> . . . The entire SWAT team had been called in, and the convict was showing no signs of breaking down. I began to push my way through the crowd. I knocked the police sergeant down and walked right up to the criminal. I began to remind him of his responsibility to his parents and to his pet cockroach, and that he should be a law-abiding citizen. My talk began to get through to him, especially the part about the cockroach, and he began to cry . . . . Lupe Lopez

> . . . We live in Loomis on a few acres, which means we still have well water. So I was in the shower whistling as I was lathering all over. Then before I rinsed, there was a loud noise and the water stopped. Panic set in . . . . My father went outside to check the circuit breakers and the pump. He found the pump very hot and the circuit breaker on. I was starting to get sticky . . . . Our closest neighbors live down the road a couple hundred yards, so I got my thongs and wrapped a towel around me . . . . John Barr

> . . . Hours later I was standing down at the bottom of a hugh pink marshmallow mountain. We started climbing but we kept sinking. Finally we reached the top and saw a city full of marshmallow people . . . . We came to a campfire . . . Dede Mayfield

But these excuses do much more than spur lively writing and exuberant sharing; they make the classroom atmosphere healthier. When a student stands to read a paper, I take a seat in the class, and we laugh together and make ritual mockery of the adversarial why-didn't-you-do-your-homework? syndrome. The satire, at times, gets thick:

> . . . While I was getting out of the car, a mob of reporters wanted to talk to me. I told them that I had to go because I didn't want to miss my English class, but they wouldn't take no for an answer . . . . I knew I had missed class and thought to myself, "my teacher must be crying by now . . . ." Isabel Maciel

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God said, "Are you going to pray?"

I said, "Yes, tomorrow, I'm driving home tonight."

He said, "No."

"No? What do you mean, no?"

God said, 'Leave now. You must pray tonight too. Yom Kippur is for asking for forgiveness, and you need more than one day."

I said, "God, I'm sorry—I just can't leave now. I have English next period—I just can't miss."

. . . "You'd argue with God? I have the power of life and death . . . ." Suzie Silverman

Attendance is important, and I keep track of it. But the rollbook consequently becomes a type of negative reinforcement which slightly tarnishes motivation, as does an assignment to get to page 127 by Wednesday, even in a text that students may have wanted to read. "Excuses" help reverse this trend; even as students miss class, they are creatively involved with its subject—composing.

One last benefit: these excuses are a bit like Rorschach tests. Preoccupations virtually froth into the daylight. As we hear, from one man, excuses about packs of dogs chasing him into his car, mice and snails sharing his dank prison walls, snipers following him on the freeway, we get a peek at his bad-dream material, his sense of being hounded and caged. As we hear again and again, from one woman, stories of being swept up by the wind and of jet flights to visit movie stars, we get a sense of her new freedom in being away from home for the first time—and of her difficulty staying grounded amidst it.

Often recurring motifs emerge in a string of excuses, as in a series of paintings, by one artist:

. . . There was a message on my door saying, "If you want to see Gumby alive again, report with two bags of lemon drops and a can of Mountain Dew to the lobby in ten minutes . . ."

. . . Once in the kitchen, my cucumber abductor shoved me against the wall. I looked up. Across the room was a variety of domineering vegetables with ladles of cucumber dressing in their clutches. (Flashes of eating my salad each night with cucumber dressing entered my mind, and I wondered, "what will I be eating tonight? Fruit salad?")

. . . as I was getting psyched to write my essay for class, I ate a Twinkie with pink filling.

The next thing I knew I was standing in my nightgown looking across the room at the President of the United States . . . . Now the real question: why was there a gun in my hand? What was I doing? I couldn't kill Ronald Reagan. I might go to jail.

Against my will, I felt my hand rising and pointing the gun at Ronnie. I tried to fight what was happening—it wasn't me; it really wasn't me. As I pulled the trigger, pink Twinkie filling sprayed out . . . . Heather Gower

And, as groups of artists are influenced by one another's work, students, inspired by one another's excuses, begin to adopt new lines of fantasy, to discover new types of reverie. And the process is useful for me: I think I learn more about where missing students have been from their lies than from their "real" excuses.

AUTHOR'S NOTE:

[This] writing assignment . . . at once deals with the problem of absence and helps to boost classroom morale. Gary Short, who came up with the idea and who is now teaching at CSU Sacramento, tells me that it is being used widely there. *i.e.*'s readers, community college instructors, might use this assignment even more widely, since we have so many of the basic writing students to whom, I think, this assignment is best suited.

Gary Budd
Modesto Junior College

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LEARNING STRATEGIES: THE FLIP-SIDE OF TEACHING STRATEGIES

I am happy to report that educational psychologists, demonstrating their infinite wisdom, have once again found students. This may appear to be a curious statement to those of you who never knew we lost them. However, for many years, the focus of research and theorizing about teaching focused almost exclusively on the *teacher*, teaching processes, teaching materials, and teaching outcomes. Student variables were merely the dependent measures in these studies. We examined the effects of all sorts of teaching variables both individually and in combination on student achievement.

However, along with the cognitive revolution in psychology came a change in our view of human learning. More recent theories and conceptual frameworks in educational psychology tend to focus on understanding how incoming information is selected, processed, structured in memory, and recalled for later use. This focus on thought, or cognition, has changed our general conception of the teaching/learning process in several ways. Instead of viewing learners as passively recording the stimuli that the teacher presents, learning is viewed as an active process that occurs within the learner and which can be influenced by the learner. Instead of viewing the outcome of learning as depending mainly on what the teacher presents, the outcome of learning is supposed to depend jointly on what information is presented and on how the learner processes that information.

Learning Strategies

One outcome of this change in focus is that a number of learner variables have been receiving increasing attention by researchers and practitioners because of their importance to current conceptions of the learner's active role in the teaching/learning act. In particular, these conceptual frameworks suggest that the effects of instruction depend partly on what a learner *knows*, such as the learner's prior knowledge about a topic or related information, what a learner *thinks* about before, during, and after a learning activity, such as the cognitive processes and strategic planning operations used, and what type of *personal context* the learner generates for a learning activity, such as the learner's motivational level or affective state. Many of these variables are investigated under the label *learning strategies*. Learning strategies can be defined as behaviors and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning and that are intended to influence the learner's knowledge acquisition processes. Thus, the goal of any particular learning strategy may be to affect the learner's motivational or affective state, or the way in which the learner selects, acquires, organizes, or integrates new knowledge. For example, in preparing for a test a student may use positive self-talk to reduce feelings of anxiety; in learning from a text, a learner may generate summaries for each section; in learning about a scientific concept, a learner may take notes about the material. Each of these activities—coaching, summarizing, and notetaking—are examples of learning strategies.

There are eight major categories of learning strategies a learner can use to improve his/her efficiency:

rehearsal strategies for basic learning tasks, such as repeating names of items in an ordered list. An example of an academic task that could be facilitated by this strategy would be remembering the order in which Shakespeare introduces the characters in the play *Hamlet*.

rehearsal strategies for complex learning tasks, such as copying, underlining, or shadowing the material presented in class. An example of an academic task using this strategy would be underlining the main ideas in a text or recopying portions of a set of lecture notes.

elaboration strategies for basic learning tasks, such as forming a mental image or sentence relating the items in each pair for a paired-associate list of words. An example of an academic task using this strategy would be forming a mental image of a scene described by a poem in order to remember the sequence of the poem.

elaboration strategies for complex tasks, such as paraphrasing, summarizing, or describing how new information relates to existing knowledge. An example of an academic task using this strategy would be relating the information presented about the structure of complex molecules to the information presented earlier about the structure of simple molecules.

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organizational strategies for basic learning tasks, such as grouping or ordering to-be-learned items from a list or a section of prose. An example of an academic task using this strategy would be organizing foreign vocabulary words into the categories for parts of speech, or creating a chronological listing of the events that led up to the Declaration of Independence.

organizational strategies for complex tasks, such as outlining a passage or creating a hierarchy. An example of an academic task using this strategy would be outlining assigned chapters in the textbook, or creating a diagram to show the relationship among the stress forces in a structural design.

comprehension monitoring strategies, such as checking for comprehension failures. An example of this strategy would be using self-questioning to check understanding of the material presented in class or using the questions at the beginning of a section to guide one's reading behavior while studying a textbook.

affective strategies, such as being alert and relaxed, to help overcome test anxiety. An example of this strategy would be reducing external distractions by studying in a quiet place, or using thought stopping to prevent thoughts of doing poorly from directing attention away from the test and toward fears of failure.

The Metacurriculum

Increasing one's use of learning strategies can have a significant impact on learning and performance. (This is particularly true for academically underprepared students.) One way that college instructors can enhance their students' ability to be independent, responsible, and effective learners is by teaching these skills along with the content-based curriculum. By using instructional methods that demonstrate, cue, and reinforce the use of learning strategies, we all can implement a learning strategies metacurriculum. It is a metacurriculum in the sense that it requires an analysis of the regular course curriculum and the learning demands it places on the students.

The classroom provides many opportunities for teaching these strategies. For example, when you pause to review and answer student questions before continuing with a lecture, that is a good time to talk about self-review and the role that self-testing can play in both consolidating new learning and identifying areas of misunderstanding or confusion. Explaining how this teaching strategy can be used as an individual learning strategy by each student and why it is helpful would not take very much time away from regular instructional activities. As another example, the announcement of a class test is an excellent time to present strategies for test preparation as well as for coping with test anxiety. A brief discussion of negative self-talk and how to turn it into positive self-talk can introduce students to this powerful self-management skill. Finally, when you use an analogy to help make a new concept more meaningful, you also create the opportunity to pause and discuss the rationale for using this technique as a teaching strategy and how students can create their own analogies as a learning strategy.

The underlying principle in each of these examples involves examining the curriculum for the types of learning that are required and reflecting upon the assumptions concerning learning strategies which form the basis for effective teaching strategies. This process is not very different from what good teachers already do in preparing for their classes. The difference is that instead of focusing only on developing more effective teaching strategies, the teacher is also focusing on the learning strategies implicit in these methods. Making these assumptions explicit and teaching students how to incorporate them into their own study activities is the basic building block of the metacurriculum. Teaching strategies are the flip-side of effective learning strategies. Clearly, a single exposure would not be sufficient for most students to acquire new learning strategies. However, repeated exposure to a technique in a variety of contexts over a period of time and by a variety of instructors could contribute to the students' development and refinement of an effective learning strategies repertoire and a new sense of responsibility for their own learning.

