Park University

InSight

A Collection of Faculty Scholarship

CENTER FOR EXCELLENCE IN TEACHING AND LEARNING

VOLUME 6

A Journal of the
Center for Excellence in Teaching and Learning

"Banking education…attempts, by mythologizing reality, to conceal certain facts which explain the way human beings exist in the world; problem-posing education sets itself the task of demythologizing. Banking education resists dialogue; problem-posing education regards dialogue as indispensable to the act of cognition which unveils reality."

~Paulo Freire

Subscription Information

InSight: A Journal of Scholarly Teaching is published annually as a free, refereed resource highlighting scholarly contributions to advance the practice and profession of teaching. Limited print journals are available upon request; online versions are available at http://www.insightjournal.net/.

Copyright

ISSN: 1933-4850
E-ISSN:1933-4869

"My sense of, interest in, and exploration of the experienced curriculum grew from my curiosity about how certain activities were (or were not) working for students, and from my sense that reflection offers a powerful vehicle for inquiring into that question."
~Kathleen Blake Yancey

Contents

Volume 6 • 2011

Introduction

Editorial

Scholarly Articles

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

"If we are all continually discovering, recognizing what it is we are doing, we'll have many more ways of finding out how to do it. In other words, criticism in the classroom could help us get rid of rigid lesson plans so that we would be able to take advantage of what John Donne called 'emergent occasions.'"
~Ann E. Berthoff

About Park University...

Park University (originally Park College) was co-founded by Colonel George S. Park and Dr. John A. McAfee in 1875. An independent, private institution, accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools, Park University currently enjoys a distinguished position in higher education as a growing institution with 43 campus centers in 21 states including an extensive Online degree program. In 2005, Park University created The Center for Excellence in Teaching and Learning to promote the practice and profession of teaching, including scholarly inquiry into teaching across the disciplines. *InSight: A Journal of Scholarly Teaching*, an outreach of the Center's programming, is a refereed academic journal published annually. The editorial staff invites submissions of research and scholarship that support faculty in improving teaching and learning. Open to submissions from all disciplines and institution types, *InSight* articles showcases diverse methods for scholarly inquiry and reflection on classroom teaching.

From the Managing Editor...

What a pleasure it has been to have worked on volume six of *InSight: A Journal of Scholarly Teaching*. I am deeply indebted to the authors who have given generously of their work, and to the reviewers whose commentary helped facilitate the ideas of the authors. The scope and range of the pieces included here illustrate both the breadth and the depth of the scholarship of teaching and learning across the disciplines. How exciting it is to see such a range of ideas and approaches, and how lucky the students of these authors are to be in classes taught by scholars who care so much about the relationship between ideas, students, and the classroom.

With many thanks to Jean Mandernach, Executive Editor, who mentored me on this issue of *InSight*, and to Emily Donnelli-Sallee, Contributing Editor, a special note of thanks for her always steady, ever-wise counsel. Much appreciation goes to our dedicated copy editor, Keith Snyder, for his countless hours of attention to the mechanics of every word choice, every sentence, and to Fred Roeher for his design assistance. Finally, a special note of appreciation goes to Megan Holder, our tireless editorial assistant, who kept everything tidy and on track. This issue of *InSight* truly represents a piece of teamwork: scholarship at its best.

Happy reading! (And think about submitting an article for volume 7).

--Lolly J. Ockerstrom

"Imagination is a contagious disease. It cannot be measured by the yard, or weighed by the pound, and then delivered to the students by members of the faculty. It can only be communicated by a faculty whose members themselves wear their learning with imagination."
~Alfred North Whitehead

“A great deal of time and intellectual force are lost in the world, because the false seems great and the truth so small and insignificant.”
~Maria Montessori

Overcoming Physical Separation in the Online Environment to Help Learners Persist

Tina Stavredes, PhD
Chair, Psychology, School of Undergraduate Studies
Capella University

Academic leaders at all types of institutions report increased demand for face-to-face and online courses, with those at public institutions seeing the greatest impact. In all cases, the demand is greater for online offerings than for the corresponding face-to-face offerings (Allen & Seaman, 2009). In addition, students are increasingly demanding more opportunities to take courses online to accommodate their busy lifestyles. With this increased demand, more faculty are being asked to teach online. One of the challenges of teaching in the online environment is the physical separation of the instructor and learner. Faculty teaching face-to-face depend on the opportunity to look at a learner's expression to see whether he or she understands course materials. The lack of visual contact in the online environment becomes a barrier for teaching.

According to Michael Moore (1980), transactional distance, which relates to physical separation in the online environment, can have an impact on understanding and perceptions, which in turn can affect student motivation. The physical separation can lead to psychological and communications gaps that can result in decreased presence, misunderstandings, and low engagement owing to the absence of visual cues to guide the learner. Overcoming transactional distance requires specialized organizational and teaching procedures. Teaching variables associated with transactional distance include dialogue and structure. Dialogue is the interaction between the instructor and learner; structure relates to the design of the course, including the content, navigation, multimedia, and communication tools used to support the online environment. To minimize transactional distance, it is important that the structure of the course have a high degree of flexibility. According to Moore (1980), increased dialogue between the instructor and learner, along with a flexible learning environment, leads to low transactional distance.

Active learning requires learners to think critically and reflect on what they know, as they actively engage in learning activities to make meaning from the content and construct knowledge. The learner is thereby moved away from being extrinsically motivated and focused on grades to becoming more intrinsically motivated, with a focus on learning.

In the online environment, where there is no face-to-face interaction, much effort is required to develop presence between learners and with the instructor. For learners moving from the face-to-face to online environment, the void due to the lack of physical presence can lead to feelings of isolation, which can have a negative impact on motivation and persistence. In addition, the lack of presence can impact the development of higher order thinking skills, a process that requires collaboration. According to Garrison, Anderson, and Archer (2001), learning occurs within a community of inquiry through the interaction of three kinds of presence: social, cognitive, and teaching. Social presence establishes learners as individuals who are available to engage in learning; cognitive presence is the ability of learners to construct knowledge through peer-to-peer interactions; and teaching presence is the means by which the instructor facilitates the online learning environment to support social and cognitive presence and to help learners meet the outcomes of course activities.

A structure that supports social presence in the online environment can help reduce isolation and establish learners as being present and available for interactions. Kerhrwald (2008) defines social presence as “an individual’s ability to demonstrate his or her state of being in a virtual environment and so signal his or her availability for interpersonal transactions” (p. 94). Without the awareness of learners’ presence, it is nearly impossible to develop relationships. To develop social presence, the design of the online environment must include opportunities for all to engage in social dialogue and get to know one another. This can be done through discussions that allow learners an opportunity to introduce themselves to one another, or through a cyber cafe or lounge area that provides learners an opportunity to engage in casual dialogue not associated with the course content. As learners begin to engage socially with the instructor and peers, they can build trust in one another and begin to develop a sense of community that prepares them for engaging in a community of inquiry as they participate in course activities.

According to Short, Williams, and Christie (1976), when communication channels are increased, social presence increases among peers and the instructor; whereas, when communication channels are reduced, social presence decreases among peers and the instructor. A variety of communication tools can be used in the online environment to increase presence, including email, private journals, discussion forums, instant chat, web conferencing, and microblogs. Reaching out to learners individually via email or a private journal acknowledges the instructor’s awareness of their presence in the course and opens lines of communication for the learner to begin a dialogue to share feelings and ask questions. Discussion forums provide an opportunity for learners to engage in dialogue that is casual or topic-specific. Instant chat can help signify a learner’s presence, when he or she is online in the course environment, and invite dialogue with other learners or the instructor when they are actively engaging online in course activities. Web conferencing can provide opportunities for the instructor to engage either with learners as a group to deliver lectures to or answer questions from, or with individual learners to help them overcome navigation or technical problems that require visual interactions. Microblogs such as Twitter provide a means for instructors to communicate just-in-time with learners about upcoming due dates or other short messages that are time sensitive. Twitter can also provide a venue for learners to engage in just-in-time communications with the instructor or other members of the course. Opportunities to minimize the isolation of the online environment and allow learners to develop greater presence can lower the transactional distance of an online course, potentially leading to greater persistence and the achievement of course goals.

Structuring the online environment to support cognitive presence is also critical. Cognitive presence is developed as learners engage in discourse and share their knowledge, experience, and ideas to construct knowledge. Garrison *et al.* (2001) define cognitive presence as “the extent to which the participants in any particular configuration of a community of inquiry are able to construct meaning through sustained communication” (p.5). This requires that the online experience be designed for “active learning” that places the responsibility of learning and acquiring knowledge on the learner. Active learning requires learners to think critically and reflect on what they know, as they actively engage in learning activities to make meaning from the content and construct knowledge. The learner is thereby moved away from being extrinsically motivated and focused on grades to becoming more intrinsically motivated, with a focus on learning. Cognitive presence in the form of active learning is transformative because it focuses on meaning-making that is relevant to the learner’s life personally and professionally, which has a positive impact on persistence.

The structure of course activities can support active learning. Discussions should focus on topics that require learners to think critically. The more structure that can be provided to discussion activities, the more opportunities learners will have to build critical thinking skills and develop an engaging community of inquiry. Criteria for discussions should focus on the elements of critical thinking, as well as on the expectations for engaging in discussions in a timely manner and for interacting with peers. Course activities should support active learning by providing opportunities for learners to develop an understanding of how to use an active knowledge base by "calling into question the assumptions underlying their customary, habitual ways of thinking and acting and then being ready to think and act differently on the basis of this critical questioning" (Brookfield, 1987, p. 1).

The flexibility of the learning environment can also have an impact on transactional distance, depending on the individual learning styles of learners. Some learners may require more structure to support their dependent learning styles, whereas others may be more self-directed and prefer independent learning experiences (Stavredes, 2011). The critical component of the structure is the flexibility to meet the individual needs of learners. Dependent learners will require more support to accomplish learning activities. Checklists can help them accomplish weekly tasks in the course and support their planning processes. Templates and worksheets help dependent learners understand how to accomplish specific tasks and monitor their learning. Reflective exercises can encourage them to evaluate their learning. Additionally, support resources can help them fill gaps in knowledge and skills. Independent learners, on the other hand, prefer to work alone. They may find some activities to be boring and repetitive, so providing a degree of flexibility to meet their needs is important. This can include allowing them to choose topics of interest to them personally and developing projects that allow them to have a certain degree of autonomy.

Teaching in the online environment requires a move away from the primary teaching role of lecturer to a new role as facilitator of learning; the aim is to support social and cognitive presence that allows learners to engage in a community of inquiry and actively engage in knowledge construction.

Teaching presence, the third and last type of presence, is critical to learner success. End-of-course evaluations from learners focus on the interactions they have with their instructor; complaints generally include comments regarding the lack of instructor presence. Teaching in the online environment requires a move away from the primary teaching role of lecturer to a new role as facilitator of learning; the aim is to support social and cognitive presence that allows learners to engage in a community of inquiry and actively engage in knowledge construction. The instructor role should include interactions to encourage participation and knowledge construction. The instructor should also monitor learner progress, provide formative feedback, and evaluate learner performance through summative feedback. Interactions should also encourage learners to be more self-directed.

To encourage participation, the instructor should reach out to learners personally to open up communication channels and establish trust. The acknowledgement of the learner personally also may contribute to learner accountability. The instructor should also encourage knowledge construction by keeping discussions interesting, motivating, and focused on the topic. The instructor can use prompts to encourage discussions and ask learners to elaborate on discussion posts when they don't meet the requirements of the discussion. When a learner has a narrow focus or opinion, the instructor can take on another perspective and challenge the learner's perspective or ask the learner to take on another perspective to help him or her look at the issue from a different viewpoint. Instructors can encourage learners to discuss the assumptions or implications of their line of reasoning. The instructor can also use weaving techniques throughout a discussion to develop an understanding of the diversity of opinions and different lines of reasoning of learners on the issue, as well as help re-focus the discussion if it moves off topic. The instructor who participates as an equal in the discussion and contributes their opinions can influence the thoughts of learners; so at the end of a discussion, the instructor can summarize the conversation and include his or her personal opinion and experience to provide additional insight on the issue.