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SERVING THE DISLOCATED WORKER

History and Purpose

Late in 1982 a textile plant in the small, one-industry town of Ware Shoals discontinued its production, forcing some 600 people out of work. For many of them, working a lifetime at the local mill had been the tradition of generations. Few had ever contemplated any other kind of work, and the community itself provided few alternatives anyway. Most of these people had worked at jobs which were now obsolete, and many of them lacked the basic educational skills to qualify for other employment—or even to seek it competently. Officials of Piedmont Technical College were determined to respond to the distress of their neighbors. Our objective was simple enough: to get as many dislocated people as possible back to work, as soon as possible and at the lowest attainable cost! Although recruitment, certification of eligibility (actually determined by the local office of the State Employment Security Commission), enrollment, job development and placement are integral and necessary features of our program, our primary task was to prepare our participants to obtain and to retain permanent unsubsidized employment. The program now operates statewide.

Description of Training and Services

To reach the people for whom this program is designed, the project director at each technical college conducts continuing recruitment and publicity, including announcements in the media, presentations to civic organizations, distribution of posters and brochures, and consultation with local employers. Since we wish to *prevent* unemployment whenever possible and because it is easier to reach people eligible for our assistance before they are scattered by unemployment, we provide orientation and six to nine hours of basic employment skills training at the request of employers who plan substantial personnel reductions.

For most people who face unemployment or have been laid-off, our next task is certification. If during an initial interview an applicant or inquirer appears eligible under state-mandated guidelines for Title III, he or she is referred to the Employment Security Commission for a determination of eligibility. If certified, this person is enrolled in the program. If technically ineligible under both Title III and Title IIA (for disadvantaged persons), the applicant may be enrolled as a "non-eligible" and offered all services of the program which can be provided under state funds especially reserved for that purpose.

Once enrolled, participants receive intensive instruction in employment skills—a sort of "basic training" which may last anywhere from three days to four weeks or more. The basic model for this essential component of our program presupposes approximately 70 hours of assessment, career exploration, developing employability skills, coping with unemployment, and other services for each individual in the training group. The general purpose of this training is to foster a realistic assessment of the relevance of one's skills to a changing labor market and to structure an effective strategy for adapting to unemployment and subsequent re-employment in a different occupation or environment. The all-important "plan" for each individual may center on finding new work immediately, going back to school for retraining, or a combination of both as ways of attaining short-term and long-range personal goals.

Assessment is gathering the information necessary to formulate appropriate activities for each individual. Each person's work history provides indications of strengths and limitations in terms of entering new employment. Participants identify their functional and transferable skills, barriers to employment, and their readiness for training and the job market. They explore their values, personal characteristics, and self-image. Assessment also involves testing for basic educational skills and achievement, using standardized inventories.

Career exploration encourages the students to survey a broad range of career options before they narrow their goals prematurely to specific (and perhaps ill-chosen) ones. This process includes an appraisal of assessment data and individual potential, matching this self-appraisal with the job market and with options for formal training, researching possible careers and making tentative decisions about education and work.

The component called "*employability skills*" is designed to help participants find, obtain and keep a new job. Thirty or forty hours are devoted to building effective communication skills, assertiveness, and confidence; promoting motivation and a positive attitude; and setting realistic goals in terms of personal values and abilities. The participants learn how to find and tap into the "hidden job market," how to select a job and to conduct a

job search, how to frame an effective resume, how to write cover and follow-up letters, and how to fill out applications. The instruction stresses successful interviewing techniques and appropriate personal appearance, as well as how to maintain a job after it is obtained.

Unemployment is a harsh reality accompanied by a combination of psychological, domestic, and financial problems which themselves often impede or prevent personal and financial recovery. So, about 15 hours are spent *assisting our students to face and to cope with being unemployed,* teaching them to respond positively and creatively to their situation, to manage stress, to husband their money and time, and to use the helping resources and agencies of the community in addition to their own inherent strengths. We try to nurture their ability to face and to solve the problems with which they are faced. Perhaps above all, we attempt to restore or to enhance their self-esteem—always one of the first casualties of losing one's job. One of our most perceptive program directors likes to pose a question: "What was your name when you worked at the mill?" When the student answers, he continues: "And what is your name now?" When the name is repeated, he says: "Isn't it amazing! The only thing those folks can take from you is your job. The rest you donate."

We *personalize this training* through individual guidance and academic planning, personal counseling, referring students to other programs and resources, and reinforcing activities which took place within the group. We prepare and file an Employment Development Plan for each student, which establishes his career and educational objectives and outlines the means by which he will attempt to attain them.

Our basic model allows flexibility for providing some groups with additional generic entry-level training.

Having completed "basic training," some students are ready to look for work. We assist them through our own contacts, through the college placement offices, and through the Local Job Service. The plan for other students calls for additional training, either upgrading their basic educational level or learning new vocational skills. Instruction in reading, writing, mathematics, and science enables some people to obtain a GED and others to achieve whatever level of basic educational competency they need to undertake advanced technical training successfully or to qualify for new employment.

Vocational and technical training can take many forms, depending on the needs and readiness of the student. It may mean simply credentialing, through our system, the specific skills the student has already mastered in special technologies, supervision, or human relations. More often, it involves degree or diploma courses in the regular technical college curriculum, on-the-job training, classes offered by private contractors or proprietary schools, or courses sponsored by the state departments of Vocational Education. Many short-term (and some relatively long-term) special courses are contracted by the State Board and offered by the technical colleges, which are close to local businesses and industry and cognizant of their specific needs for skills training.

Evaluation and New Directions for 1985-1986

We are encouraged that 78% of our participants leaving the program enter new employment. Nevertheless, we have found that about half of the students who enroll in formal training do not complete it successfully, usually because they leave training to take a job. Indeed, experience with dislocated workers convinces us that most unemployed persons—especially older heads-of-households—want jobs rather than retraining, even at lowered wages. In addition, many cannot profit much from vocational retraining (of any sophistication) because they lack fundamental educational skills.

The most effective retraining programs are of short duration, and the skills they offer are both limited and very specific. In the coming year we will emphasize basic employability skills training and options for short-term vocational training, supporting long-term courses only for those who are most highly motivated and who stand to benefit substantially from extensive retraining.

By consolidating some individual Dislocated Workers Centers into regionally-based teams and by reserving funds for special training programs instead of distributing them in advance to the Centers, we can earmark our resources and trained personnel for areas where the need is most critical at any given time. Our emphasis will be on getting people to work as quickly as possible, but at the same time encouraging them to set long-range educational and vocational goals which they can achieve as part-time students.

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USING STUDENT OBSERVERS IN THE CLASSROOM

Instructors generally cannot tell whether their students totally understand the material presented in class. The same vacant stare can mean boredom (the material is too easy; you could cover the topic more quickly), confusion (the material is too difficult; you should give another example), disinterest (the sun is shining; it would be a great day to work on a tan), or fatigue (they stayed up all night writing an English literature paper).

By using a student observer in my class, I discovered the meaning of many of the vacant stares. The student observer provided feedback on the pace of the class, the use of teaching techniques and teaching aids, and the effectiveness of my teaching style, and increased my awareness of how external stimuli (e.g. a test in the next hour) could distract the students in my class.

Selecting an Observer

At St. Olaf College, student observers are recruited, selected, and trained through the center which provides teaching support for faculty. After submitting a request for a student observer, I was asked whether I required a student who had previously taken accounting (my teaching area) or if a trained observer with no previous accounting experience would be acceptable. While my first inclination was to request a student with experience in accounting, I later decided that the information I wanted from an observer was best obtained by someone who was at the same level as the students. My student observer, a junior education major, was training to teach German to high school students.

Generally, an instructor is most successful at procuring a student observer if he limits the amount of experience required in the academic area. Often, the lack of previous experience by the observer is a strength rather than a weakness. In using a student observer, my major concern was whether the pace of my introductory accounting class was appropriate. An experienced accounting student may actually have had difficulty judging whether the class was moving too quickly since he would already have been familiar with the material.

Sometimes it is mandatory that the student have previous experience in the particular academic area. A student observer who is commenting on the presentation of content material in an advanced class must have prior knowledge of prerequisite information.

My Observer in the Classroom

My student observer assumed the role of a regular member of the class, but sat in the back of the classroom so that she could unobtrusively observe the rest of the class. Since there were over forty students in the class, most did not even notice that she was not a typical student. During the final week of class, I introduced her and explained her role there. I then left the classroom early and had her collect comments from the students.

Communicating With My Observer

My student observer and I met for one-half hour once a week throughout the semester. We began the session with my impressions about the past week's classes, followed by her insights. (Often, her review of class was more favorable than mine.) Next, we would discuss some specific area that she was observing (e.g., the pace of the class). At the end of the session, we would discuss any new behavior she had noticed during the past week and set goals for the next week's classes.

What I Learned From My Student Observer

Pace of the Course—My observer believed that if she could follow the lecture, the pace was not too rapid. By observing whether the students were taking notes and listening to their comments before and after class, she could determine whether the material was being covered too quickly. She determined that often the blank stare was not caused by boredom or confusion but by external forces (e.g., beautiful weather or an exam in their next class) over which I had little control or influence.

Use of the Blackboard—The observer noted that I was using the blackboard to highlight and illustrate the major topics, but I often used it in a confusing fashion. I tended to start in the middle and work my way out to the ends, erasing material as I went along. Since I was already familiar with the problem and knew which material was part of the current example, the mixture of current and previous problems on the board did not seem

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confusing to me. She observed that the students often had difficulty following my writing and erasing.

The observer made the simple, but extremely effective suggestion that I start on the left hand side of the board and work to the right hand side. Then when I reach the right hand side (after asking if there are any questions and if anyone still needs the material on the board), I should erase the entire board and begin again on the left side. Taking the time to erase the entire board accomplishes two objectives. First, it prevents students from confusing an earlier example with a later example. Second, while I am erasing the board, the students have the opportunity to finish any additional comments they wish to include in their notes.

Use of Preview Techniques—I generally include a brief outline of the topics to be covered during the hour in the upper left hand corner of the blackboard. Since I had never received any feedback from students about the usefulness of this outline, I had become remiss in referring to it during class. The observer noted that students always included this outline in their notes. She felt that the outline clarified the topics covered in class and encouraged me to refer to the outline during class. She also suggested that as an effective conclusion to class, I could refer to the outline and summarize the major points covered.

Administration of Quizzes—During the semester, I give several unannounced quizzes. These quizzes are usually administered at the end of the hour to limit the amount of class time devoted to taking examinations. I did not realize, however, that when I walk into the classroom with quizzes, the bulk of the students spend the rest of the hour furtively studying for the quiz rather than listening to the lecture. The student observer suggested that I either administer the quiz at the beginning of the hour or somehow disguise the bundle of quizzes so the students will not realize that a surprise quiz will be given.

Adherence to Dates on Syllabus—My course syllabus and outline previously included specific dates on which topics would be covered and when homework was due. In the first weeks of class, I always emphasized that these dates were tentative and subject to change. The observer noted that students have difficulty dealing with this uncertainty and would prefer that I follow the dates on the outline. While I appreciate the students' desire for certainty, I cannot effectively teach a class if I am tied to a rigid timetable. I prefer the flexibility to alter my lecture if students have questions. Instead of changing my lectures to consistently agree with the timetable on the syllabus, I have instead changed my syllabus to include less detailed dates. My syllabus now lists topics and assignments on a weekly rather than a daily basis.

Humor as Part of Teaching Style—While I have always found accounting to be an interesting subject, family and friends have indicated that mine is a minority opinion. Since I am aware that many students are actually afraid of accounting, I try to make the lectures interesting and non-threatening, often by using humor. I am usually able to find humorous anecdotes and examples for rather dry areas of accounting. The student observer indicated that my use of humor was a strength rather than a weakness.

Hints for a Good Experience With a Student Observer

1. The proper observer must be selected. The student selected as an observer must be willing to attend class regularly.
2. The observer must be properly trained and have regular meetings with the faculty advisor to the observer program.
3. The faculty member must have objectives for using the observer. If an advanced class is being observed, the student observer may need to have taken the prerequisites for the advanced course, while a student observing an introductory class will probably not need any previous experience in the academic area. The instructor should also set objectives so that the observer has specific guidelines on the types of teaching behaviors to be observed.
4. The faculty member must be open to criticism. A hostile attitude toward criticism may cause the student to withhold any negative observations.
5. The instructor and student observer should meet regularly.

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LEARNING TO READ—IN COLLEGE

WASHINGTON—The Timkens sent their child Laura off to college with a check for $7,000 in tuition and thought that was the end of it. But soon after they received a letter from the dean of studies.

"We are happy to announce that we have instituted a remedial reading class for college freshmen and strongly advise that your daughter Laura participate in it. If she doesn't, it is our opinion that Laura will not be able to keep up with her studies. The cost will be $250."

Timken read the letter. "I thought Laura could read," he said to his wife.

"So did I. I think the problem is she can read, but she has no comprehension of what she reads."

"What did they teach her in public school and high school?"

"I have no idea, but if the college says she needs remedial reading we better see that she gets it or $7,000 will go down the drain."

A few days later they got another letter from the dean.

"The English Deaprtment has brought to our attention the fact that your daughter Laura cannot write. They have recommended that she enroll in the remedial writing class which we started two years ago when we discovered this was a common problem for most college students. If you agree that Laura should get this special help, please send a check for $250."

Timken was now angry.

"How did she get in college if she can't write?"

Mrs. Timken was much more sanguine about it. "Laura can write. She just can't write complete sentences."

"She went to school for 12 years and she can't write a sentence?"

"Don't you remember? They were much more interested in Laura's thoughts than they were in how she put them down. The teacher's main concern was with expanding her consciousness."

"That's hogwash," Timken said. "They made an illiterate out of my daughter."

"I believe that's a bit strong. Laura graduated with honors in analytical consciousness-raising."

"But she can't write."

"I'm sure the college can help her learn to write. After all, it is an institution of higher learning."

"So now we have to pay $250 for something they should have taught her in grammar school?"

"Don't you remember when we went to the PTA meeting years ago, and the principal said it was the school's responsibility to make good citizens out of the students, and the parents' responsibility to teach the children how to read and write? Carlton, we're the ones who failed."

Timken sent in the check, and was not surprised to find another letter waiting for him a week later.

It read: "It has come to our attention that no one in the freshman class can add, multiply, subtract, or divide simple sums. We feel it is urgent that this deficiency be corrected early in a student's college career. Therefore, we are setting up a special remedial arithmetic course. The fee will be $250. If you do not want your daughter to take this course, we cannot guarantee she will graduate."

Once again, Timken went through the ceiling. "I thought Laura got A's in math in high school."

Mrs. Timken said, "That was conceptional math. Her courses had to do with the advanced integration of numbers. She never could add or subtract them. Don't you recall when you complained once about it and Laura's teacher told you, `She can always learn to add and subtract when she gets to college'?"

Art Buchwald

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APPLICATION: COACHING STRATEGIES IN ORAL ANATOMY

[Editor's Note: A recent *Innovation Abstracts* (Vol. VI, No. 23), "Coaching Mathematics and Other Academic Sports," written by Mr. Linc. Fisch, described an interesting variety of teaching techniques. Dr. Ollie Rominger, of El Paso Community College, applied the coaching strategy in his Dental Anatomy Class with great success. We would like to report Dr. Rominger's application and results.]

Unit Objective: Given a human skull, name and identify the cranial and facial bones, landmarks, reference points, forameni, cavities, processes, and sutures. Within the course of DENT 3102: Oral Anatomy, the student is required to name and identify over 100 radiological landmarks, bones, and anatomical parts of the human skull. Student evaluation is obtained by a practical examination that consists of 40 stations (identifications) on human skulls. The student is allowed 60 seconds per station to identify the marked structure by writing its correct name and indicating that it is left, right, or unpaired.

History: Under laboratory supervision (2 lab instructors/16 students), each student was furnished a human skull, three anatomical view sheets (frontal, basal, lateral), and a three-page list of anatomical structures that they were required to identify. With the aid of their texts and my supplemental texts, drawings, and disarticulated skulls, they had 12 hours to learn the material and to prepare for the practical examination. The students studied in groups of two while the instructors visited the groups and aided with the more difficult identifications. The practical examination, unfortunately, came near the end of the fall semester.

Problems: Because the evaluation had a time limit per station, and because the evaluation came at a time when many students were suffering from (real or imagined) burnout, the practical exam had a history of being extremely stressful for a majority of the students. Complaints of nausea and gastro-intestinal disorders were commonly voiced by students prior to the exam's start. When the practical was graded, the better students made the highest marks, and the poorer students made the lowest marks—although the instructors spent most of their time with the poorer students.

Changes: (*Coaching Analogy*) Last fall, we applied the coaching strategies from *Innovation Abstracts*. We began by limiting the number of plays (identifications) for each practice (laboratory); therefore, the players were not burdened by trying to learn too much too soon. By pointing to skull structures, we had the students drill each other: name the part, landmark, or bone. We visited the groups of two and asked the same questions, corrected mistakes, and reinforced proper answers. Their performance improved as they practiced. During the last hour of each lab period, we set up a short mock practical, without a grade, but under game conditions. We left time for the students to review the exam and correct their mistakes, to identify their weaknesses, and to ask questions. The team became more confident after each scrimmage (mock practical).

The Big Game: (*Examination*) When game day arrived, attitudes had changed from negative stress-related complaints to positive anticipations. Players did not require 60 seconds to execute, and I cut the time to 50...then 40 seconds. There were no signs of exhaustion or groans of defeat when the game ended.

Final Score: 40 stations: +20 points for correct name.
+0.5 points for correctly indicating left, right, or unpaired.

16-member class: 97 grade average. 9.3 points higher than the average of the prior 7 classes.

Observation: Student stress was not a factor in the evaluation. Although the dramatic rise in the class average was of practical worth, the raised values of the students' self-esteem were just as important, especially in the poorer students. Pride of accomplishment is difficult to measure on a 100 point scale.

Comment: Linc. Fisch and I have been corresponding and exchanging ideas.

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INNOVATION ABSTRACTS VOL. VII NO. 23

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TEACHING THINKING SKILLS

What can you do to teach thinking? I am going to condense what I take to be the trend of contemporary research into seven principles, each one of which seems to enhance the teaching of thinking, whether in a subject matter context or in a stand-alone course. For convenience, let us use the one word "wit" to stand for problem-solving ability, inventiveness, and whatever other capacities for thinking one might want to develop. All seven of the principles have to do with two questions: "What is wit made of?" and "How does it get into your head?" The general answer is: Wit in considerable part is made of thinking *tactics*, and we can improve students' thinking by imparting a greater and more effective repertoire of tactics. Three principles follow from that, principles substantiated to some degree by existing research.

First Principle: *Foster a tactical attitude.* This broadest principle is perhaps the most important, too. It recommends teaching in such a way that students begin to attend to their own processes and consider the tactics they use to deal with a particular kind of situation, such as solving a math problem or writing an essay. By and large, we tend to focus on the product in progress, the essay, for instance, or the problem solution, with little attention left over for the process by which we create that product. A good deal of research suggests that skilled problem solvers are often rather aware of the processes they use and that less skilled problem solvers can learn to attend to and enhance their own processes simply by focusing on them from time to time and proceeding more mindfully.

Second Principle: *Make tactics explicit.* This can mean one of two things. It can mean direct teaching of explicit tactics—for instance, for mathematical problem-solving or writing. In the case of mathematical problem-solving, students can be taught strategies for making a diagram, considering a special case, or breaking problems down into parts. But making tactics explicit does not necessarily mean "spoon-feeding" tactics to the students. Direct teaching aside, it can also mean establishing an instructional context in which the attention of students is drawn to the tactical side of things, and they are provoked into designing their own tactics and explicitly articulating their tactics to themselves. Such an approach has been used for remedial math education where students are asked to problem-solve by sitting with one another in pairs and talking about how they go about doing what they are doing.

In regard to making tactics explicit, many people feel that this is somehow unwise, that what you should do is set up a situation which is rich with the kind of thinking involved and expect students to soak it up. Regrettably, the evidence is that this does not work, except for the more able student who will detect the pattern even when it is not made explicit. Beware of the myth of "soaking up!"

Third Principle: *Students need managerial as well as particular tactics.* Managerial tactics mean tactics for controlling the overall process of problem-solving or writing or whatever. Particular tactics are matters of handling particular sub-problems that arise, like writing a paragraph or constructing an example. But besides that, there is evidence that students need overall task management tactics, such as asking themselves these questions every few minutes: "What approach have I been taking?" "Has that approach been working out well?" and "Should I try a different approach?" Unless these high-level questions are asked fairly often, students tend to lose their way amid the forest of lower-level tactics they may have acquired.

These three principles relate to the general point that wit is made up partly of tactics. Four more principles are related to another notion—that wit is somewhat context specific. Research over the past decade has disclosed that in such areas as mathematical problem-solving, history, problem-solving in physics, and so on, there are a number of tactical principles that are particular to the discipline. You cannot expect to teach a general problem-solving course that applies to everything in sight and have that course empower students widely across all subject matters. What do we do about this?