It is essential that the online instructor monitor learner progress towards goals. Formative feedback allows learners an opportunity to improve performance along the way. In addition, it is important to point out writing issues to help learners overcome them early in the course, before major writing assignments are due. The instructor should also monitor individual learner activity and proactively reach out to inactive learners to re-engage them in the course. Monitoring the course environment for behavioral issues and quickly stepping in is crucial to ensuring that improper behavior is curtailed and that learners see the instructor is in control of the course environment. Learners want frequent feedback that is timely, specific, and actionable, so feedback should be provided throughout the course. Scoring guides and grading rubrics can provide important information to learners about the expectations of a graded activity and can help the instructor provide feedback that is consistent, specific, and actionable. Finally, it is important to continually encourage learners to become more self-directed by first providing them with extra support early in the course, and then gradually removing this. Strategies should be adopted to support the development of metacognitive skills that help the learner plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning in an online environment that is more suitable for learners who are self-directed.

To summarize, the physical separation of learners and the instructor in the online environment can create high transactional distance, which can have a negative impact on learners' ability to persist online and successfully achieve their educational goals. This creates a challenge for teaching and learning online and requires the design of online courses that create opportunities for increased dialogue as well as provide a flexible course structure to meet the individual needs of learners. The course design should encourage active learning and critical thinking, and it should create opportunities for developing social, cognitive, and teaching presence to build a community of inquiry. Overall, the more deliberate the planning of an online course to increase presence, dialogue, and flexibility to decrease transactional distance, the more opportunities learners will have to be a part of a transformative, online learning experience that encourages critical thinking and the social construction of knowledge through a community of inquiry.

References

Allen, I. E., & Seaman, J. (2009). *Learning on demand: Online education in the United States*. Needham, MA: Sloan Consortium.

Brookfield, S. D. (1987). *Developing critical thinkers: Challenging adults to explore alternative ways of thinking and acting*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Garrison, D. R., Anderson, T., & Archer. (2001). Critical thinking, cognitive presence, and computer conferencing in distance education. *American Journal of Distance Education*, *15*(1).

Kerhrwald, B. (2008). Understanding social presence in text-based online learning environments. *Distance Education*, *29*(1), 89–106.

Moore, M. (1980). Independent study. In R. Boyd, J. W. Apps, & Associates (Eds.), *Redefining the discipline of adult education* (pp. 16–31). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Short, J. A., Williams, E., & Christie, B. (1976). *The social psychology of telecommunications*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Stavredes, Tina (2011). *Effective Online Teaching: Foundations and Strategies for Student Success.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Tina Stavredes is chair of the psychology program in the School of Undergraduate Studies at Capella University. In her role she manages over 40 remote faculty. In 2010 she received the Harold Abel Distinguished Faculty Award. Previously, she was Director of Curriculum Development for Capella University. Dr. Stavredes holds a PhD in Educational Psychology with an instructional technology emphasis from the University of Minnesota. She has numerous publications and presentations to her credit. She has recently completed a book with Jossey-Bass titled ***Effective Online Teaching: Foundations and Strategies for Student Success*** *that will be published August, 2011.*

Putting Business Students in the Shoes of an Executive: An Applied Learning Approach to Developing Decision Making Skills

Jeanny Liu, PhD
Associate Professor, College of Business and Public Administration
University of La Verne

Deborah Olson, PhD
Associate Professor, College of Business and Public Administration
University of La Verne

Students often struggle with how to translate textbook concepts into real-world applications that allow them to personally experience the importance of these concepts. This is an ongoing challenge within all disciplines in higher education. To address this, faculty design their courses using methods beyond traditional classroom lectures to facilitate and reinforce student learning. The authors believe that students who are given hands-on problem-solving opportunities are more likely to retain such knowledge and apply it outside the classroom, in the workplace, volunteer activities, and other personal pursuits. In an attempt to engage students and provide them with meaningful opportunities to apply course concepts, the authors have initiated a number of experiential learning methods in the classroom. Since fall of 2008, elements of problem-based learning were integrated in the authors' business courses. Specifically, real-world consulting projects were introduced into their classrooms. This paper focuses on the authors' experiences implementing problem-based learning processes and practical project assignments that actively engage students in the learning process. The experiences and the feedback gathered from students and executives who participated in the "real-world" project are reported in this paper.

Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) is based on the work of Dewey, Lewin, and Piaget (Kolb, 1984). This approach is an established, integrative, holistic learning process that combines experience, perception, cognition, and behavioral learning approaches that optimize student learning and retention. Kolb and Kolb (2005) define experiential learning as a process that relies primarily on creating an environment in which students have direct experiences using concepts and theories presented in class. The goals of adopting experiential learning in the classroom include engaging students at a higher level of cognitive complexity, involving students in an active learning environment, demonstrating the application of theories in real-world situations, and developing students' ability to make business decisions that are based on analytical approaches.

In an effort to increase student engagement and link course concepts to real-world processes, we purposefully designed a series of assignments that required students to operate at increasing levels of cognitive complexity from the beginning to the end of the semester.

Experiential learning has become a significant educational pedagogy that has influenced the teaching and learning process for faculty and instructors at many educational institutions and in and across disciplines (Daly, 2001). Common forms of experiential learning include case studies, computer simulations, service learning projects, travel study courses, internships, and real-life consulting projects. Instructors who wish to pursue experiential learning pedagogies can avail themselves of a wide range of teaching methods and approaches. Each method has distinct advantages and disadvantages. These approaches can be ranked on a continuum representing increasing levels of cognitive complexity and linkages to real-world outcomes and processes. Table 1 below summarizes various experiential learning exercises based on an increasing level of cognitive complexity. At the lower levels of complexity, students learn the concepts and apply those to scenarios generated by the professor or other experts in the field. The lower levels include assignments such as computer simulations, role playing, and case studies. At this level, students do not experience any real-world consequences of their decisions or actions.

Table 1: A Comparison of Experiential Learning Exercises by Level of Cognitive Complexity

Types of Experiential Learning Exercises	Cognitive Complexity	Real Decision Making Skills	Real-World Contact	Real Consequences	Group Based	Real Feedback
Computer Simulation Role Playing Case Study	Low-Moderate	Low to Medium	No	No	Yes	No
Student Operated Business Client Consulting Project	Moderate-High	Medium to High	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Set up & Run a Mock Business Internship	High	High	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

The approach presented in this paper focuses on processes to engage students using the higher levels of cognitive complexity. This method aims to design a learning experience that engages students at a higher cognitive complexity and creates opportunities for students to work in teams and interact with business leaders to make decisions that have real-world consequences. Specifically, the approach described in this paper focused on how to put students in the shoes of executives by integrating a consulting project into the learning design of the course. This approach prepares students to think critically by giving them the opportunity to see the challenges that executives face when they have to make important decisions that will impact (it is hoped positively) the growth and viability of their businesses. This experience allows students to develop greater insight into the challenges they will face as they enter the workplace after college. Having a deep understanding of the complexity of the markets and the workplace will help students make more astute personal decisions about their career options and will increase the value they bring to the organizations for which they choose to work.

Adopting a Real-Client Consulting Project

Researchers have emphasized the need for a real-life project selection and evaluation (Lopez & Lee, 2005). To create an effective learning process for the students, the organizational leaders who are to be selected for the students to work with should be carefully evaluated to ensure that they are willing to assist students in learning, as well as value the proposals that the students share with them to improve their organization. Lopez and Lee (2005) suggest five principles for selecting workable client-based projects: (1) select clients with care, (2) design projects of varying scope, (3) invest in advance planning, (4) manage and set high expectations, and (5) provide periodic and productive feedback.

In applying Lopez and Lee's (2005) principles, we found it to be more efficient to use one common client across multiple related courses. This allowed us to source and prepare for a high quality client. In addition, the students knew they were competing with other classes (i.e., two undergraduate classes and one graduate level class), and this raised the overall quality of the students' work.

For their consulting client, we selected Massage U, Inc., founded in 2006 by Paul Kleiman, a physical therapist. Massage U's main product, the Roleo Massager, is designed to help people who suffer from carpal tunnel and other hand/forearm injuries. Paul and his two business partners (a marketing director for Neutrogena and a medical doctor who specializes in repetitive stress injuries) wanted help in bringing their product concept to market. Like many early-stage companies, Massage U had limited resources and spent most of its start-up capital developing the product. To take their business to the next level, the partners needed a better understanding of their market and a well-designed overall strategy. This was the value the students could offer to the leaders of Massage U. The project for the students was to create an integrated marketing plan to increase awareness in their target markets and deliver a go-to-market plan in a cost efficient manner.

Table 2 provides a summary of the consulting project assignment that was given to the students. The students were asked to interact with Massage U's founders and assess the current marketing practices, as well as make recommendations at the end of the term.

Table 2: Consulting Project Description

Client Consulting Project

You and your group will create a marketing plan for Massage U, Inc. You will compete with other teams to generate the best marketing program. The objective of the project is to investigate the issues and challenges of the Roleo Therapeutic Massager product and generate a marketing plan to help the business to increase short-term sales and long-term strategic actions. This project consists of two parts: a written part of the project and a presentation component. The basic outline of your presentation is as follows:

Part I: Current Company and Industry Situation and Challenges

- Company Information
- Industry Information
- Identify Current Competition in the Market
- Identify Current Target Market that the business is serving
- Identify the Risks and Challenges of continuing the business without any changes

Part II: Assess Future or Potential Demand

- Potential Future Demand in the Market (e.g., Consumer Behavior Changes)
- Consumers' Needs or Taste Preference for this Product/Service (e.g., Types of substitutable therapies)
- Discuss Segmentation Variables (e.g., Income, Population, Lifestyle, Usage Rate, etc.)
- Describe the Chosen Target Market(s)

- Discuss Other Variables that would fit the chosen target market and would make the product a success (e.g., consumption statistics, macroeconomic trends, microeconomic trends, etc.)

Part III: Recommendation and Marketing Program

- Proposed Product Offering/Service Offering Information
- Proposed Value Proposition
- Proposed Pricing Strategy
- Proposed Promotion Strategy
- Proposed Distribution Strategy

Students were assigned to groups in order to work together to develop an integrated approach that addressed the founders' needs. The students' groups met with the founders and asked questions to gather specific data relevant to the problems that faced Massage U's market. Using the data they gathered and the concepts they learned earlier in the semester, the students conducted systematic research on the organization and its competitive environment.

Multiple sections of the same business marketing course were involved simultaneously in this client consulting assignment. Having multiple classes of students working on the same client not only provided different approaches and perspectives for the client to consider, but also interjected a "competitive spirit" among the student teams that pushed them to expand their approach and raised the quality of their work. The following describes briefly the three classes that participated in this learning process and the learning objectives of each course.

Marketing Principles (Bus 360) is a core course for the bachelor of business administration students and an elective for accounting and economics students. This is the first marketing class for business majors. The course goals are to (a) develop an awareness of current practice and trends employed and affecting the practice of moving the product from the producer to the customer/consumer; (b) demonstrate the ability to create a strategic marketing plan; (c) develop insight into the processes for developing efficient strategies for the marketing of goods and services; (d) develop the ability to assess the status of a marketing effort and to employ marketing theory to improve its effectiveness; (e) instill the thought that modern marketing is one of global consideration and that a marketing effort must be designed and maintained as one operating in an arena of global competition; and (f) provide an overview of the current technology influences on the traditional marketing environment and the management of the marketing mix, including product planning, pricing, promotion, and channel distribution. The class that participated in this study is composed of 15 traditional undergraduate students with a 40% mix of adult students. Students are mainly sophomores and juniors but not necessarily with an emphasis in Marketing. The class meets once a week for 15 weeks.

Marketing Management (Bus 461) is a required course for students seeking a marketing concentration in the business administration program. This is the upper division business elective course for undergraduate students. The course is intended to deepen students' understanding in marketing, and a business principles course is a prerequisite for this course. Students came to the course with a higher level understanding of marketing concepts and knowledge, and had already taken Marketing Principles (Bus 360). The course goals are (a) to develop in the student a deeper understanding of the critical role marketing plays in the progressive firm's strategic and tactical operations; (b) to enhance the student's understanding of the marketing management function in consumer product, industrial, nonprofit, and service; (c) to assist the student in building the skills and intellectual processes necessary to formulate successful marketing strategies; (d) to enhance the student's understanding of current practice with respect to marketing, the global nature of marketing, and the interdisciplinary skills required of today's modern executive; and (e) to enhance students' critical thinking and reasoning skills in the development and preparation of marketing plans and programs used by for-profit firms, public sector organizations, service businesses, and nonprofit organizations. The class that participated in this study is composed of ten traditional undergraduate students. Students are mainly juniors and seniors with little variation in age and experience. Many of them came from a retail background and currently worked full-time or part-time in retail. Class meets three times a week for 15 weeks.

Business Marketing (Bus 500F) This is a foundation course for MBA students who either have never taken a marketing course or have taken a slightly different business course in a foreign country and need the credits before entering the MBA program. This course is designed for those preparing to enter the graduate degree program but lacking either the academic background or equivalent experience in the marketing discipline necessary to participate successfully in courses leading to a degree. The course objectives are to (a) develop an awareness of current practice and trends employed and affecting the practice of moving the product from the producer to the customer/consumer; (b) demonstrate the ability to create a strategic marketing plan; (c) develop insight into the processes for developing efficient strategies for the marketing of goods and services; (d) develop the ability to assess the status of a marketing effort and to employ marketing theory to improve its effectiveness; (e) instill the thought that modern marketing is one of global consideration and that a marketing effort must be designed and maintained as one operating in an arena of global competition; and (f) provide an overview of the current technology influences on the traditional marketing environment and the management of the marketing mix including product planning, pricing, promotion, and channel distribution. The class that participated in this study is composed of 27 pre-MBA students. Students came to the course with very little marketing knowledge but with some work experience. Approximately half of the class is English speaking adult students, and the other half are non-English speaking international students. The class meets once a week for ten weeks.

Preparing the Students Prior to Presentation

There are several approaches that an instructor may wish to employ while adopting a consulting project, none of which are mutually exclusive. It is recommended that, regardless of the specific methodology, students be exposed to some material related to the project. As echoed by Lopez and Lee (2005), client projects are doable, but the process requires a considerable amount of time commitment and planning. The authors suggest integrating the project as a final semester project. The project could easily fit within a four hour class block that meets once a week over the course of a 10 or 15 week period. In the consulting project described in this paper, the authors dedicated the last hour of each class session specifically to allow student teams to work together on the project.

In an effort to increase student engagement and link course concepts to real-world processes, we purposefully designed a series of assignments that required students to operate at increasing levels of cognitive complexity from the beginning to the end of the semester. When designing the assignments, we implemented a learn-by-doing applied learning process. Specifically, at the beginning of the semester, students were given carefully selected case studies that focus on businesses-to-consumers and small group exercises to prepare the students with baseline ability to apply marketing concepts before engaging the Massage U founders. The professor led full class discussions on the key concepts and provided feedback on the quality of the student's analyses and approach to the cases and small group exercises. Once the concepts were understood, the professor introduced the client consulting challenge, thereby easing the students into interacting with real-world executives and preparing the students to be successful. Different tools and approaches that were used to facilitate learning for the students in the design of this project are summarized below.

In an effort to increase student engagement and link course concepts to real-world processes, we purposefully designed a series of assignments that required students to operate at increasing levels of cognitive complexity from the beginning to the end of the semester.

Weekly Project Discussions and Assignments. One method to help students stay focused and involved in the project is to establish specific weekly milestones. To help students meet deadlines and experience success in the course, a series of weekly assignments that are linked to course content and are central to achieving the objectives of the consulting project have been added to the overall course design. Each assignment is carefully designed to help students understand and apply theoretical concepts covered in class directly to the consulting project. The weekly cases and assignments were established to facilitate the students' development so that they would be prepared for the delivery of the final marketing plan and the presentation to the Massage U business leaders at the end of the semester. Table 3 provides the list of weekly assignments completed by students.

Table 3: Weekly Assignments Linked with Course Concepts

Assignment for Discussion on Organization and Strategic Planning

- Conduct a SWOT analysis for Massage U, Inc., ie discuss its strengths, weaknesses, potential opportunities, and threats facing the company.
- Discuss the competitive environment and define the competitors of Massage U, Inc.
- Using a table format, compare the strengths and weaknesses of its competitors.
- Select which competitors to compete with or avoid and provide justifications.
- Post your responses on blackboard with appropriate references and citations.

Assignment for Discussion on Environmental Scanning

- Prepare a Marketing Environmental Analysis for Massage U, Inc. Conduct library research and evaluate the five environmental factors that are happening and relevant in the industry.
- Post your responses on blackboard with appropriate references (if any) and citations.

Assignment for Discussion on Consumer Behavior

- Determine the buying process of the user/client of Massage U, Inc
- How do/should consumers hear about the product?
- What needs do consumers have?
- What values do consumers desire from such a product? (Define the key drivers for this type of product/service)
- Who are the influencers and who would have influence over their decisions?
- Are there any substitute products?
- Describe (if any) potential post-purchase behavior.
- Post your responses on blackboard with appropriate references and citations.

Assignment for Discussion on Segmentation, Targeting, and Positioning

- Identify potential markets and segments for Massage U, Inc
- Select the most attractive target market(s) for the company and provide justifications with supporting evidence
- Create samples of perceptual maps using key satisfaction variables
- Post your responses on blackboard with appropriate references (if any) and citations.

Assignment for Discussion on Product and the Product Life Cycle

- Discuss whether there is a clear and distinct difference between Massage U, Inc. and its competition.
- If so, what are the few distinct differences that make Massage U's product unique or more desirable?
- Evaluate the product life cycle and its value offerings.
- What type of intangible attributes can Massage U, Inc. provide to differentiate itself in the industry?
- What type of value(s) should they capture for a more need driven model?
- Post your responses on blackboard with appropriate references (if any) and citations.

Assignment for Discussion on Price and Price Setting

- How would you describe Massage U's price positioning strategy?
- How does it relate to the 5 C's affecting the pricing structure? (For example: How does Massage U's current price structure compare to its competitors', relate to its customers, increase value through channel members, etc.)
- What type of price strategies can be applied toward a short-term effect in order to stimulate demand?
- What type of price strategies can be utilized in building long term perceived value for its targeted market segments?
- Post your responses on blackboard with appropriate references (if any) and citations.

Wikis used to facilitate communication and successful project completion.

After each weekly assignment, students are asked to transfer their group discussions and personal reflections in written form to a wiki page that is only visible to members within the team and the instructor. The instructor's role is one of a facilitator and helps to provide feedback to students to help them stay focused on the key issues. A wiki page can help the instructor to facilitate students' thoughts and ideas into written form after each group discussion.

To set up a wiki page, instructors can visit the content area through course management systems (i.e., Blackboard) and create a wiki page. For example, Blackboard allows instructors to choose and limit selected members who can access, view, and edit the wiki page. Similar to a white canvas, a wiki is a social media tool offering a blank web space that is available for students to collaborate on one document collectively. Students can co-create documents, share thoughts, reflect, upload images, give links to references, and allocate tasks to complete the project in one central area. This is a useful tool for students to effectively communicate virtually with each other without having to be bound by physical location or to deal with the issues of finding a common time to meet face to face. It also benefits instructors to facilitate discussions and monitor student progress. If, however, a wiki page is not available, Google offers a free discussion platform that utilizes a similar idea. Rather than a blank web space, Google groups or sites can be set up free of charge. In addition, the platform can be utilized to facilitate chats within groups and communications with outside people, mainly the business executives. For the past couple of years, the authors have found it useful in setting up a discussion area that links students to business executives via a discussion forum of this type. Based on the feedback from the executives, the discussion forum is an important tool that facilitates effective communications with the students.

Exam Questions for Individual Assessment. The instructor can also use concerns and questions about the project that arise each week to write specific exam questions that directly assess the individual student's ability to link the course concepts to the consulting project. For example, based on the Massage U's project, Table 4 shows a list of questions that were given in the form of a mini-midterm to assess individual student performance.

Table 4: Exam Questions to Assess Individual Student Performance

SAMPLE COURSE LEARNING OBJECTIVES	EXAM QUESTIONS TO MEET LEARNING OBJECTIVES
Strategic market and product analysis • product positioning • product differentiation • consumer value, • target market identification	• Describe the industry that Massage U competes in. (Attach 3 credible articles/sources and correctly cite references at the end of the paper according to the APA format) • Discuss the most important players (3-5) in the market and analyze their strategy and position in the market using a BCG Matrix (include Massage U in the Matrix). • If you were the deciding manager how would you have positioned the business? Create a perceptual map against other alike competitors. Explain where Massage U is and where you would like to see it moving forward. • Identify the key satisfaction factors for the shoppers of Massage U. Explain why.
Marketing plan and market strategy • Strategic analysis and decision making • Strategic capability analysis • Marketing Management function • Marketing strategy and integration with corporate strategy	Describe the key problems confronting Massage U and make ONE recommendation for the company on the most important problem. Identify which key issue should be addressed and suggest an approach to solving the problem. What decisions need to be made by the upper management? Avoid any ambiguous recommendation and generate possible actionable strategies. Please be as specific and detailed as possible. (Follow the guidelines similar to the case writing below.)

- *WHY do you recommend it (support using theoretical framework)?*
- *HOW will it be implemented (be specific)?*
- *WHAT and which marketing strategy will be used?*
- *HOW much TIME, MONEY, and WHAT will it take to implement the strategy?*
- *JUSTIFY and PROVIDE SUPPORTING MATERIAL in the appendix why this solution is the best option through a logical argument supported by research.*

These exam questions are framed to reflect and reinforce the required objectives to meet student learning outcomes for the course. The example midterm question shows how students are challenged to integrate course concepts (e.g., SWOT analysis, Boston Consulting Group matrix) and relate them to their project. This is an important step to help students to bring more clarity to their thoughts and frame their ideas regarding how to apply the concepts.

Case Study Method and Analyses. In addition to the consulting project, a series of case studies can be assigned to prepare students to think critically and strategically about significant business challenges that leaders face and need to address. These case studies would need to be carefully selected. We recommend beginning with short, less complicated cases and building toward more complex situations that require more sophisticated integration of analysis, course concepts, and creativity over the course of the semester. The traditional case study pedagogy has been commonly used in graduate programs (Forman, 2006). The authors found it useful to adopt the case study method even at the undergraduate level. An example of a valuable resource is the book *Marketing Mistakes and Successes* by Robert Hartley. This case book is easy to read and clearly structured, with insightful questions and debate exercises that point out the salient facts for each case. Students of varying ages and work experiences are able to grasp the concepts very quickly. Additionally, instructors can choose among cases that are relevant to the consulting project to establish basic concepts, develop awareness, spark interest, encourage dialogue, and expand the student's knowledge of the industry. These case studies are an important part of the design to build understanding and knowledge regarding the issues that executives confront in their business and that impact the marketing decisions and investments that business leaders make regularly.

Developing and Presenting Recommendations. At the end of the semester, a presentation meeting was scheduled with the business executives for students from all classes to come together to present their recommendations. The entire presentation process could range from two to four hours, depending upon the number of student groups that are presenting. In the example described in this paper, each team was given a maximum of 15 to 25 minutes to present their analyses and recommendations followed by a 5-minute question and answer session. During this meeting, the role of the executives was to evaluate, ask questions, and provide immediate feedback on the soundness of each plan. The feedback from the business executives was often perceived by the students as the most important factor that contributed to their growth, both academically and professionally.

The Consulting Project: Smaller is Better

In the business schools, most professors have sought to adopt cases from Fortune 500 companies. However, based on our experience adopting client projects, we have found that small businesses provide an ideal venue for a class project. Small business executives are great candidates because of their willingness to devote more time to work with students and gain value from their innovative and thoughtful recommendations. We have found that, when carefully selected, leaders of small businesses are zealous in providing students with practical and detailed information, engaging students on discussion boards and in group chats, and giving frequent and timely feedback. In return, students are more likely to provide valuable and well-thought-out contributions to the success of the business. Often, small business leaders struggle with limited resources and sometimes lack formal business training. Additionally, many executives leading small businesses are able to quickly implement the suggestions they receive from the students. The impacts of the changes they make are often directly measurable and immediate. The authors have found that the leaders who have participated in this partnership are willing to provide students with status updates clearly describing the impact of their recommendations on market growth and profits.

Finding an appropriate business case to adopt can be a challenging task. Here are some resources that instructors can consider when searching for viable client projects.