Principle Four: *Teach to the task.* Think about what you want students to do and teach to that. For instance, if you want students to reason well in writing essays, you do not teach symbolic logic. True, symbolic logic may have something to do with reasoning well in essays, but characteristically, not enough; it is too different. Teach reasoning in essayistic contexts if you *want* reasoning in essayistic contexts. Oddly enough, it is one of the

standard pitfalls of education that to get result *A* we teach *B* and hope it will somehow transfer to *A*! Why not teach *A* in the first place?

Principle Five: *Teach knowledge in action*. There is a problem in psychology we call the problem of inert knowledge. For instance, it is commonplace in medical training where students memorize a large body of facts; they prove unable to martial these facts when it comes to diagnosis and treatment. The remedy for inert knowledge is to teach knowledge in the context of active problem-solving, where the knowledge is put into use as it is being acquired.

Principle Six: *Teach for transfer*. In the past, it has been thought that if you learn some general principle in context *A*, it would handily transfer to contexts *B*, *C*, *D*, and *E*. In the last decade, the problem of transfer has emerged as one of the principle difficulties of teaching thinking skills. It turns out that people often do not generalize; they do not carry principles over to other contexts. We have to fight against this by teaching for transfer.

There are two broad ways to do his. One is by varied practice. Very often in instructional contexts the practice is narrow. A few types of problems repeat over and over, and this tends to lead to learning that is context-bound. If you calculatedly and drastically vary the kinds of problems to which principles are being applied, you can help generalize the learning. The second method is explicit abstraction and application. That is, students are directly provoked to generalize and apply in odd circumstances what has been taught.

Principle Seven: *Bear in mind the generality-power trade-off*. As mentioned previously, wit is somewhat context specific; but it is not completely context specific. There are some general strategic principles that cut across problem-solving of all sorts. For instance, spending time defining the problem is a time allocation principle that applies in nearly any context and one that is widely neglected, too. In trying to capture both the generality and the context specificity that are there, psychologists have come to speak of a generality-power trade-off. This means that the more general a tactical principle is, the less power it has in any one context. If you want math scores and math scores alone to go up, then you teach to the task, focusing on general and specific tactics that apply to mathematics. Some of them do not apply in general. If you want gains on a broad front, you may teach tactics of general problem-solving; and you will find gains on a broad front, but modest ones. This trade-off between generality and power has to be kept in mind when you make choices between such options as a stand-alone course which is aimed at affecting change over a wide range of subject matters versus integrating the teaching of thinking skills into a particular subject matter.

Let me review. "What is wit made of?" and "How does it get into your head?" I have argued that, according to recent experiments, it is quite possible to teach thinking skills. And I have urged that we, in fact, know some general principles to guide the teaching of thinking skills both in stand-alone courses and in subject matter contexts. The principles again were: foster a tactical attitude, make tactics explicit, teach managerial strategies as well as particular strategies, teach to the task, teach knowledge in action, teach for transfer, and bear in mind the generality-power trade-off in your instructional planning.

I find it very encouraging that at this point in time we have even those broad principles to guide such efforts. Because, as broad as they are, those principles do argue against a number of approaches to the fostering of thinking skills that have been taken in the past. I am encouraged by the notion that we may be able to engineer such instruction.

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Edited from his oral presentation at the 1985 AAHE National Conference.

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PASSION AND PEDAGOGY

We were discussing Socrates' conversation with Glaucon about qualities of a good thinker. Socrates used the word "passion" frequently—"passion for truth," "passion for the whole of reality," "one whose passions flow toward knowledge." It struck some of my students as odd that such a term as "passion" should be used in connection with academic learning. I know it struck them, because as I got more and more excited in talking about Socrates' views—my arms flailing in the air, my voice rising to a sports-fan screech level to make the point that one could not really learn without passion—there were a few quizzical smiles; and for this class of 40 freshmen studying Plato's *Republic*, that amounted to a riot of reaction.

We went on to notice that in the very next passage, Socrates discussed the importance of a good memory. He said good thinkers have good memories. Knowing Socrates well enough by now, several students were at least able to suggest that passion and a good memory must somehow be connected in Socrates' thinking. I agreed. To pursue it further, I asked why some of them could remember amazing arrays of complicated sports statistics going back several years and could not remember that it was Polemarchus rather than Glaucon who believed that justice is a matter of helping your friends and harming your enemies. It did not take us long to agree that it is much easier to remember something one gets worked up about, even easier to understand it, than to remember something unexciting like who said what about morality and justice. I suggested that it might have something to do with heartbeat, muscle tension, and rate of breathing. Those quizzical smiles quickly vanished. The bell rang, several students woke up, others stretched and yawned, a few maintained a puzzled look; I gathered my materials, took a deep breath, and accompanied my thumping heart out of there.

What does it take? It has not been until recently that I have been willing to admit that my commanding voice and marvelous explanations are just not sufficient to rouse students to a fever pitch of passion for the truth. Now I am convinced that it is *their* passion (not just mine) that is the key. I am convinced that Socrates is right—passion is often the missing ingredient in their learning and remembering.

If teaching is an art (and let us agree that it is in some respects), I believe we need the imagination of the artist as well as the knowledge of the subjects we teach to be able to meet the challenges of a student body largely without passion for learning and to be able to come up with some new approaches to teaching. For we must be able, not only to understand what interests and excites students, but to teach in a manner that does in fact interest and excite them. You may feel that it is not your job to do this. You spent the time and exerted the will to learn; your students should do the same. And if they don't think it's worth the effort, they should pay the penalty.

I would agree except for the fact that it is sometimes easy to forget how some of us came by our own sense of urgency about the things we studied. For some of us there were teachers "back there" whose passion for learning was demonstrable and contagious. They went beyond the academic "slow-game"; they inflamed the mind, so that for those few crucial moments it danced with excitement. And for us there was no going back. I say that some of us experienced that. I include myself. Others, I am sure, had no need of it. They were "blessed" early—was it a gift of nature, a gift of parents? For some reason they had a passion for knowledge, and they remembered well. These teachers, no doubt, will find it hard to sympathize with my passive, dull students. So maybe it takes one to know one.

I am not willing to write-off the drowsy, yawning, bleary-eyed freshmen in my general education classes. They sit before me like stumps on logs. They don't respond to questions. They refuse to read. They cannot write. I know that many of them will be gone in another semester or two, victims, we say, of a poor public education. But I do not believe that remediation is the entire answer. I can also criticize them and scold them, but that doesn't work. The threat and pressure of daily quizzes is another approach. I doubt that the effect is lasting. They will not remember well.

What I want before they go is a shot at their cardiovascular systems and their lungs. I want them for once to get passionate about an idea and to see what it does to their minds. I am persuaded by my own early experiences and by some recent observations that understanding and recall in students can be dramatically

improved when the heart beats rapidly and the lungs take in gobs of air. I know you can't teach passion. The contagion of passion is almost always an interpersonal event, a moment when the person-with-others experiences a dramatic change of attitude because of a strange new emotional intensity about an issue, an idea, a fact.

Our department now stages debates each semester. They are deliberate attempts at "art" in the service of pedagogy. We sat down last year and fought frustration with imagination. "How can we turn our students on to philosophical ideas? Let's do something that combines philosophical thinking with drama, or if not drama at a high level, at least a raucous atmosphere." We decided to choose three positions on a topic—say "Is There Life After Death?"—put on our academic robes, march into the Clark Room, and (following a structured debate format, stating our initial positions from prepared manuscripts, followed by rebuttals) proceed to yell at each other, insult each other, get the crowd to laugh at our opponents, boo and hiss them, and cheer when one of us makes a good point.

At the first debate, the audience (our PHI 110 students are required to attend) got a chance at the end to ask questions or make comments. The atmosphere was still charged. I was consigned to hell twice and once roundly booed when I said one of my opponents didn't mind getting thrown out of the Garden of Eden, because it was obvious he had eaten a lot more than just fruit from the tree of the knowledge of good and evil.

What have the rowdiness, the flying ad hominems and the humorous remarks got to do with thinking clearly? I'm sure some of you react negatively. "Knowledge is supposed to be its own excitement. Gentleness of tone reflects a genteel spirit." It seems to me that some case can be made for the association of good manners and clear thinking, but it is not a case I should like to make for my general education students. They have too long associated cleverness with quietness, deep-thinking with dull tones. I should like them to experience those exciting moments when a flesh and bone human being "slam dunks" an idea right over the outstretched objections of an opponent—and, if necessary, rakes him across the face going down. I want the heart to race and a yell to go up for that.

Our debates are intended to stimulate passion, or at least to *associate* it with vital thinking. We prepare the students for the debate by telling them it is expected that they will demonstrate their feelings about what is being said. For that to happen, the debaters themselves must be willing to "sacrifice" their proud egos to taunts, to ridicule, to (somewhat) undeserved hostility. But it works. It works, at least, for that event. We don't want it to stop there, however, for the purpose of the debate is to give us talking-points for our classes and, perhaps even more important, to take the atmosphere of the debate back into the classroom.

I cannot speak for the others, but what I have found is that students do get involved—they discuss the issue with considerable clarity, and they remember well. The carry-over effect of the debate is there for the using in the classroom. But, alas, after a few days of referring to it, I leave the topic and settle back into the assignments. This is disturbing because my fondest hope for the debates is that they will provide a basis for changing both my approach to teaching and the student's approach to listening and speaking.

So it's back to booming voice and marvelous explanations. And the students go back to confusing emotion with ideas. Yes, for the irony is that when one cannot get excited about ideas, one runs a very great risk of not being able to separate emotion from thought. In the confusion, one says, "Well, I'm not excited about this. It must not be important."

On the other hand, if there is passion for the ideas, one can more clearly see when extraneous matters intrude on the ideas. It is clear to me from our debate experiences that when one of us attacks another's person (ad hominem) and not his ideas, the audience reacts correctly. They laugh and boo, but they separate the man wounded from his position. Passion does that. It clarifies the ideas to the point of their having to be separated from feeling.

So the irony of the debate, one that I am trying to sustain in the classroom, is that the more raucous the atmosphere and the more intense people become, the less chance there is of confusing lack of feeling with lack of meaning or of confusing pleasing looks with pleasing reasoning.

To separate passion from thought, one must be passionate.