- Select from a pool of personal contacts, professional organizations, friends, acquaintances
- Inquire about local interested businesses for potential on-site opportunities
- Inquire of interested individuals from present or past students
- Contact the University/School business advisory board for potential projects
- Create posting in LinkedIn profile or Facebook, or School WebPage

Facilitating Student Development

Using a consulting project facilitates student development beyond assisting them in understanding the concepts related to the course objectives for the class. For example, the ability to ask clear and meaningful questions is a real-world skill that can be developed and refined during this type of real-world project assignment. To be effective when interacting with the leaders, the students prepared for the meetings with the executives by developing a list of questions to help them fully understand the business. To establish credibility with the leaders, students needed to do the necessary research about the organization before the meetings so that they did not "waste time" asking general questions to gather information that was available on their website or in other printed format. Instead, students asked clearly articulated questions that encouraged the executive to share specific nuances and complex issues that directly impacted the success of their business and perceptions of their product. It was through understanding the complexities of the issues and engaging in a meaningful dialogue about the organizational challenges that the students were able to see the world through the executives' eyes and understand the issues they faced daily.

In a traditional classroom lecture, the professor reviews concepts related to strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT) that the organizational leaders need to address. Having understood the concepts and process, students then complete a SWOT analysis of an organizational case that is in their text or is presented by the professor. In a traditional SWOT analysis, students need to answer questions such as "What are the strengths in terms of products and services that your company offers, relative to the competition in your markets?" However, in this consulting project context, the students need to probe for additional details about the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats, since they are not "neatly presented" in a written case that the students are reading in their texts. Students in this class who are interviewing the leader as part of their consulting project need to also ask a series of follow-up questions; to develop a meaningful marketing plan, they must understand the unique challenges faced by the small business leader. For example, their questions are formulated as follows:

- How have the changing demographics in Southern California impacted the design of products you have developed? Have you gathered data on changing customer preferences? How have you used the data you gathered to change, improve, or alter your product design?
- Have you done any trials or experiments for measuring the effectiveness of Roleo in alleviating pain observed in patients or customers? How do you currently position Roleo in comparison to other therapeutic massagers?
- Given that your products are 'discretionary purchases', how have you changed your marketing process to keep your current customers? What actions have you taken to attract new customers?
- Traditionally you have used local suppliers for the materials to manufacture your product; what impact has competition from offshore manufacturers had on your product position and customer base?

As with all experiential learning processes, professors need to encourage students to ask and reflect on questions such as "Did this class expand my ability to think about marketing processes and organizational decisions in a new or different way?" In the example described in this paper, each class session created new ways to integrate the marketing concepts with the real- world challenges that leaders face every day in their businesses. Faculty need to ensure that students are regularly reflecting on their learning and integrating the information discussed during each class session. This can be done through use of reflective learning summaries written each week and/or blogs on which students can share their knowledge and perspectives with each other. The faculty can use these reflective tools to identify gaps in students' understanding, and have as well students share their perspectives and insights with the class. Thus peer learning occurs, encouraged by the instructor. This is consistent with John Dewey's (1938) assertion that we learn not just by having experiences, but also by reflecting on those experiences and identifying what we have learned.

The design of the consulting project in this class ensures that students have the opportunity to meet with small business owners and talk with them in detail about their business. The development and learning that students experienced went beyond the integration of course concepts. The contribution to students' development included the following:

Faculty need to ensure that students are regularly reflecting on their learning and integrating the information discussed during each class session.

- The ability to obtain information directly from business leaders enabled students to understand that in real-world settings, data is not neatly summarized; often, new information emerges that needs to be integrated and addressed by the leaders who are running the business. This reinforced the understanding that business leaders face problems that are multidimensional and constantly changing. This shows that decisions made in the past impact the business decisions made to address current opportunities and challenges.
- Students received feedback from the business leaders in "real time," so that the students knew which ideas were meaningful and could be used in the business and which ideas were too "conceptual" and did not offer added value from the business leaders' perspective.
- The business leaders offered students feedback on the quality of their marketing plans and the professionalism of their presentations. This offers students a unique developmental opportunity to change, improve, and adapt their presentation skills and ability to articulate ideas and concepts; when they begin interviewing for jobs, they can then reflect on what they learned from the leaders' feedback in this consulting project.

- Students are able to see how the course material fits contextually into the real world. For example, in the Massage U consulting project, students are challenged to link marketing to strategy, finance, and sales in the process of developing their recommendations.

The interaction with the executive in the consulting project is another dimension of learning that is created through this type of experiential course design and that can make a significant impact on student development and growth. From interacting with the business executives, students gain a greater sense of career-relevant skills and professionalism. Skills that students have an opportunity to develop include (1) business acumen through expanding their understanding of the challenges and issues from the business leader's perspective; (2) self-confidence through the process of engaging in discussions with the business leaders and making presentations to them; and 3) interpersonal and communication skills through working with other students on the consulting project team, as well as through meaningful interactions with the business leaders to develop the marketing plan that students will present to them.

This is consistent with Barr and McNeilly (2002) who assert that one critical value students gain from having meaningful, real-world experiences that contribute to their learning is to fully understand the job-related skills that are important to be effective in one's career. Meaningful experiential learning assignments help students build the skills necessary to demonstrate their job competence and to make well-thought-out decisions about their career options. When gathering data from recruiters who interview on college campuses to identify students who fit their open job postings, Barr and McNeilly (2002) found that 40% of the time, the recruiters asked about the specific classroom experiences the students had in their classes. Thus, using the process discussed in this paper gives students classroom experiences and assignments to discuss in job interviews that reflect real business activities. Students can discuss their knowledge with recruiters and provide strong evidence of business-relevant experiences that can translate directly to job performance.

Student Feedback on this Learning Design

In the spring of 2009, an online survey was completed by all students in the marketing classes. The questions gathered data on the students' perceptions of their learning experiences. When students were asked about the most satisfactory aspects of the course, their comments indicated that in many cases students had strong positive feelings about their project experience, and they commented directly about how it helped them to gain the necessary knowledge in the discipline. The following are examples of comments that addressed what contributed most to their learning:

> Realistic study by using real case! The last presentation was so exciting because the professor used a project that made the important factors concepts clear and improved our knowledge of marketing.
>
> The group projects were the best aspect of the course. Challenging at times but the connection with classmates and understanding the concepts was exceptional.
>
> …To cooperate with selected company leaders to give students real experience is a very good technique. I can't think of anything else to improve this class. We had a great amount of project and hands-on experience.

There was also negative feedback from some of the students. This included the amount of work and time this type of project demanded from them. Students indicated that while they learned a lot through a real-life project, they do not see themselves taking more than one course that used the consulting project learning approach in the same semester.

From the perspective of learning the concepts presented in the class and applying them in a real-world context, it was clear that through this process the students were able to provide the business executives with valuable insights. The executives who participated, demonstrated enthusiasm and excitement to be part of the process and were able to make immediate changes based on students' recommendations.

> We were honored to be considered as part of this important class project, thrilled throughout the entire process, and applaud the concept of using 'everyday businesses' in real-life situations as an instructional road map.
>
> During the presentations the leaders described their experience. We flew down to participate in a 'mock-board meeting' where four groups presented their proposals about how our company could and should expand its current customer base to show added profits.
>
> Upon returning to the office, we immediately applied a number of ideas brought forth by the students and witnessed increased earnings of approximately 27 percent in the first year. Obviously, solid instruction, coupled with real-world marketing approaches proved beneficial for our business, as well as for each of the students who worked on this for us.

These reflections suggest that both the student and the business have gained from this experience. In the design phase of this approach, we had doubts and concerns about the actual impact that students would be able to make over the course of one semester in one class. Now, we can share with our colleagues in business and other disciplines that this type of real-life consulting project can be an excellent way to engage both the students in our classes and the communities that we serve as part of an institution of higher education.

Conclusion

The concept of integrating client-based projects is not new and has been adopted by many (Lopez & Lee, 2005; Li, Greenberg, & Nicholls, 2007; Barr & McNeilly, 2002). Existing research has addressed the benefits of this type of experiential learning in class, in which it provides a more stimulating educational experience (Li, Greenberg, & Nicholls, 2007), helps to generate interest in course concepts (Lopez & Lee, 2005), fosters a sense of students' ownership of the learning process (Lopez & Lee, 2005), increases students' learning and motivation, improves students' communication skills (Forman, 2006), and builds students' career-relevant value and skills (Barr & McNeilly, 2002). This pedagogy not only initiates a deeper level of understanding of course concepts but also facilitates a higher level of active learning.

Meaningful experiential learning assignments help students build the skills necessary to demonstrate their job competence and to make well thought out decisions about their career options.

While textbook principles provide a useful fundamental framework, student learning is enhanced when instructors integrate challenging organizational problems into assignments that give students opportunities to see the market by "being in the shoes of the executive" who is accountable for the success of the business. Learning is maximized when students step outside of the classroom through engaging in opportunities to work directly with people who face challenges and issues related to the concepts they are studying. Through this direct experience, students are able to develop the necessary skills to make informed decisions and to integrate textbook knowledge to address the complex issues which leaders face.

Furthermore, students who have an opportunity to have meaningful interactions with organizational leaders will expand their ability to retain the information learned in class as well as increase their self-confidence and knowledge about how to address complex marketing issues and opportunities in the real world. Learning about themselves, through the interactions with peers in class and executives outside of class, will provide students with a wider range of options regarding what they can personally do to increase their own professional impact. Students will receive valuable knowledge about how they can expand their own natural talents when working with organizational leaders, as well as identify what they need to improve or change in order to enhance their impact when working with and influencing others. Having deep learning experiences like the one described in this paper will help contribute to students' individual effectiveness and motivation.

References

Barr, T. F., & McNeilly, K. M. (2002). The value of students' classroom experiences from the eyes of the recruiter: Information, implications, and recommendations for marketing educators. *Journal of Marketing Education*, 24(2), 168-173.

Daly, S. (2001). Student-operated Internet businesses: True experiential learning in entrepreneurship and retail management. J*ournal of Marketing Education*, 23(3), 204-215.

Dewey, J. (1938). Education and experience. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.

Forman, H. (2006). Participative case studies: Integrating case writing and a traditional case study approach in a marketing context. *Journal of Marketing Education*, 28(2), 106-113.

Kolb, A. Y., & Kolb, D. A. (2005). Learning styles and learning spaces: Enhancing experiential learning in higher education. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 4(2), 193-212.

Kolb, D. A. (1984). Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Li, T., Greenberg, B. A., & Nicholls, J. A. F. (2007). Teaching experiential learning: Adoption of an innovative course in an MBA marketing curriculum. *Journal of Marketing Education*, 29(1), 25-33.

Lopez, T. B., & Lee, R. G. (2005). Five principles for workable client-based projects: Lessons from the trenches. *Journal of Marketing Education*, 27(2), 172-188.

Jeanny Liu is an Associate Professor of marketing at the University of La Verne. She completed her doctoral research and received her PhD in marketing at the University of Turin, Italy. Her research areas are consumer behavior and interactive marketing. She currently teaches marketing management and international marketing to undergraduate and MBA students. She is actively involved in course redesign to integrate experiential learning components to business courses at both undergraduate and graduate level.

Deborah Olson completed her masters and PhD in organizational psychology at Wayne State University. Dr. Olson is an Associate Professor of management at the University of La Verne. She teaches classes in management and leadership for both graduate and undergraduate students. She has worked on course redesign to incorporate media and experiential learning in class assignments and led international travel study classes for both graduate and undergraduate students.

Incivility Beyond the Classroom Walls

Wendy L. Bjorklund, PhD
Assistant Professor, Department of Communication Studies
St. Cloud State University

Diana L. Rehling, PhD
Professor, Department of Communication Studies
St. Cloud State University

Classroom incivility has become a major concern in higher education. Faculty and students frequently interact outside of class, and the lack of civility in those interactions can influence the relationship between students and faculty and impact classroom dynamics. Based on a survey of faculty at a Midwestern public university, this study reports that faculty experience a fair amount of moderately inappropriate student behavior outside the classroom, including missing scheduled appointments, wearing revealing clothing, and requesting a grade change. These results can help faculty and administrators guide students toward more appropriate behavior and create better relationships between faculty and students.

The decline of civility in US society has become a hot topic over the past two decades, with scholars and reporters addressing everything from the loss of civility in the workplace to the absence of manners on mass transit (Jacoby, 1999; Lunday, 2007). Looking beyond the definition of civility as connected to citizenship and moving towards the more common notion of civility as related to "behavior proper to the intercourse of civilized people" (Rookstool, 2007), the laments are about how we interact with one another. Within higher education, the focus has been primarily upon declining civility in the classroom (Alexander-Snow, 2004; Dechter, 2007; Feldmann, 2001; Sorcinelli, 1994). Scholars note that classroom incivility takes a toll on student learning and can even impact students' respect and regard for the academic institution itself (Feldmann, 2001; Hirschy & Braxton, 2004; Morrissette, 2001). Furthermore, and more relevant to the present study, faculty members report that dealing with student incivility is discouraging and disheartening and can impact their relationships with students (Appleby, 1990; Boice, 1996; Clark & Spring, 2007; Jones, 2004). Some faculty members indicate student incivility has even caused them to reconsider their choice of profession (Boice, 1996). In addition, new and younger faculty, female faculty, and faculty of color are more likely to be the targets of incivility (Boice, 1996; Alexander-Snow, 2004). To deal with such matters, institutions have begun to create new student programs, codes of conduct, and other measures aimed at educating students about appropriate behavior and informing them of the possible consequences of infractions (Dechter, 2007; Young 2003).

Faculty may want to directly discuss with students their expectations with regard to such behaviors, either in class or via the course syllabus, to help educate students about professorial expectations and, perhaps, to explain the reasons for the expectations on the professor's part.

Research on incivility in higher education has concentrated largely upon faculty perceptions of students' behavior in the classroom setting (Amada, 1999; Appleby 1990; Boice, 1996; Feldmann, 2001; Indiana University Center for Survey Research, 2000). Yet many interactions between faculty and students take place outside the context of formal class sessions, and the lack of civility in those interactions can also strongly influence the relationship between students and faculty members, impact the dynamics of the classroom, and influence the faculty members' attitudes toward their job and profession.

Furthermore, understandings about civility, while ideally communal and widely recognized, are also perceptual and negotiated. The most egregious behaviors, such as racial slurs or sexual harassment, may be generally recognized as unacceptable, but in some instances the boundaries between civil and uncivil, appropriate and inappropriate, are less clear. What one faculty member may find exceptionally rude may register as a minor annoyance with another. What members of one generation consider acceptable may be perceived as disrespectful to many members of another generation. And yet each individual assigns meaning and acts out of their sense of what behavior is appropriate.

The hallways of academia are filled with anecdotes of inappropriate student behavior outside the classroom—behavior that in some studies faculty and researchers have labeled "uncivil" (e.g., Appleby, 1990; Indiana University Center for Survey Research, 2000). Yet no formal research has been aimed particularly at the topic of inappropriate or uncivil behavior outside the classroom walls. This gap in the research means that there is no clear sense, for faculty or students, as to what faculty consider appropriate behavior in interactions between faculty and students outside the classroom walls—thus creating a situation ripe for confusion and misunderstandings. The present study is intended to help fill that gap and provide information to faculty, students, and administrators about faculty perceptions of the kinds and frequency of inappropriate behaviors faculty encounter with students outside the classroom.[1] Toward that end, we posed two research questions: What behaviors outside the classroom do faculty perceive as inappropriate in their interactions with students? And to what extent do faculty perceive these inappropriate behaviors to be occurring in their interactions with students outside the classroom?

Methods

Sample

One hundred fifty-three faculty participants were recruited from a Midwestern university through an emailed letter sent via the faculty list serve. The list serve included approximately 1,300 faculty members (this number varies slightly from day to day because faculty members may join or leave the list serve whenever they choose to do so).[2] A duplicate letter also was sent to faculty members via campus mail. Faculty participants ranged in age from 25 to 67 years of age, with a mean age of 48.58 (standard deviation .857), and a median age of 49.00. Faculty had a mean of 14.64 (standard deviation 9.697) years of experience and a median of 12.00 years of experience teaching at the college level. Participants included 52 men and 90 women.

Procedure

The recruitment letter included a link to an online survey constructed using SurveyMonkey software. The survey was pretested through a pilot study in the semester prior to the one in which data were collected for the actual study. In addition to providing demographic information, participants rated how frequently they observed students engaging in various inappropriate behaviors outside of the classroom, along with the degree of inappropriateness of those behaviors. "Inappropriate" was defined for the participants as "student behavior which is not suited to effective professional interactions, including such behaviors as those which put the instructor in an awkward position, place unreasonable demands for time and attention on the instructor, place demands on the instructor that are not part of his/her responsibilities, insult the instructor, etc."

Variables

Degree of inappropriateness of student behaviors. In this study, the researchers separated uncivil classroom behaviors from behaviors students exhibit outside of the classroom that seem to be inappropriate, or rude, to their professors. A list of inappropriate behaviors that occur outside of the classroom was derived from a review of literature on student incivility (e.g., Appleby, 1990; Indiana University Center for Survey Research, 2000), and to that list were added a few behaviors the researchers found to be particularly disturbing. Two additional behaviors that were clearly *appropriate* were added to the list (for a total of 14 items), and this list was used in the survey. The inclusion of these two appropriate behaviors allowed the researchers to identify participants who were not reading the items, but were simply rating each item identically. Participants were asked "To what degree do you consider these behaviors to be inappropriate?" They used a 5-point Likert-type scale to evaluate each behavior. This scale ranged from "1 = not inappropriate at all" to "5 = extremely inappropriate".

Frequency of inappropriate student behaviors. Participants also were asked to rate how frequently they observed each of the 14 student behaviors using a 5-point Likert-type scale. This scale ranged from "1 = never" to "5 = frequently".

Results

In order to answer the first research question focused upon identifying inappropriate behaviors, the mean rating for the degree of inappropriateness for each student behavior was calculated, and the behaviors were then ranked in order of inappropriateness, from most inappropriate to least inappropriate (see Table 1). Next, a one-way repeated-measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was calculated, which indicated that there was a significant difference in the degree to which the participants perceived the inappropriateness of the individual behaviors (F = 2,699.86, df = 1, 123, $p < .01$, medium effect size, Eta = .98).

Faculty participants rated no student behaviors with a mean of 4 or above (4 = very inappropriate). They rated seven behaviors, however, with a mean of 3 or above (3 = moderately inappropriate). They also rated four behaviors with a mean of 2 or below (2 = somewhat inappropriate). The behaviors rated 2 or below included (in descending order): "sending e-mail or voicemails requesting you call them back," "requesting the instructor inform them of their grade at the end of the semester," "arriving at a scheduled meeting on time," and "requesting letters of recommendation with plenty of lead time." The lowest rated behaviors were those not intended to be perceived as inappropriate.

The study's second research question focused on the frequency of the inappropriate behaviors. The mean rating for the frequency by which each behavior was observed was calculated, and the behaviors were then ranked in order of frequency, from most frequent to least frequent (see Table 2). Next, a one-way repeated-measures ANOVA was calculated, which indicated that there was a significant difference in the frequency by which the participants perceived the individual inappropriate behaviors (F = 2,306.77, df = 1, 125, $p < .01$, medium effect size, Eta = .97).

Faculty gave no student inappropriate behavior a mean frequency rating of 4 or more. Four behaviors earned mean ratings over 3 (in descending order): "arriving at a scheduled appointment on time," "asking if they missed anything important," "requesting letters of recommendation with plenty of lead time," and "sending an e-mail or voicemails requesting you call them back." Two of the three behaviors observed most frequently were not intended to be perceived as inappropriate. No inappropriate behaviors received a mean rating of less than 2. So, while it appears that although faculty participants do not observe inappropriate student behaviors very frequently, they do observe those behaviors on a consistent basis.

Discussion

Faculty perceived seven of the behaviors included in the study as moderately to very inappropriate (3.25 or higher on a 5 point scale). With the exception of "insisting you force register them into an already closed course," the same behaviors were perceived as happening at a rate of 2.42 or higher on a 5-point scale, indicating they are occurring with regularity. If we take these results in total, we can conclude that, in faculty members' perceptions, students are indeed acting inappropriately on a fairly regular basis. The picture that emerges from the data is less a mortal blow delivered to the faculty-student relationship by some egregious acts of incivility by students than it is a threat to the health of the relationship from a thousand little paper cuts.

Three of those behaviors perceived as most inappropriate—missing a scheduled appointment, wearing apparel with explicit language or images, and insisting that you force register them into a closed course were seen as considerably more egregious than the other behaviors listed. Administrators and staff designing new student sessions and other programs to address civility would be well advised to include discussions or warnings about these behaviors in particular, since most faculty clearly find them inappropriate. In addition, faculty may want to directly discuss with students their expectations with regard to such behaviors, either in class or via the course syllabus, to help educate students about professorial expectations and, perhaps, to explain the reasons for the expectations on the professor's part.

Explicit mention of our expectations in syllabi or in class orientations could benefit both students and faculty members. Providing the reasoning for such expectations would not only give students the opportunity to comply, but would also make the expectations more acceptable to students.

Other behaviors, such as a student asking if they missed anything important or turning a paper in late and asking not to be penalized, were not generally perceived as the most problematic behaviors listed, but were still seen as quite inappropriate (3.37 and 3.74 respectively) and as occurring fairly frequently (3.58 and 2.88). Given that faculty are regularly advised to clearly express expectations for classroom behavior in the class syllabus or to discuss their expectations early on in a class (Carbone, 1999; Morrisette, 2001; Sorcinelli, 1994), faculty might consider articulating their expectations in their syllabus or early classroom discussion for these areas outside of the classroom as well. These interactions take place outside of public view, often after class or in the faculty member's office where other students would not observe other students' behavior or a faculty member's response to that behavior; therefore, directly addressing these issues may be particularly important in educating students to faculty expectations. Such discussions might not only outline the faculty member's expectations, but might also explain the reasoning and significance of the expectations in the faculty member's eyes.

Although some behaviors listed in the study's survey may not on average have been perceived as particularly inappropriate by the study's participants, the data indicate all of the behaviors are viewed as inappropriate by some of the professors in the study. For example, "Sending e-mail or voicemails requesting you to call them back" received a mean score of 1.98 in the study, suggesting it is not generally seen as particularly inappropriate. Yet, 6.1% of faculty members in the survey rated the behavior a "5" ("extremely inappropriate"), and another 9.1% rated it a "4" ("very inappropriate"). Appropriateness and civility, grounded as they are in our perceptions and our expectations, can be very slippery concepts, upon which all faculty do not agree (Bjorklund & Rehling, 2010). In the case of behaviors where there does not seem to be clear consensus, explicitly stating our preferences to students may be particularly important in order to avoid unnecessary tensions between the faculty member and students. Within the context of a classroom, students can take social cues from each other regarding what behavior is appropriate. Outside of the classroom, it may be difficult for a student to discern whether a behavior will be perceived as appropriate, and when it is not, that student may not realize how their behavior is negatively affecting a relationship with the professor. Explicit mention of our expectations in syllabi or in class orientations could benefit both students and faculty members. Providing the reasoning for such expectations would not only give students the opportunity to comply, but would also make the expectations more acceptable to students. Opening up a conversation about faculty expectations and perceptions may even provide an opportunity for dialogue in which students offer their perceptions and expectations in return.

The present study was done in a public university in the Midwest. Studies in other regions of the United States and in other countries, as well as in different types of institutions such as private colleges or community colleges, would allow for comparisons and further conclusions. An important next step would also be to investigate students' perceptions of inappropriate behavior by faculty, in order to provide a balanced and more complete picture. Such a study could focus not only on classroom behaviors, but also include those that occur in one-on-one settings.

Incivility, both within and outside the walls of the classroom, tears at the fabric of our communities and at the important relationship between students and faculty members. Encountering on a daily basis behavior they consider uncivil discourages and disheartens faculty, causing some to withdraw in whatever fashion available to them. Understanding more clearly the student behaviors that faculty perceive as inappropriate and occurring regularly outside the classroom, and developing strategies to manage them, is a necessary step in addressing the larger issue of incivility in higher education.