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THE HISTORY JOURNAL: WRITING-ACROSS-THE-CURRICULUM

Now that writing as a tool of thinking is about to return to fashionable consciousness, instructors everywhere are rushing to the forefront of the debate on how to encourage writing assignments in the regular curriculum. Instructors who never fled from the insistence on requiring students to write now have an opportunity to share what they have been doing in their classrooms, or how what they have done has been translated into a particular activity of the respective institutions they serve.

The time has now returned full circle to that old-fashioned position that writing is necessary in order to function in a literate world of work. The consequences may be a new respectability for the term paper and the critical essay at the freshman and sophomore levels of education.

North Harris County College (NHCC) established an ad hoc committee to study writing-across-the-curriculum for the entire institution. A survey was conducted, and ideas were offered from various departments and disciplines. In history, Martha J. Pierce developed—with the support and backing of the administration, department chair, and other historians—a journal whose premier publication appeared in May 1984: *The Journal of History: A student publication for writing and research.*

Initially, the journal's purpose was to encourage historical research in four areas: local, national, regional (southern), and Texas. Also it was believed that the project would develop student interest in writing better history research papers. The rewards were to be: (1) cash awards for the three best essays submitted; (2) recognition through publication in a widely distributed journal; (3) excellent essays to serve as models of historical writing; (4) a concept of writing across disciplines.

Students would choose their own topics with approval of their individual instructors. Once submitted, the articles would be evaluated by editorial board criteria: use of primary and secondary sources (difficulty factor in theory or conceptualization in secondary sources considered); organization; synthesis; degree of analysis or interpretation; quality of research and creativity.

Implementing the Journal Concept

Considerable thought went into the proposal designed to promote support for the journal concept. The publication required funding. The journal format needed to be professional enough to justify the expense, attract students to submit their best work, and be a worthwhile publication for state and national distribution.

Once the project was funded many decisions had to be made regarding the aesthetics of the journal, design of the cover, offset printing, and where permanent placement of the annual copies of the journal could be found by students. Finally, it was established that each student whose essay was published would receive a specific number of the journals for his/her personal distribution.

As editor, Pierce opened the process of submission of papers to all in the college. The primary criteria was that the essays be historical in content, that they reflect good writing and some degree of research skill. A printed handout was given to each student interested in the project, outlining and offering suggestions on how to write for the journal, as well as suggesting appropriate style manuals. The result was a school-wide "Call for Papers." Posters announced the project in addition to announcements by instructors. Consequently, some "free lance" papers were submitted along with papers by students under the direct supervision of history instructors.

In Pierce's classes there had always been a required paper—either a critical essay or term paper. With the journal in mind, another component was added. As usual, students were required to write the seven-page research paper; but, in addition, the option of writing a longer research paper of twelve pages was announced (with accompanying bonus points for doing the more involved work). Further, the students were told that if they wrote a fine seven-page paper, they might very likely be asked to add five more pages and submit it to the journal.

All students were requested to turn in their papers six weeks before the end of the semester. Those students whose papers were selected for admission to the journal were asked to do rewrites and final drafts per instructions and return them early in the spring semester. The students who wrote seven-page papers worthy

of further work were asked if they would add more to their papers, edit, rewrite, and also turn in their finished drafts by the same date.

The first edition went to press with four fine papers representing the work of students who were first, second, or third semester students at NHCC. Not all of these students had had the required courses in English. Some students simply had a vital interest in writing and an interest in history. One of the students had never written anything but business reports, and it was that student's paper that won first prize; in this case the historical subject captured the total involvement of the student's interest. The other student was taking a political science course simultaneously with history and found the correlation between particular lectures aroused him to further investigation. The free lance student-writer had for some time had a major desire to write and publish and a passionate interest in Texas history; therefore, the journal provided an opportunity to practice the craft of writing along with the pursuit of the student's historical interest.

Instructor Support

The project is subversive in many ways. The answer to motivating students to write is to *require* first that they write and through their own action "hook" them on their own involvement. Students will complain, but since the time of Bacon—and even earlier—students have grumbled at the pain of education. And what of the pain of instructors who might have to counsel, follow-up, and supervise their own students interested in the journal project? There is only one answer to that: instructors must deal with that issue and make a decision, in the privacy of conscience, whether they want to support such an effort. It is not for every instructor, though there are many instructors who provide options where papers would be appropriate. Nevertheless, it would seem that if the project is a division or departmental one, then it should involve some degree of group support entailing some reasonable action.

Instructors may opt only to make announcements in their classes, but they must accept that such announcements may find takers. In that instance, the instructor will have to decide whether to supervise closely or leave the matter solely in the hands of the exclusively self-motivated student. Success with a journal depends initially on a few committed persons who see the value in a student publication. For others, it may simply be a nice idea but one they can support only philosophically. Ultimately, continuous publication requires more support than many institutions' personnel desire to give, but for others the journal concept may be a constructive approach to writing across disciplines.

Response to the Journal

The response from other institutions receiving the first edition was very positive. Community colleges and other institutions of higher education received copies of the journal, and their responses indicated that many felt the project met a need. Institutions interested in developing a similar project would of necessity have to adapt the idea to the unique wisdom of their own schools, but it would seem to offer a number of possibilities for encouraging interdisciplinary writing.

There are now several papers awaiting the editorial board's selection for the second edition. They represent several disciplines other than history: political science, psychology, and sociology. It is hoped that the future selections will increasingly reflect writing-across-the-curriculum and especially promote the idea of students writing close to their own interests.

One final note: the idea of writing for publication is founded on the principles that the craft of writing can be learned, historical writing is worthwhile, research skills serve a useful purpose, and that only through writing and the practice of the craft can there be any improvement in the quality of written communication. Teaching and learning are painful endeavors, but perhaps the most painful activity is overcoming the fear of putting words on paper and submitting them for public exposure. The rewards in personal satisfaction surely go beyond the grade itself.

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IMPROVING QUALITATIVE CONDUCT: A TEACHER'S PERSPECTIVE

The teacher does not work in isolation from his students or from his colleagues. Neither does he work in isolation from the curriculum, the framework in which he works. The first prerequisite to great teaching is that the teacher must be "OK." This being the case, he may then improve his qualitative conduct as a teacher by developing effective relationships within the educational environment: for example, teacher-student relationships and teacher-colleague relationships.

Teacher-Student Relationships

A strong teacher-student relationship which is conducive to both student and teacher growth is based upon mutual respect, trust, and caring. The excellent teacher creates an atmosphere in which students learn. He builds a rapport with students; he values the student's world and is willing to learn from the student. He is not merely a dispenser of knowledge and the student a receptacle. He is human and should discover his students' humanness.

The first step in building a strong teacher-student relationship is *getting to know each other*. I always tell the student how I prefer to be addressed and request the same information. I have discovered that I involve the students in classroom activities in a more equitable manner when I know their names; they, in turn, are more enthusiastic about participating. To facilitate the learning of student names, I take Polaroid photographs of students in groups of five or six. Although students always question why I do such a "crazy thing," they are always pleased when addressed by name the following morning.

I ask students to provide me with personal information on a file card. In the first class session, the student is asked to provide his name, nickname, address, phone number, interests, successes, and failures. Students receive a phone call when absent from class and a card during the summer holidays just to say "hello."

I believe that freshmen, in groups of 10 or 12, should be assigned to interested faculty who would act as "faculty advisors" or mentors. The advisors would be encouraged to welcome incoming students by mail or telephone prior to their arrival at the college, to meet with them on their arrival, and to spend a full day with them during orientation week in an informal setting. The same faculty member would be available as a mentor to the students throughout their program.

I make efforts to socialize with my students. A reasonable objective is to meet with each student at least once a semester to discuss performance but also to get to know each as an individual. The information gathered in these informal meetings is recorded so that future meetings can be more personal. At the conclusion of each class period, I request one student to stay behind and compliment him on something he said or did and walk with him to the next class, if possible.

The second step in building a strong teacher-student relationship is *aiding the student in getting to know himself*—his strengths and weaknesses. Early in the school year I interact more with students to discuss their goals; I help them establish goals which are realistic given individual strengths, weaknesses, and resources. To aid in this process, I support pretesting to evaluate the likelihood of student success in my courses. Students who are identified as being academically or otherwise unprepared would be counselled into remedial courses. Regardless of pretesting activities, there is nothing to prevent me from making a recommendation to the student and the appropriate program coordinator that entry into my course be delayed until the student has an improved chance of success. Should the student insist on proceeding against my advice, at least he would not be likely to view his failure as an inherent, uncorrectable weakness, but a prediagnosed case of poor preparation—a problem which can be rectified through remediation.

When a student clearly demonstrates a need for counselling, rather than merely advising him to make an appointment with the counsellor or rather than making the appointment for him, I take him to the counsellor and offer to stay with him if he wishes. I ask the student to keep me informed about the outcome of counselling, to communicate to him that he is not being relinquished to another in an assembly-line manner, but that there is a continuing and genuine interest in his concerns.

But the teacher must not get so caught up in empathizing with the student that positive, high expectations are lost. Positive, high expectations must be communicated to the student as early as possible. I insist upon

student attendance and punctuality; I insist upon the highest quality work which each student is capable of achieving. I intervene on behavior which is not growth-enhancing.

In the classroom, I give students better directions about when it is appropriate to ask questions; and for my part, I work harder at improving my listening skills. I try to avoid the temptation to anticipate a student's question; I try to listen carefully and respond in a non-judgmental way, ask questions to which there may be more than one correct answer, and build upon a student's response if it is incorrect.

I use multisensorial approaches to learning. This may be accomplished through the use of audiovisual aids or real world models to engage the student in his own learning. I teach science and often have my students search for anatomical and physiological models in the environment. Students have amazing vision when encouraged to be creative. One proposed a model of a telephone line to explain spinal nerve pathways with the thalamus being a switchboard. Another student shot photographs of rolls of snow fencing to illustrate the histology of bone tissue. Still another student confided in me that she never eats steak anymore; she dissects it.

I am aware of the appropriateness of learning aids to my students. I endeavour to consider the readability level of textbooks and handouts to ensure that they do not represent barriers to student success.

Lastly, I always remain open to change. I encourage student feedback about my performance. It may be nothing more than a simple, "How did the class go?" to a few of the students, or it may involve a quick but simple evaluation using a questionnaire to assure anonymity. The main point is that constant feedback is essential throughout the progress of the course. Feedback only at the end of the course is too late.