References

Alexander-Snow, M. (2004). Dynamics of gender, ethnicity, and race in understanding classroom incivility. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 99*, 21-31.

Amanda, G. (1999). *Coping with misconduct in the college classroom: A practical model*. Asheville, NC: College Administration Publications, Inc.

Appleby, D. C. (1990). Family and student perceptions of irritating behavior in the college classroom. *Journal of Staff, Program and Organizational Development, 8*, 41-46.

Bjorklund, W. & Rehling, D. L. (2010). Student perceptions of incivility in the classroom. *College Teaching, 58*, 15-18.

Boice. B. (1996). Classroom incivilities. *Research in Higher Education, 37*(4), 453-85.

Clark, C. M. & Springer, P. J. (2007). Thoughts on incivility: Student and faculty perceptions of uncivil behavior in nursing education. *Nursing Education Perspectives, 28*(2), 93-97.

Dechter, G. (2007, January 8). Not so long ago most college instructors were treated with dignity and respect. *The Baltimore Sun*, p. 1F.

Feldman, L. J. (2001). Classroom civility is another of our instructor responsibilities. *College Teaching, 49*, 137-40.

Hirshy, A. S. & Braxton, J. S. (2004). Effects of student classroom incivilities on students. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 99*, 67-76.

Indiana University Center for Survey Research. (2000). *A survey on academic incivility at Indiana*

University: Preliminary report. [Online]. Retrieved from http://www.indiana.edu/~csr/CivilityPreReport.pdf

Jacoby, N. (1999). *Employees say they've had enough of incivility, bad manners*. CNNMoney. Retrieved from http://money.cnn.com/1999/11/29/life/q_manners/

Jones, T. (2004). The perils of Peter Parse: Facing the challenges of student incivility. *The National Teaching & Learning Forum, 13*(5), 8-9.

Lunday, A. (2007, October 22). The manners maven. *The JHU Gazette, 37*(8). Retrieved from http://www.jhu.edu/~gazette/2007/22oct07/22manners.html

Morrisette, P. J. (2001, May 14). Reducing incivility in the university/college classroom. *International Electronic Journal for Leadership in Learning, 5*(4). Retrieved from http://www.ucalgary.ca/~iejll/volume5/morrissette.html .

Rookstool, J. (2007). *Fostering civility on campus*. Washington, D.C.: Community College Press.

Sorcinelli, M. D. (1994). Dealing with troublesome behaviors in the classroom. In K. W. Prichard & R. M. Sawyer (Eds.), *Handbook of College Teaching: Theory and Application* (pp. 365-373). Eastport Connecticut: Greenwood Press.

Young, J. (2003, August 8). Sssshhh. We're taking notes here. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, sec. A.

Table 1:
Mean Ratings of the Degree of Inappropriateness of Student Behaviors (Ranked from Most Inappropriate to Least Inappropriate Behaviors) and Percentage of Faculty Responses Associated with each Rating

Behavior	Mean	s.d.	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
Missing a scheduled appointment	3.95	1.07	2.3	9.8	16.5	33.1	38.3
Wearing apparel with explicit language or images	3.89	1.20	3.0	14.3	17.3	21.8	43.6
Insisting that you force register them into an already full course	3.82	1.31	6.2	13.1	19.2	15.4	46.2
Turning in a paper late and asking not to be penalized for being late	3.74	1.21	6.8	10.5	17.3	33.1	32.3
Wearing revealing clothing	3.45	1.27	6.1	14.3	20.5	23.5	28.0
Asking if they missed anything important	3.37	1.42	13.5	17.3	18.8	19.5	30.8
Requesting letters of recommendation with short notice	3.25	1.16	5.3	25.2	24.4	29.0	16.0
Requesting a grade change	2.67	1.36	22.4	32.1	17.2	13.4	14.9
Requesting additional time, after class is over, to complete a test	2.52	1.31	25.8	31.1	19.7	12.1	11.4
Using office hours as an opportunity to socialize with instructor	2.48	1.25	23.5	37.1	15.9	14.4	9.1
Sending email or voicemails requesting you to call them back	1.98	1.24	50.0	22.7	12.1	9.1	6.1
Requesting that the instructor inform them of their grade at the end of the semester	1.93	1.15	49.3	23.9	15.7	6.7	4.5
Arriving at a scheduled appointment on time	1.10	.54	96.2	.8	.8	1.5	.8
Requesting letters of recommendation with plenty of lead time	1.07	. 50	97.0	1.5	0.0	0.0	1.5

Table 2: Mean Ratings of the Frequency of Student Inappropriate Behaviors (Ranked from Most Frequently to Least Frequently Observed) and Percentage of Faculty Responses Associated with each Rating

Behavior	Mean	s.d.	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
Arriving at a scheduled appointment on time	3.82	.97	2.3	8.3	18.2	47.7	23.5
Asking if they missed anything important	3.58	1.16	2.2	19.3	25.9	23.7	28.9
Requesting letters of recommendation with plenty of lead time	3.27	1.12	7.5	16.5	30.8	31.6	13.5
Sending an e-mail or voicemails requesting you call them back	3.22	1.29	7.5	29.1	20.1	20.9	22.4
Turning a paper in late and asking not be penalized for being late	2.88	1.36	18.2	27.3	19.7	18.2	16.7
Requesting that the instructor inform them of their grade at the end of the semester	2.87	1.28	14.9	29.1	25.4	15.7	14.9
Missing a scheduled appointment	2.72	1.12	11.2	39.6	23.1	18.7	7.5
Wearing revealing clothing	2.62	1.20	15.9	39.4	21.2	13.6	9.8
Requesting a grade change	2.43	.97	11.1	52.6	23.7	7.4	5.2
Requesting letters of recommendation with short notice	2.42	1.14	22.7	37.1	19.7	15.9	4.5
Insisting that you force register them into an already full course	2.17	1.29	41.7	25.8	13.6	11.4	7.6
Requesting additional time, after class is over, to complete a test	2.09	1.12	37.3	32.8	17.9	7.5	4.5
Wearing apparel with explicit language or images	2.09	1.07	31.8	43.9	11.4	9.1	3.8
Using office hours as an opportunity to socialize with instructor	2.05	1.08	35.3	40.6	12.8	6.8	4.5

Endnotes

[1] This study is part of a larger series of studies on uncivil behavior both within the classroom and beyond the classroom walls. In order to distinguish between the public behavior that occurs during a class session, and the private, interpersonal behavior that occurs outside of class between an individual student and an instructor, the researchers have labeled uncivil behavior that occurs in a private setting as “inappropriate”, reserving the term “incivility” for publicly uncivil behavior.

[2] This 11.7% response rate is lower than ideal (although not unusually so) and is very likely a result of the timing of the survey, which was very close to the end of the semester, a notoriously challenging time for faculty and students. In addition, faculty members received no incentive to participate in the study.

Wendy Bjorklund is an Assistant Professor in the Communication Studies Department at St. Cloud State University in St. Cloud, MN. Her primary teaching areas are organizational communication, communication in the workplace and relational conflict management. Her research interests focus on interpersonal conflict in the workplace and she is a mediator/conflict coach.

Diana Rehling is a Professor in the Communication Studies Department at St. Cloud State University in St. Cloud, MN. Her primary teaching areas include listening, nonverbal communication, small group, theory and research methods. Her current research projects focus on listening and the role of digital media in students' lives.

Reflections from an Adjunct: How the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning Empowers the Part-Time Instructor

Maria C. Durso, MA
Adjunct Instructor of English
Park University

"[The] scholarship of teaching ... requires a kind of 'going meta' in which faculty frame and systematically investigate questions related to student learning."
Pat Hutchings and Lee S. Shulman, *The Scholarship of Teaching: New Elaborations, New Developments*

In this reflective piece, an adjunct instructor narrates her experience with institutional efforts to encourage faculty to become better instructors through exposure to and engagement in the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL). Institutions of higher education can find it difficult to draw faculty out of their instructional status quo. Of particular concern are part-time instructors who, typically less connected to the institution than full-time professors, may struggle to find the resources to improve instruction, even if such resources are desired. As a case in point, this piece demonstrates that early, consistent, persistent, quality exposure to SoTL, combined with individual commitment, does yield concrete improvement in teaching and learning.

The area of scholarship referred to as the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) seeks to result in "a public account of some or all of the full act of teaching, vision, design, enactment, outcomes" (Hutchings and Shulman, 1999, p. 13). This public account ensures that the scholarship will ultimately be "amenable to productive employment in future work by members of that same community" (p. 13). Although their part-time status regrettably tends to marginalize adjuncts in the professoriate, because SoTL is "public" and "amenable to productive use," exposure can serve to enhance adjuncts' roles in two ways: one, provide them with convenient and adaptive data and instruction useful for improving teaching outcomes, and two, encourage them to view the work they do in the classroom as a potential subject for empirical study. Unique in this regard, SoTL is accessible and relevant to the adjunct in ways that other scholarship is not. The public work of peers are resources, the classroom and students the lab. No grants, equipment, research library, or graduate assistants are necessary. What follows is a personal account of how institutional efforts consisting of strategic administrative and instructional exposure to SoTL served to empower me, a part-time instructor, in my pursuit of excellence in teaching and learning.

I surmised that teaching scholarship could be beneficial in two ways: It encouraged me to consider ways to improve the learning experience in my classroom, and it honored my position in higher education as someone interested in research and scholarship.

Upon completion of the hiring process for a historic liberal arts university, I was assigned an upper-level undergraduate course in business communication taught to working adults. The director at the satellite campus where I held this, my first post-secondary teaching assignment, handed me *A Handbook for Adjunct/Part-time Faculty and Teachers of Adults* by Donald Grieve (1996). Those familiar with this book know that it distills many valuable lessons that have been formalized in SoTL, such as the need for relevance and practical application in assignment design (p. 50), and the suggestion of case studies as a means toward this end (p. 37). The author asserts that there is a "greater emphasis on improved teaching" in today's college classroom, the result of an institutional response to the self-motivated adult learner (p. 1). Grieve implies, through reviewing current debates like that of andragogy versus pedagogy (p. 12) and including a collection of innovative classroom strategies (p. 63), that the institutions for which we teach are indeed "systematically investigating questions related to student learning" (Hutchings and Shulman, 1999, p. 13).

The director also periodically handed me photocopies from *The Teaching Professor* with the suggestion that they be added to my personal file of faculty development information. In the absence of an ongoing conversation with colleagues (I came and went at night after the office was closed, and only a few classes occupied the building), these materials kept me informed of a dialogue regarding successful practices for improving instruction and the systematic investigation that established them. This dialogue periodically and persistently reminded me of what Hutchings and Shulman call the "going meta" – that perpetual framing and investigating of questions in the pursuit of better teaching and learning – and thereby offered a more formal version of the heuristic work I did in my classroom (p. 13).

The needs of my students, aptly characterized by Grieve as self-directed (p. 50), and the need to improve my teaching, made evident by my campus director and institutional emails, converged once I felt more at home in my new position. My reading in *The Teaching Professor* indicated that preparing a class maximizing the students' wealth of experience in the professional world would provide a richer, more relevant learning experience than just doing exercises in the textbook. My students were, in their own words, "adult learners already in the business fields" who came to realize that they "deal with more business communications than [they] ever knew [they] did"; consequently, I encouraged them to create case studies based on a communication problem encountered in their own workplace. An article from *The Teaching Professor*, "Teachers Who Improved," encouraged this use of the students' experience to improve the learning environment. It indicated that establishing more active and practical learning helped to improve teaching performance. I added an involved mock-interview, requiring students to research beyond the text what interviewers in their chosen field would be looking for, to contact human resources departments and obtain interview formats and common interview questions, and ultimately to submit to an interview by the class. Another article showed why the development of such self-directed assignments in an upper-division business-related class like mine was particularly important (Developing Students' Self-Directed Learning Skills, 2005, p. 5).

Additionally, I was in continual receipt of institutional publications via email pertaining to faculty development in the area of teaching and learning. The communication served to strengthen my connection to the institution and provide continuous exposure to SoTL. Two examples are illustrative: first, a frequently updated newsletter highlighting outstanding performance, often in the field of SoTL, by faculty, staff, and graduate students alike; second, periodic reminders, from both academic and developmental departments, of the resources available for faculty professional development related to teaching and learning.

In the former, I read about both tenured and adjunct faculty working in the field of SoTL, their accomplishments lauded and detailed. Full and assistant professors, as well as part-time instructors and lecturers of English and communications, were all represented and so served as both a resource and an inspiration for further learning. In the journals dedicated to SoTL, I was able to see, through reflective essays and case studies, the work others did in their classrooms. *InSight* and *Change* in particular gave me a clear sense of the framework involved for SoTL. Through these publications, I surmised that teaching scholarship could be beneficial in two ways: It encouraged me to consider ways to improve the learning experience in my classroom, and it honored my position in higher education as someone interested in research and scholarship. Additionally, these emails and photocopies modeled the way in which I would soon frame larger questions related to student learning.

Lack of initiative to reflect on, research, and reform teaching methods is present at all levels of the teaching hierarchy. As is often noted in SoTL literature, without engagement in SoTL even a tenured faculty member may feel that their teaching takes place in isolation. That isolation is greatly compounded in the part-timer, who does not even have the proverbial water cooler around which to casually discuss a problem, concern, or success story. I am sure that both full- and part-time faculty often feel there is not enough time to reflect on and re-tool our teaching as much we would like. In an investigation into what motivates a teacher to participate in professional development, Lee S. and Judith H. Shulman note that "a teacher can develop a new vision of teaching based on encountering role models, reading cases, viewing tapes, holding discussions with peers, reading theoretical accounts, etc" (2004, p. 261). Simply being exposed to the material does not mean that a faculty member will necessarily take action. However, as was true in my case, exposure and encouragement, initiated by administration, increased the likelihood that a faculty member like me would see any displeasure with the status quo as a problem that would have a solution somewhere in the ideas of SoTL. As if in anticipation of these moments from the start, my institution had prepared me to adopt this "new vision of teaching" when I was ready to do so. When I felt pressure to improve more than just assignment design, when I felt that the needs of my students necessitated a paradigm shift away from teacher-centered instruction, I had the tools to go about making a monumental change to a learner-centered classroom.

Three years later, at a different campus center belonging to the same university, I was reassigned Professional Writing in the Disciplines: Business Communication, but in an eight-week, one-night-per-week format. I had left the campus center where my director handed me copies of *The Teaching Professor*, but had that file of articles already tagged as useful by the institution. The course requires imparting a sizable amount of information and research about the best practices of business communication. I typically focused on an audience-centered, ethics-based approach to myriad communication forms, from memos to formal reports and presentations, relying heavily on those case studies to get students to practice techniques covered in the text. The time and location required a long drive in rush-hour traffic, followed by five hours of class, 5:30 until 10:30 PM, in a darkened campus center at a seemingly forgotten corner of a military base. My fear was that these circumstances would make ensuring that students felt provided with a satisfactory learning experience still more difficult. Traditional methods of skill-and-drill and lecture-discussion, which can be effective in shorter doses, seemed particularly unappealing. It was clear to me that the "sage-on-the-stage" paradigm, which was encouraged by the required text and its accompanying wealth of power points, testing software, and videos, would be counterproductive as students ended a fourteen-hour day in the classroom. Exposure to the literature of SoTL offered the possibility of employing that "new vision of teaching" to address the concerns I had about these challenges.

While the time and place had some drawbacks, my students provided the raw material to make the course meaningful. They generally ranged in age from mid-twenties to mid-fifties and were either at the tail end of a long career in the military or in the middle of one in the defense industry. Because of this, they had the wisdom of experience, a wide and deep perspective to offer, and a wealth of real-world practical application from which to draw. In short, they had long resumes and regularly performed many of the communications tasks that the text introduced as though they were traditional twenty-year-old juniors in a residential college setting.

Grieve told me that I was to be a "facilitator of learning" (p. 57). His book suggested approaching my role not as the sole expert in the room, but as the means by which the information and skills the students needed could be attained. It occurred to me that this might entail something more involved than innovative assignment design. In hopes of gaining more insight into becoming a true facilitator, I reviewed my file of articles. Taken together, insights provided by Grieve and the articles in *The Teaching Professor*, along with the assignments inspired by them, made me realize that to truly become the "facilitator" of "active," "practical," and "self-directed" learning would require a paradigm shift away from teacher-centered instruction. I needed more detailed, practical instruction on how to do this, and it came from reading deeper into the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning.

The Teaching Professor is edited by Maryellen Weimer, so it was not long before I sought out and read her book, L*earner-Centered Teaching: Five Key Changes to Practice* (2002). A case study on the practices Weimer outlines by De De Wolfarth et al. in *InSight*, one of the journals sent to me by the institution, had already confirmed its value. In addition, I found *Classroom Assessment Techniques* by Angelo and Cross (1993), and *Learner-Centered Assessment* by Fenton and Watkins (2008). I credit the long reach of the institution's commitment to SoTL for directing me to these as texts of particular value and for encouraging the notion that successful pedagogy often requires exhaustive research of relevant scholarship.

I began to model my course on Weimer's "five key changes." Adopting the learner-centered classroom paradigm was immediately daunting. I believed that I knew what assignments needed to be done and which progression would work best. However, inspired by Weimer's "syllabus and learning log" (p. 203), I crafted an assignment menu to prepare my students to make many of these decisions for themselves, thereby providing that self-directed environment. This menu included many of the assignments that I typically used, but I followed advice found in *Learner-Centered Assessment*, which asserted that learning goals and outcomes should be clearly communicated (Fenton and Watkins, 2008, p. 6). To begin with, each menu included an estimated number of hours and a point value along with an outcomes rubric. Taking Weimer's instruction to heart, I transformed myself into a "master learner" (p. 87) and modeled many responses to assignments, some of which were added to what has become an "orientation packet" that we review on the first night. Following Weimer's practice of "developing a game plan" (p. 206), students choose which assignments they want to complete and the due dates. I use individual contracts to formalize these due dates. A set total point value has to be reached and the due dates adhered to. A contract template is used when students have decided which of the assignments they are going to do and when.

I note that students assign themselves more work than I generally would have, keep to their due dates, and read the text more actively. On more than one occasion last term, the students kept class going past 10:30 PM on their own.

To ensure that students make "practical" choices about which assignments to pick, I start class with an involved self-reflection modeled on the background knowledge probe outlined by Angelo and Cross (p. 121). If Angelo and Cross felt that such an exercise could help me to make critical instructional decisions, I thought it might also help the students make critical learning decisions. Questions require them to consider their primary weaknesses: Are they oral or written? Where the need for improved application of communication skill is most urgently felt, is there an occasion requiring communication to achieve new employment? Professional development? Resolving communication issues at work? What does their preferred learning style require? Will they best achieve their goals with collaborative or individual efforts? With multimedia or text? They assess their own needs first, and apply their desire for practical application second. For example, if they are on the verge of changing careers, then they can choose employment communication for most of the assignment menu points, but the focus must be on the written communication if there is a need to strengthen those skills. Armed with this information, we adjourn until the following week, when their contracts are completed and signed.

Rather than use a regimented syllabus, I created a class calendar from these contracts. Weimer describes an instructor who adapts his syllabus to an early assessment of student needs (p. 40). My calendar is similarly customized. Starting with each student's due dates, I use it to outline when class time should be devoted to draft-conference groups and when I will provide lectures on theory and mini-lessons on skills. It allows me to design each class meeting to fully support and prepare them for their individual assignments. The variety of activities for each class (group discussion and group work on the chapters, draft conferences, mini-lessons by me, and presentations by, or interviews of, students) makes the time spent in the classroom industrious and driven by specific student needs.

As each class meeting embodies the changes I make, evidence of the power of the scholarship behind them comes in the form of both formal and informal student response. I note that students assign themselves more work than I generally would have, keep to their due dates, and read the text more actively. On more than one occasion last term, the students kept class going past 10:30 PM on their own. On institutional course assessments, students repeatedly report that the "value" they get from the course "exceed[s] expectations." It is heartening to read that the student impressions are that the course is one of the "better instructed" and that they feel "more challenged and interested." On classroom assessments at the end of the term, a few students vent furiously about how much they hate the process at the start. That the "tons of papers" and having to make "an individual schedule of what was to be due and when" is an unpleasant shock to the system. Weimer prepared me for this, and I see such responses as she does: grounded in the fear of added responsibility (p. 151). However, the evaluations are otherwise near-uniform praise of "what [I] was doing with the class" coupled with surprise at how much they come to value the "real world" application of the content and skills learned.

Having initiated a foray into SoTL as a researcher and experimenter of relevant scholarship on applicable pedagogy, I consider taking the next step of doing my own empirical research and collecting data that could provide more than anecdotal evidence of what I feel is successful teaching practice. I have begun a course portfolio in which my continuing work on this course is collected, documented, and subject to ongoing evaluation. My own greater comfort and confidence in the methods I employ in this course will steadily become grounded in quantifiable results, affording me the opportunity to produce scholarship of my own. I cannot imagine having considered embarking on such a project had I not been exposed to the SoTL done by my peers. Regardless, while I await the call from my new campus director offering another teaching appointment, I engage in the reflections you see here, continually reading, and plotting the ways in which I will address the challenges I face in my classroom. All the while, I am being reminded by those periodic emails and invitations for development that others are doing the same and more. It is my hope that it will and I will have thus fully engaged in what I see as an instrumental activity typically expected of only my full-time, tenure-track peers.

References

Angelo, T. and Cross, P. (1993). *Classroom assessment techniques: A handbook for college teachers*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Developing students' self-directed learning skills. (2009) *The Teaching Professor 23.7*(5-6), Web. 8 Mar. 2011.

Fenton, C. and Watkins, B. (2008). *Learner-centered assessment: Real strategies for today's students.* Phoenix: League for Innovation in the Community College.

Greive, D. *A handbook for adjunct/part-time faculty and teachers of adults*. Ohio: Info-Tech, Inc., 1996. Print.

Hutchings, P., & Shulman, L. S. (1999) "he Scholarship of Teaching. *Change 31.5*(10), *Academic Search Complete*. EBSCO. Web. 10 Mar. 2011.

Shulman, L. S., & Shulman, J. H., (Mar. 2004) How and what teachers learn: A shifting perspective. *Journal of Curriculum Studies 36.2*, 257-271. Web. 15 July 2010.

Teachers Who Improved. (2009). *The Teaching Professor 23.10(*2), Web. 8 Mar. 2011.

Weimer, M. (2002). *Learner-centered teaching: Five key changes to practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Wolfarth, D., Sheras, D., Bennett, J. L., Simon, B., Pimentel, J. H., & Gabel, L. E. (2008). Student perceptions of learner-centered teaching. *InSight: A Journal of Scholarly Teaching 3,* 67-74. Web. 10 Apr 2010.

Maria Durso has been teaching as an adjunct instructor for Park since 2004 at the Beaufort MCAS campus center. She received her Master's degree in English from Middlebury College.

Transforming the Transcript to Reflect the Whole Scholar: Legitimizing Pedagogical Training for Graduate Student Instructors

Josh Iorio, PhD
Post-Doctoral Research Fellow, Network Dynamics Lab
Columbia University

Mark Lowry Decker, MSSW
Doctoral Candidate, Educational Psychology
University of Texas at Austin

Although universities acknowledge that teacher training is critical for ensuring quality undergraduate education, research has repeatedly demonstrated that universities typically do an inadequate job of preparing graduate students for their instructor role. In this paper, we show that both graduate students and universities find the pedagogical development of graduate students to be a valid endeavor, and while graduate students strive to legitimize their own pedagogical development, universities must more fully and officially engage in the process. We conclude with a short list of recommendations for universities to consider toward the goal of legitimizing graduate student pedagogical development.

Research has suggested that graduate programs do not adequately prepare graduate students for the multifaceted roles required of faculty (Golde & Dore, 2001; Smallwood, 2001). For a growing majority of graduate students seeking positions in higher education, one such role is that of teacher (Benassi & Fernald, 1993; Graft & Lambert, 1996). Research also suggests that few graduate programs adequately prepare graduate students to become effective teachers (Darling & Dewey, 1990; Lowman & Mathie, 1993; Meyers & Prieto, 2000; Prieto & Meyers, 1999), leaving them with ethical dilemmas as they wonder whether they are qualified to teach the courses they are assigned (Branstetter & Handelsman, 2000; Kuther, 2003). Graduate students must decide whether to accept funding offered for teaching positions (Kuther, 2002) even if they lack adequate training in best teaching practices (Cahn, 1994). For many graduate students, financial need often trumps their lack of confidence in their preparation for the classroom.