Teacher-Colleague Relationships

The rewards of excellence in teaching are high, but so are the risks. There is a reluctance on the part of many teachers to strive for excellence in themselves and an aversion to acknowledging its existence in others. They are more intent upon dispensing condemnation, ridicule, and derision. Recently, I learned of one college's attempts to introduce an award for teaching excellence. The administration sought the approval of the rank-and-file before proceeding. The proposal was soundly defeated. The outcome was inevitable. The vast majority could not possibly be recipients in any given year, and, after all, an award of this kind could be granted to one individual only at the exclusion of the remainder. What was the message? Not that teachers do not enjoy being rewarded, but that acknowledgement of the excellent teachers exposes the shortcomings of the rest. The teacher who strives for excellence will build upon these shortcomings; the mediocre ones are merely offended at the assault on their egos, and what results is insecurity and suspicion. The potential for the development of antagonistic relationships is great. To preserve his relationship with his colleagues, the aspiring excellent teacher may be coerced by peer pressure to compromise on his commitment to excellence. But one should bear in mind that excellent teachers are innovators, and innovators are pioneers. As Peters and Waterman so aptly put it: "Pioneers get shot at."

The teacher who strives for excellence must remain optimistic and persistent. His optimism alone will do his critics the world of good. If modelling is important to student growth, it is equally important for the growth of our colleagues. Interestingly enough, I have discovered that those who are most apt to criticize an excellent teacher to his face are the same ones who are likely to uphold that same teacher to others. The real message is you're "OK," and I'm not "OK." Those who are not "OK" must be supported and aided in discovering the meaning of excellence and its rewards. To an extent, they suffer, like their students, from low self-esteem and learned helplessness, believing that changes in their behavior are unlikely to have an impact on the quality of their instruction. Thus, they see no way out of their "box" of mediocrity.

More effort must be made to involve others in the quest for excellence by sharing information about successful and unsuccessful educational experiences. They must also be complimented on their successes, particularly powerful from one's colleagues. Sharing experiences with colleagues creates a bond which brings people together. Shared goals cement that bond.

Frankfort Moore said that "there is no stronger bond of friendship than a mutual enemy." What a marvelous world education would be if that mutual enemy were mediocrity!

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[Editor's Note: The following invitation—slightly edited and minus a response form—was extended to faculty and staff at Richland College (Dallas, TX) by President Steve Mittelstet in 1983. Dr. Mittelstet reports that, at present, three un-committees meet regularly, involving at least seventy individuals. Moreover, the frequent increases in book orders and calls for un-committee information speak to the extraordinary success of this innovation.]

THE UN-COMMITTEE

You are cordially invited to participate with me in what I believe at once can be a stimulating learning experience for you, can serve as a sounding-board for ideas and proposals about integrated learning at Richland, and can be a laboratory where we draw and act on each other's ideas about integrated learning. This group of people will need to share a common commitment to the value of integrated learning as a "humanizing process." The following excerpt from Erich Fromm's *The Revolution of Hope: Toward a Humanized Technology* reflects some of the concern I have for learning at Richland College:

> Our educational system, whose facade is so impressive according to the number of students who go to college, is unimpressive in quality. Generally speaking, education has deteriorated to a tool for social advancement or, at best, into the use of knowledge for the practical application to the arts . . . is dispersed in an alienated and cerebral form No wonder that the best minds of our college students are literally 'fed up' because they are fed, not stimulated. They are dissatisfied with the intellectual fare they get in most instances . . . . The split between emotional experience and thought [must be] replaced by a new unity of heart and mind. This is not done by the method of reading the hundred great books—which is conventional and unimaginative. It can only be accomplished if the teachers themselves cease being bureaucrats hiding their own lack of aliveness behind their role of bureaucratic dispersers of knowledge; if they become—in a word, by Tolstoy—'the codisciples of their students.' If the student does not become aware of the relevance of problems of philosophy, psychology, sociology, history, and anthropology to his own personal life and the life of his society [and I would add to that subject list the sciences, technology/commerce, communications, and the fine arts], only the least gifted ones will pay attention to their courses. The result is that the apparent richness of our educational endeavor becomes an empty front which conceals a deep lack of response to the best cultural achievements of civilized history . . . . If the educational bureaucracy does not understand this message, it will lose the respect which it receives from students and eventually that from the rest of the population. On the other hand, if it becomes . . open and responsive to the [*needs* of its students to become more fully human beings . . . to shift from the priorities of things and death to the priorities of life and man], it will sense the satisfaction and joy which meaningful activity carries with it as its reward.

Fromm's description is *clearly not universally* applicable to Richland, but some of it rings uncomfortably true. I do believe that we do a good job of addressing the basic "wants" of our students in terms of job training, educational "certifications" of various sorts, and preparation for certain types of baccalaureate transfer education, and it is important that we address these aspects of our community college mission well. We are in a unique position to do much more! While addressing our students' immediate desires (which are not always as lofty as Fromm's quotation might indicate), we can challenge these students to greater aspirations for themselves as human beings, regardless of their chosen careers or occupations. To me, *this* is our greatest challenge—how to inspire students to greater self-expectations as human beings without diminishing our ability to provide excellent job training or meeting basic educational certification needs.

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What does all this have to do with accepting my invitation? Participation in the group I'm proposing is one significant way, I believe, that some of us can help Richland meet this challenge. Obviously, not everyone will be able or will choose to address the challenge in this way (nor would it be desirable, for it will take many approaches); furthermore, many at Richland are committed to work on *other* high priority issues. The people who accept my invitation, then, should be those who are able and willing to commit significant time and energy on an issue to which they assign high personal value.

More specifically, what is it that I expect this group of people to be *doing*? To a large extent, I will want the group itself to determine a good bit of what they'll do. My present thinking, however, is that we would meet once a month starting next September, for at least a two-year period during the long semesters, in a four-hour session in the late afternoon/early evening, probably off-campus, combined with refreshments/evening meal (perhaps with a weekend "retreat" once/semester). There would be two primary activities. about one-fourth to one-third of each session would be quasi-committee work devoted to reacting to a variety of proposed campus activities/approaches to integrated learning; the remainder of each session would be devoted to our own interdisciplinary learning. I see this being primarily a reading-study-discussion session.

The participants would be charged with developing their own "curriculum," but I envision its being a format in which works of non-fiction dealing with major life issues and theories (drawn from each of the major disciplines noted in the quotation above) would alternate with work of fiction or biography, the views and activities of which characters and authors can be compared and contrasted with the theoretical works. Journals would be kept and occasionally read to encourage participants to interact with the literature on a more experiential basis and to provide an outlet for their own creative and analytical writing. Participants would commit to read and study each selection before each meeting and to participate actively in discussions. There could be numerous variations on this basic format, with a variety of activities involved and approaches taken.

The group size would need to be large enough to be truly interdisciplinary but small enough to encourage lively discussion among all participants. It will also be a good opportunity for part-time and full-time staff to get to know each other better. Depending on the number of people willing and able to commit to a group like this, there could be more than one group. (But each group will be made up of each discipline, evenly distributed, so that some individuals from "over-represented" disciplines might not be chosen to participate. Interested individuals not selected for these groups may wish to form similar, though less comprehensively interdisciplinary study groups.) Staff development funds will be available for the purchase of reading materials.

Un-Committee Reading List 1985-86

September:	*Ironweed*, William Kennedy
	Falconer, John Cheever
October:	*Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, Paulo Freire
	Animal Farm, George Orwell
November:	*Civilization and Its Discontents*, Sigmund Freud
December:	Poetry and Art (Selections of poems by Seamus Haney and Sylvia Plath, and two short articles on art)
January:	*Jitterbug Perfume*, Tom Robbins
February.	*The Heart of Philosophy*, Jacob Needleman
March:	Selections from *Discoverers*, Daniel Boorstin
April:	*A Stroll with William James*, Barzun
May:	"Myth of Sisyphus" and a short story(ies) from *Exile and Kingdom*, Camus

Steve K. Mittelstet, President
Richland College

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TEACHING ACCOUNTING AND USING COMPUTERS

Early on, computers became available in education, but the task faced by most educators was to *program* the computers so that they could be used for instructional purposes. Thus, for large segments of the educational spectrum, computers were looked upon as inappropriate tools for classroom use: "I don't have enough time now to teach my students accounting/typing/reading/math/physics/history, much less teach them how to operate a computer!"

Happily, in the last few years a significant amount of proprietary software (computer programs) has become available to alleviate many of the problems experienced in the early use of computers in education. Today a teacher with no experience in computer operation can teach *MORE* accounting/typing/reading/math/physics/history in the same amount of time previously used for classroom instruction! For those many skeptics who, at first blush, reject that statement out of hand, let me recite the experiences we have had at Midland College in introducing microcomputers into our accounting classes.

Background

Students enroll in our Bookkeeping and Principles of Accounting courses (approximately 250 - 300 students per semester) for two principal reasons: (1) academic - for the accounting requirement in pursuit of an undergraduate degree or for a leveling course for students seeking a graduate degree in Business Administration, and (2) vocational - for skill development which can quickly be utilized in the workplace. A major instructional change—using computers to teach accounting—had to serve both groups equally well. We believed it would!

In accounting, as in many disciplines, *doing is learning*! The instructor can lecture about certain techniques; but until the students actually perform the work, they rarely grasp the significance of what it is they are doing. The subtle interrelationships escape unnoticed and unrealized. Thus, in bookkeeping and in the first part of the Principles of Accounting course, paper and pencil are emphasized.

Utilizing the Computer

Because a good foundation is essential in accounting, Midland College utilizes a Computer Assisted Instruction (tutorial) package; students use it (1) to supplement lectures, homework, and practice set; (2) to help master the principles taught in the classroom; and (3) to test themselves on their understanding of those principles. This is accomplished in the accounting laboratory and through student independent study. If an instructor wishes, additional work can be left for the student to complete on the computer, and the computer can grade the work. Otherwise, it is a *private* experience between student and computer, and only the student is aware of the results. Because most students find working with the computer to be exciting, less boring, and faster than using printed material, they are more likely to use this system and learn more than they would with traditional materials.

Beginning bookkeeping and accounting courses should and do stress basic rules, definitions, and simple problems. The tutorial utilized by Midland College emphasizes these areas. The student is given a problem, such as keeping the accounting equation in balance. After the student answers the question, he is immediately told if the answer selected is correct or incorrect. If an incorrect answer is selected, the student is given the correct answer and *told why it is correct*! Students benefit from immediate feedback—reinforcement of correct answers, correction and explanation of incorrect answers.

Other software is available for teaching payroll, accounts receivable, accounts payable, and practice set work for all the various levels of accounting. We hope eventually to include a short computer practice set in addition to the manual practice set we now use in the Bookkeeping and Principles of Accounting I courses.

Most instructors would probably agree that acquiring a knowledge of principles and techniques is most important in a beginning accounting course. Acquired knowledge can quite easily be observed as a student formulates a journal entry and calculates the numbers for that entry. But after a student has been taught the

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basic techniques of manually posting, preparing trial balances, worksheets, and financial statements (bookkeeping), such requirements become tedious and boring and are of limited instructional value. Most manual practice sets for Accounting II contain numerous repetitive sales and purchases (one of the earliest and less challenging business transactions) and perhaps as many as six to eight really challenging and interesting transactions. More cannot be required given the time necessary to accomplish the posting, adding, and other tasks associated with manually completing the practice set. Thus, traditional *second* practice sets often become an exercise in drudgery and as such have a minimum of educational value in return for the effort expended.

In the second half of our Principles of Accounting, students are required to complete a practice set on the computer. Work begins on the practice set by the third week of the semester and continues throughout most of the term. Because the computer does the bulk of the tedious bookkeeping chores, more effort can be applied to interesting and challenging analysis for journal transactions! Instead of six to eight different journal entries, as many as 30 to 40 items can be required—*within the same amount of time as before*!

The computer practice set requires the students to analyze and journalize transactions concerning unearned revenue; interest payments; discounting notes; conversion of accounts receivable to notes receivable; purchases requiring the use of the net method, with payments within and after the discount period; purchase of plant assets (several) with a variety of depreciation methods (instructor's choice); disposal of plant assets; the possibility of a variety of inventory valuation methods (instructor's choice) over a period of time; petty cash transactions; marketable securities purchases, sale, and end of period valuation; condemnation of land by the city; conversion of sole proprietorship to a corporation; subscription of stock; sale of stock; treasury stock; payment of both cash and stock dividends; and other interesting and challenging transactions.

The students can display their knowledge and understanding of this extraordinary number and variety of principles and techniques by their journal entries in the time allotted to accomplish far less because the computer handles (as it would in "real life") the repetitive and boring chores of posting, account footings, trial balances, financial statement preparation, and other functions which are necessary to complete a practice set. Since the computer removes a vast amount of drudgery and repetition from the student's responsibility, these additional and more challenging transactions can be incorporated into the practice set without placing an impossible burden on the student

As more software becomes available, we hope to extend our use of the computer in teaching accounting. Many of the cost and managerial functions lend themselves to computer analysis and will eventually be included in the course work (in addition to traditional homework and paper-and-pencil exercises).

The computer allows instructors to teach more accounting than has been traditionally possible in any academic term and to do so with increased positive student reaction. The majority of students find that working with the computer is exciting! Not only does it remove a large part of the boring, tedious work from accounting, but it allows students to discover that a computer's operation is not beyond their capability. They overcome their own fear of the "electronic black boxes" and report using them in other settings with confidence!

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SCIENCE MASTERY: A DESIGN FOR HIGH-RISK STUDENT SUCCESS

Underprepared students, including those enrolling in anatomy, chemistry, and physics courses, need *more* than simple remedial assistance. A model for a developmental science program offered at Midlands Technical College offers assistance to students through a three-phase "spanning for success" approach in which the transition from developmental to curriculum course work is gradual. The developmental instructor works closely with the student from the time that he enrolls in developmental science until he successfully completes his mainstream science course. The implementation of this model has paid off through measurable evidence of student achievement and retention.

Target Population

The Developmental Science Program is open to all science students, but it deals mainly with traditional high-risk students: adult students, returning students, first-generation college students, students who have not previously been successful in school, and minority students. It is designed primarily to serve students who are enrolled in programs for which either anatomy, chemistry, or physics is a requirement, but who (1) did not take this course in high school; (2) took it, but were not successful; or (3) are returning adults who feel the need for background preparation in science. The program, therefore, has three main tracks: anatomy, chemistry, and physics. The student can enroll in one or all of these, depending on his particular graduation requirements. The purpose of the program is to enable the student to pass the matching mainstream anatomy, chemistry, or physics course with a grade of "C" or better.

Main Features

First, *the DSP is based on a tight working network between the developmental science instructors and the mainstream science instructors*. It is this network which has influenced the direction and design of the program. A second feature of the program is that it operates in a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere. The general impression is more that of a library than of a traditional science classroom, for the students study in a carpeted, well-lighted room that has round study tables and upholstered chairs. The color-coordinated carpet and chairs are bright and cheerful.

Program Design

As the student moves from Phase 1 to Phase 3 of the program, he gradually moves from being totally a developmental science student to enrollment in and completion of the matching mainstream science course.

PHASE 1. DEVELOPMENTAL. The student enters the developmental science program on the basis of his high school transcript. During the first phase, which approximates his first quarter of enrollment, the student works according to a prescription that includes a working schedule and planned completion dates. The student has input into this prescription because he helps to plan the schedule and the dates for completion.

The program operates under the assumption that developmental students initially need and respond best to a highly structured learning environment. Therefore, the environment for a Phase 1 student is well-ordered and tightly structured. The instructors use in-house developed materials that are based on mastery learning, each lesson has a pre-test, specific objectives, learning activities to accomplish these objectives, a self-test, and a post-test. Students are required to make at least 85% on the post-test before moving to the next lesson, and there are provisions for routing the student systematically from step to step within a lesson and from lesson to lesson within the course. Allowances are made in each lesson *for active student participation in the learning experience and for frequent student feedback and positive reinforcement*. Although most of the instruction at this point is one-to-one, there are also frequent small group discussions, small group lectures, and laboratory demonstrations.

PHASE 2: TRANSITION. During the second quarter of his enrollment, in Developmental Science, the student is gradually moved away from the tightly structured environment of Phase 1. At this point, Phase 2, the instructor makes a deliberate attempt to challenge the student and move him to higher levels of development. The student is now approaching the end of his prescription in the self-paced materials. During Phase 1, he worked on these materials in class, but now he is encouraged to do this work at home, using the class time to ask questions and take tests. Thus, the student now begins to take responsibility for his own learning.

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During Phase 2, the tight bond between the developmental science and the mainstream science instructors comes into play, for the developmental science instructor meets with the mainstream instructor and works out a schedule for the student to *begin auditing portions of the mainstream course.* The student begins to attend selected class lectures for the mainstream course; he participates in the class activities, takes notes, and attends the laboratory sessions. At the same time, he reports back to his developmental instructor on a regularly scheduled basis to discuss what he is learning in the mainstream class. The developmental instructor then explains the material that the student did not understand, questions him about what he has heard in class, and asks challenging questions about the course material. The developmental instructor also goes through the class notes with the student and is able to give direct pointers on effective note-taking. If the student so chooses, he can take tests along with the mainstream class, and the developmental instructor will review the test with him.

During Phase 2, the developmental instructor begins to ask fewer knowledge or rote-memory types of questions. Instead, the questions require the student to demonstrate that he can apply or analyze knowledge learned, interpret data or descriptions, and synthesize solutions. The questions also sometimes require the student to hypothesize what might happen in a given situation, to make inferences, or to apply what he has learned in a different context.

PHASE 3: SPANNING FOR SUCCESS. At the beginning of the third quarter, the student enrolls in the mainstream science class for which he has been preparing. At this point he has done the following: (1) completed his prescription in the self-paced materials and, therefore, has acquired the basic entering knowledge needed for success in the course; and (2) attended portions of the mainstream class and is familiar with the instructor, the materials, and the instructional techniques that will be used. Phase 3 is actually a tutorial linkage in which his developmental science instructor now acts as his tutor; the tutorial linkage is so tight that the student actually views both the mainstream course instructor and the developmental science instructor as his course instructors. One is in charge of the regular class lectures and laboratory sessions; the other is available *on a regularly scheduled basis* for tutorial assistance and guidance. The tutorial linkage is open, not just to developmental science students, but to *all* students who are enrolled in the mainstream course. The developmental students are expected to attend the tutorial sessions, however. All students who are interested in receiving tutorial assistance from the developmental science instructor, including the developmental science students, are given a schedule for this assistance on the first day of class. Phase 3, the tutorial linkage component, is free for all full-time students, but part-timers are charged a per quarter-hour fee.

Evaluation Results

Evaluation studies indicate that the three-phase Developmental Science Program has (1) increased student success in mainstream science courses and (2) increased student persistence in college.

(1) *STUDENT SUCCESS.* Studies of 360 students over a three-quarter period reveal that 79.5% of the former developmental science students passed the mainstream science course while 57% of the non-developmental science students in the same mainstream science course passed.

(2) *STUDENT PERSISTENCE IN COLLEGE.* Apparently "success breeds success," for these studies also show that students who participate in the Developmental Science Program tend to enroll for subsequent courses in greater numbers than do the science students who did not enroll in Developmental Science.

The Developmental Science Program has made the study of science and science-based programs more accessible to high-risk students, students who have traditionally been under-represented in these programs. This three-phase program can be used as a model, not just for developmental science, but for developmental programs in math, English, and other areas as well.

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THOUGHTS AND ACTIONS ON STUDENT RETENTION

In the summer of 1978, Central Oregon Community College conducted a follow-up study of all full-time, first time freshmen who had enrolled in Fall 1977. The results were startling. Over half the students had ceased to attend sometime during their first year, and many more did not return the following year. Even admitting the many valid reasons why students leave, we thought the attrition rate unacceptable and noted that, pragmatically, we were creating hundreds of "dissatisfied customers" in our voting district each year. The overriding impression was, however, one of sadness, that the cold statistics represented so many human tragedies and lost opportunities. We set out to improve.

Our efforts centered around learning about—or at least rediscovering—the characteristics of many of our students. They are the students John Roueche of the University of Texas has termed "high risk." They unconsciously regard themselves as educational failures on their way to fail once again. That self-fulfilling prophecy is predictable from their behavior; they often come to class without pencil or paper, put off purchasing a text, sit near an exit, do not do initial assignments, become erratic in attendance. One day they simply vanish.

Using The FUD Desk

We decided to focus on attendance first. Attendance, after all, is basic: if students aren't in class, the instructor can't teach them. We came to believe that students who were likely to be in academic difficulty because of absences ought to have a personal contact from the College. The first choice would be a phone call; a distant second choice would be a letter.

The procedures we set up centered on the instructor. Instructors could make the phone calls themselves or could relay the necessary information to "The Follow-up Desk—or FUD desk." The FUD desk was staffed by a faculty member with excellent communication skills. The phone calls were no-nonsense. Though we listened sympathetically to the predictable excuses, the thrust was: "We care about your success. To be successful you must be in class. What barriers are keeping you from returning to class *today*?"

We were pleasantly surprised. Rarely was a student resentful at being phoned. We had expected a lot of "butt out of my life" reactions, but they almost never came. Instead, the usual reactions were first amazement, then appreciation We found also that the phone calls were not as time-consuming as we feared. One efficiency we learned was to phone between 7:30 and 8:15 in the morning. Students seemed to be home then, and there was a special awakening urgency in getting out of bed and hearing one's instructor's voice on the phone. Further, since students who were absent from one class tended to be absent from all classes, they might hear as many as four or five different instructors' voices. That's impressive!

In a recent spring quarter, instructors and the FUD Desk phoned 200 students—all of them, remember, identified by their instructors as likely to be in academic difficulty because of absences. One hundred sixty-nine returned to classes, and 150 completed the quarter. It's probable that without this phone intervention few would have even returned.

Sometimes it's harder to keep an innovation going and improving than to start it. Believing that the FUD Desk retention effort is important and successful, we are taking steps to perpetuate it. Present faculty are reminded and encouraged through memoranda, readings about high-risk students, and occasional in-service sessions. New faculty encounter the concept first as candidates when the Dean of Instruction interviews them and next in orientation-to-the-College sessions. More important, though, the system tends to be self-perpetuating because of instructors' professional pleasure at seeing students returning to classes and succeeding.

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Training in Appropriate Teaching Processes

A second retention effort has centered around emphasizing appropriate teaching processes during the first several class sessions. For students who have poor self-concepts and who may be setting themselves up to fail, an early classroom success is critical. We remind ourselves of such common-sense techniques as consciously teaching information on skills which can be learned readily and creating a classroom atmosphere in which there is no such thing as a stupid question. We also try to incorporate techniques which make good sense, but which are not always obvious, e.g., learning students' names, using testing procedures which test often and in smaller chunks, and facilitating the formation of study and support groups.

A third retention effort is to infuse all of the above into the consciousness of our part-time instructors. To do this, we invite them particularly to use the FUD Desk. Predictably, a higher proportion of part-time faculty use the FUD Desk than make their own phone calls. Also, all new part-time faculty must attend an orientation session (during the first weeks of class) which concentrates on teaching techniques. Periodic in-service sessions at the departmental/divisional level continue the reinforcement.

Using Academic Warning to Trigger Academic Advising

A fourth, very recent effort is a redesigned probation policy. Now called "academic warning," the policy identifies students with low GPA's and/or completion rates and assigns them to a special academic advisor, who is a full-time faculty member having received special training to fulfill that role. Whether or not this new effort increases retention is not known at present, but its value as a vehicle for expressing College concern and help makes it worthwhile regardless.

Implementing Flexible Reassignment

Finally, thanks to prescient curriculum designers of years ago, we have in place an extremely important retention device: the ability to move students from one level to another in freshman English and math classes. We can do this even in the middle of terms. Thus, students who have been misadvised (or who misadvised themselves) or otherwise inaccurately placed can quickly move to their appropriate skill levels in writing and in lower-level math classes.

In Summary

Though questioning of the worth of retention efforts is rare, a couple of dangers do exist. Especially in an era of declining FTE's, when emphasizing the importance of retention, care must be taken so that faculty do not feel compelled to retain everybody. There are, after all, students whom we should not retain; and in those cases, we try to ease the leaving by making it a conscious, good choice on the part of the student, not just another failure in a long string of failures. Trying to retain some students to keep up the FTE count invites frustrated teachers and lower quality teaching, as well as a deterioration of standards. Conversely, care should be taken to ensure that retention efforts are not misinterpreted as mollycoddling or spoon-feeding. Instead, we should hold high expectations (people tend to live up to expectations) for our students and work hard to help them meet them.

Like a hospital's reputation, a community college's rests partly not on how it treats well persons, but on how well it serves those who need it most.

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TESTING: IN PRAISE OF AMBIGUITY

In April of 1972, I began my battle with ambiguity. Hired fresh out of graduate school, I walked into an amphitheater which contained 200 students and launched into an exposition of the essence of anthropology. Teaching, I thought, was the clear, methodical, unambiguous delivery of ideas; learning was the assimilation of ideas.

I perceived the burden of clarity to be on the teacher. Students, I assumed, were like sponges—dry, empty, their very cells eager and prepared to slurp up the moisture of knowledge. I stayed up every night writing and rewriting lecture notes. Each day I followed the same format: present the principles, give examples, show relationships with other principles. The students were eager; this was a time when interest in anthropology and the social sciences in general was high.

Halfway through the semester, students asked when they were going to be given their mid-term exam. I had forgotten about exams, but quickly wrote 20 essay questions which asked them to integrate various elements of the course "Compare and contrast alliance theory and descent theory. Give examples." "Describe and critique five theories which explain the universal occurrence of a concept of incest in human societies." "What are the possible evolutionary relationships between *Australopithecus robustus* in South Africa and *Homo habilis* in East Africa?"

I had a graduate assistant to whom I entrusted the results of two hours of frantic scribbling. He called early Sunday morning, voice bleary with lack of sleep. "I can't grade these things!" he finally blurted out. "Didn't I give you a copy of the text?" I asked, with the pitilessness of an 18th-century encyclopedist who assumes all knowledge can be contained within the covers of a book. He brought the pile of papers that morning, relinquishing them with a gesture of distaste and relief. He also gave me the pages and pages of criteria he had developed to grade the exams.

I came out of my own grading session greatly humbled. What was I looking for in the answers? How did I weigh these various criteria? That night I slept restlessly. I dreamed of a vast map criss-crossed with roads, over which a beacon of light danced. I awoke from the dream in great excitement. The map was knowledge; the light was teaching; my function was to illuminate specific roads and cities. I had been too broad, too ambiguous, casting light over huge regions, entire nations. I called my graduate assistant the next morning and told him I had resolved the problem. I was going to develop less ambiguous questions, be more precise in pinpointing the exact unit of information required for a correct response. He said he had just changed his major to computer science

Ten years later, I had reduced ambiguity by at least a factor of 10. I prepared study guides, like maps over my dream landscape; I developed an enormous bank of questions (true-false, multiple choice, and identification), keyed to the study guides, which could be graded by computer. I knew that this type of testing did not tap all the functions of learning but perceived it to be primarily useful in introductory classes in which the main goal was learning the names, dates, and concepts of a discipline. To give students practice in writing and creative, analytical thinking, I developed the film essay (described in Vol. VI, No. 26 of *Innovation Abstracts*).

And then something happened to change my thinking about the "objective" tests I had developed. Over the years I was constantly refining my questions. Recognizing that many questions might still be ambiguous, I always allowed a discussion period after the exams had been graded: if students gave a reasonable explanation of why they had given a "wrong" response, I gave them credit for it and used their input to refine my questions. Finally, it dawned on me that the most valuable aspect of my "objective" tests was the opportunity—provided by ambiguous questions—for students to exercise their analytic and imaginative skills in confronting and organizing knowledge. I then began to work directly toward planned ambiguity.

Planned Ambiguity

Planned ambiguity is a technique that has to be learned by students. The following is a simplified modus operandi:

(1) Design a text study guide which requires students to make an active hunt for specific units of information and which leads them, like a road map, across difficult terrain.

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(2) Design questions that tap this detailed knowledge. My favorite form is a multiple true-false question—e.g., "Which of the following is/are correct?"—that is followed by five statements

(3) Make some or all of your questions "window" questions—i.e., purposefully open to alternative interpretations. For example:

Which of the following is/are true about *Australopithecus africanus*?

a. Raymond Dart said it was a hominid.
b. Raymond Dart said it was a transitional ape, not yet human.
c. W. Le Gros Clark said it was a hominid.
d. a, b and c
e. b and c

The ambiguity of the question stems from the history of the use and significance of the term "hominid" in defining what it means to be human. When Dart found *A. africanus* in the 1920's, the Neo-Latin term *Hominidae* was available in terminological literature to describe closely related primates, but it had not taken on its modern emphasis on bipedalism. When Dart wrote, paleontologists assumed that for an early fossil to be considered human, it had to have a large brain, even though other aspects of its anatomy were primitive. The Piltdown Hoax had a large cranium and ape-like jaw and was widely accepted until the 50's as the predicted transitional form. *A. africanus* had too small a brain and was frequently interpreted as an infant chimpanzee whose skull had not yet taken on the more massive contours of ape adulthood. What was puzzling about the post-cranial remains of *A. africanus* was the clear evidence of bipedalism. The ilium of the pelvic inominates was broad and flared, almost like that of modern humans. A small-brained, bipedal creature was the reverse of the large-brained, skeletally ape-like creature which was the accepted model of early man. The same problem was confronted in the 1930's and 40's with *Homo erectus* of Java and China. Franz Weidenreich, who succeeded Davidson Black as director of the site of Choukoutien, was an expert on the characteristics of the pelvis and foot which make upright posture possible. His classic studies of Peking Man supported Black's contention that Peking Man was a primitive human, not a transitional ape, because he walked upright.

Technically, then, the answer to the multiple-choice question is "e." When W. Le Gros Clark called *A. africanus* a hominid, he was using the modern label by which early forms are now recognized as being capable of entering the human cultural niche and was expressing the modern emphasis on bipedalism vs. a large brain. Dart called *A africanus* a transitional ape ("pithecus") because at that time a large brain was considered more definitive of humanness than was bipedalism. If during discussion of the exam a student defends the answer "d" by recapitulating the history of the development of the concept of "hominid" and by stressing that Dart emphasized the position of the foramen magnum (the "big hole" through which the spinal cord enters the cranium) as demonstrating that *A. africanus* was bipedal, I give him full credit.

Why not just give an essay question on the evolution of the concept of hominid? Other teachers may find essays more useful and reliable. I have found that when students have to struggle and fight for a point, they are more likely to grasp the significance of an idea. An active confrontation of chaos makes cosmos more likely. Also, this technique tends to make them more self-conscious about their thinking process. I tell the students that my purpose is not to trip them up with tricky questions, but to get them to examine the logical steps in their reasoning by which they arrive at an answer. I reward them for dealing actively with ambiguity. I could legitimately mark a "d" response wrong, but I would lose the opportunity to use the review of the test as an added teaching device. And once the students realize that the test review is a forum for display of logical reasoning and mobilization of knowledge, they attack the tests themselves in a more relaxed, imaginative frame of mind. The discussions which follow are challenging and awe-inspiring in their display of applied knowledge.

I accept only certain types of argument, and all arguments must be based on specific knowlege, not hypothetical could-haves. In other words, I am not promoting a relaxation of educational standards or an individualistic definition of reality. I want to stimulate imagination without relaxing standards. I believe it is important, and possible, to teach the responsible use of the imagination.

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