So, the task for those who support TA's is not to de-emphasize research or other aspects of scholarship but rather to ensure that teaching and teacher training are appropriately appreciated as essential for TA's to develop the self-efficacy, socialization, and competencies requisite for success in the classroom.

A graduate student's initial teaching experience is often as a teaching assistant (TA). At some institutions, TA's perform basic administrative tasks, such as making copies, checking attendance, and distributing class materials. At others, TAs are given robust pedagogical responsibilities, such as designing course curricula, leading discussions, and developing assessments of student learning. Our focus in this article is on TAs with this last responsibility.

Because "teaching assistantships are the foundation of faculty development" (Prieto, 2002, p. 2), it is critical to address the complete development of graduate students by socializing them, as Austin and McDaniels (2006a) explain, with "experiences that help students develop as researchers, teachers, service providers and institutional citizens" (p. 444). Austin and McDaniels (2006b) refer to four domains of scholarly work: (1) the Scholarship of Application, (2) the Scholarship of Discovery, (3) the Scholarship of Integration, and (4) the Scholarship of Teaching. Graduate students must experience these components of an integrated whole to learn to engage disparate colleagues, face an increasing range of challenges and expectations, and assume ever-changing career roles (pp. 52-53).

While research affirms the responsibility of departments and universities to prepare TAs for their roles as instructors—in no small part to support effective educational experiences for undergraduates—university recognition and financial support continue to reward research rather than teaching (Austin & McDaniels, 2006b; Nyquist, et al., 1999; Prieto, 2002; University of Texas at Austin, 2007). Even as universities provide programs that validate TA training, i.e., they acknowledge the importance of training, they neglect to provide structures that legitimize such training, i.e., they fail to provide institutional documentation or recognition of teacher training. Unlike a graduate student's research training, which is legitimized through grant funding, research awards, and notation on their transcripts, there are relatively fewer mechanisms through which the pedagogical training that will be crucial to many graduate students' success as future faculty is similarly legitimized.

So, the task for those who support TA's is not to de-emphasize research or other aspects of scholarship but rather to ensure that teaching and teacher training are appropriately appreciated as essential for TA's to develop the self-efficacy, socialization, and competencies requisite for success in the classroom. In short, universities are responsible for preparing graduate students for their roles as future faculty, and part of this preparation, i.e., their preparation as teachers, has yet to be legitimized at the institutional level in many universities. Research-oriented contributions to their academic discipline receive legitimization through entries on official university transcripts, presentations at academic conferences, and publications associated with their research. We argue here that universities are responsible for providing similar legitimizing mechanisms to highlight TAs' contributions to undergraduate learning and their own pedagogical development. We will demonstrate that, although TA's and universities validate graduate student teacher training and graduate students attempt to provide their own legitimization for this type of training, universities do relatively little to institutionally legitimize TA pedagogical development.

Institutional Level Validation of Pedagogical Development: A Case Study

In this section, we present a case study that illustrates how a successful TA training program at The University of Texas at Austin (UT Austin) validates graduate student pedagogical development at the institutional level but does not take the next step and legitimize the training. Fundamentally, the existence and continued funding of the Graduate Student Instructor (GSI) Program demonstrate institutional-level validation by the university. The remainder of this section will show how the skills developed through the GSI Program, while focused on teaching, are similar to the research skills developed through departmental offerings. As we will demonstrate, the same skills, framed as critical to research, are institutionally legitimized, whereas a graduate student's pedagogical preparation is not.

But whereas participation in research-oriented collaborative networks is legitimized through professional conferences, co-authored journal articles, and grant-funded multi-institutional or interdisciplinary projects, participation in pedagogy-focused collaboration is seldom legitimized as a valid pursuit for future scholars.

The GSI Program includes five components: (1) *Promising Practices*, an online repository of TA-submitted best practices; (2) *the GSI Colloquium*, an annual teaching and learning conference; (3) *ASPECTS* (Advancing Students' Professional Excellence with Certificates in Teaching Series), a free pedagogy and professional development workshop series; (4) *support workshops* for requisite departmental pedagogy courses; and (5) *individual consulting sessions*. Each component addresses critical institutional needs to incorporate validated and legitimized preparation in academic skills to develop graduate students as whole scholars.

Promising Practices provides a venue for experienced TAs to share teaching insights with peers. The venue normalizes pedagogy-oriented communications, and it responds, albeit indirectly, to Austin and McDaniels' call for "informal conversations" with faculty to encourage scholarly development (2006b, p. 60). Although the TA conversations are not with faculty per se, they nonetheless occur among teaching peers—some with more experience than others.

Just as it is critical that researchers learn to work with others to identify challenges and to develop collective strategies to overcoming challenges, Promising Practices helps TA's develop similar sorts of collaborations that focus on identifying classroom-centered challenges and responses. But whereas participation in research-oriented collaborative networks is legitimized through professional conferences, co-authored journal articles, and grant-funded multi-institutional or interdisciplinary projects, participation in pedagogy-focused collaboration is seldom legitimized as a valid pursuit for future faculty.

The GSI Colloquium offers a larger, real-time, face-to-face venue for such exchange, with interactive teaching presentations led by peers from across campus. The colloquium also provides an opportunity for TAs to learn from teaching support staff in mandatory consultations that ensure the inclusion of an interactive component and optimization of cross-discipline applicability.

Colloquia and conferences provide opportunities for graduate students to develop professional networks, learn from their peers, and receive feedback on presentations about their experiences. Yet, while university grants for graduate students may be based partially on their research activity at conferences, little funding is earmarked to reward graduate students for participating in pedagogically-oriented conferences such as the GSI Colloquium, where they are developing similar professional skills.

ASPECTS pedagogy workshops address topics such as designing effective lectures and leading discussions, offering TA's the opportunity to earn certificates that are not, however, recorded on official transcripts. To earn certificates, TA's must demonstrate that they have thought deeply about how session concepts relate to current or future teaching, and then submit an essay that incorporates key workshop principles into a course design or lesson plan.

Graduate students attend the pedagogy workshops voluntarily, seeking professional development opportunities in current pedagogical theory and practice. Similar workshops focused on research practice—summer institutes or study abroad programs—provide opportunities to work with specialists. Work with research specialists (e.g., extra-departmental statisticians or information scientists) improves a TA's research, which consequently situates them better to receive institutional recognition. The same recognition does not exist to reward TA's for their engagement with pedagogy specialists, which improves their teaching.

Support workshops for requisite departmental pedagogy courses mirror, in many ways, the pedagogy-focused workshops. Prior to appointment, every prospective teaching assistant at UT Austin must enroll in a three credit hour pedagogy course, "Supervised Teaching," taught by departmental faculty—another example of efforts by the university to validate pedagogical development. The supervising faculty frequently request that GSI Program staff present workshops during class meetings. Unlike the free workshops, the support workshops occur in conjunction with the discipline-specific training that Luo, Bellows, and Grady (2000, p. 374) believe is critical to acquiring disciplinary norms and practices. The discipline-specific focus of this model responds to the call for overt discussions of the value of teaching in academia (Park, 2004; Prieto, 2002; Austin & McDaniels, 2006b; Nyquist, et al., 1999).

While these for-credit courses provide an example of institutional legitimization—they actually appear on a transcript—they may nevertheless serve to devalue pedagogical training. The inference one may draw is that a single pedagogy course that may simply meet for three hours a week during one semester is enough for one to become an effective teacher. Developing effective teaching practices is an iterative, reciprocal, and reflective process that occurs over the course of many years throughout one's classroom experiences. To truly legitimize all such pedagogy training, transcripts should reflect successful engagement in all of the institutionally sponsored opportunities.

Individual consultations provide TA's with services tailored to specific classroom concerns. Through individual consultations, graduate students develop many of the skills necessary to be both effective instructors and competent members of the academic research community. Leading researchers do not work in isolation; they receive feedback from journal editors, peers, and colleagues. Similarly, graduate students who participate in individual consultation learn from personalized feedback on their teaching, and they develop strategies for improvement. To pass a class or to write a dissertation, graduate students must be able to solicit, receive, and respond to feedback. The university and academic departments expect graduate students to respond to feedback related to their learning or research, which is indicated by passing grades on a transcript or through earning a university-validated degree. However, typically missing from a transcript is similar proof of their response to teaching-oriented feedback.

Our goal in this section was to demonstrate that pedagogical training for TA's is not legitimized at the institutional level when similar skills are legitimized when framed as critical to research. We turn next to a discussion of how this pedagogical training is, however, validated at both the individual and institutional levels.

Validation of Pedagogical Development by Graduate Students

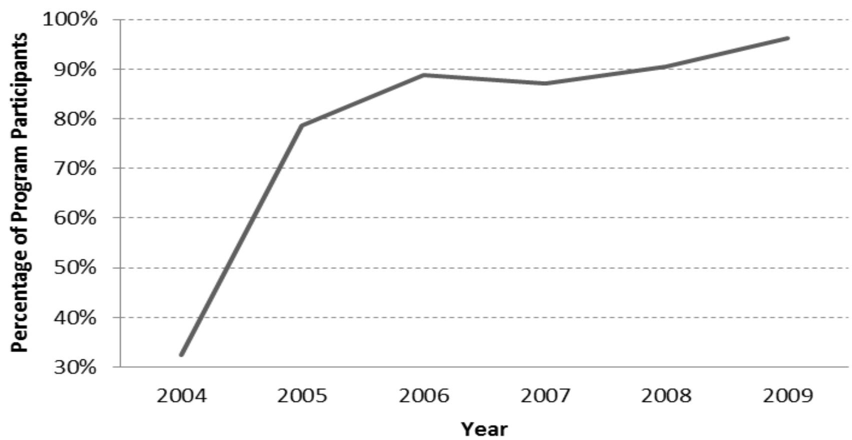
Continued funding of the GSI Program suggests that UT Austin believes the pedagogical development of graduate students is important. In this section, we provide evidence that graduate students themselves understand the importance of their pedagogical development. If they did not value or validate their own pedagogical development, then the lack of institutional legitimization might be justified. However, by demonstrating that graduate students are becoming increasingly engaged with the GSI Program and are satisfied with the training, we show that they perceive pedagogical development as a valid endeavor. To this end, we have employed three metrics to demonstrate the validity of pedagogical training from the graduate student's perspective: (1) instructional effectiveness, (2) program viability, and (3) program growth.

The first metric is based on participant feedback about the quality and effectiveness of the instruction provided by each program interaction. After every interaction, GSIs respond to survey items designed to gauge whether they found their experiences to be valuable. For the period from fall 2004 to fall 2009, the average participant response to all items was 4.5 on a 5-point scale, indicating that they found their experiences "extremely valuable." Qualitative data provided by participants indicate that the strategies and techniques they experienced during their interaction with the GSI Program made them better instructors. These responses to the evaluations allow for students to provide feedback on single offerings, but provide relatively little insight for gauging whether students consider their overall pedagogical development to be valuable. High evaluation scores may be associated with a skilled instructor or with a coincidentally relevant or timely session. Measures of instructional effectiveness are insufficient by themselves for understanding whether TA's validate their own pedagogical development.

By assessing program viability, we find that a more nuanced understanding of the value that TA's place on their development as teachers emerges. We judge program viability based on whether participants indicate at the conclusion of a given interaction that they plan to have future interactions with the GSI Program. Participants who indicate that they will attend a future offering imply that they engaged in a valid learning experience, since no institutional credit or honors are awarded for their participation. Since teaching assistantships are not awarded based on attendance at GSI Program offerings or on demonstrated teaching competence (e.g., through end-of-semester evaluations), TA's have little extrinsic motivation to attend. While participation in pedagogical development activities may curry a particular supervisor's favor, there are no official mechanisms that translate this favor into tangible outcomes, e.g., higher consideration for TA appointments or increases in pay based on classroom performance. Rather, TA's note that their attendance is intrinsically motivated by their desire to become better teachers, which they realize is crucial for job placement and success as future faculty. Put simply, regardless of the quality of an offering, if participants do not find the experience valuable, there is no motivation to attend future offerings.

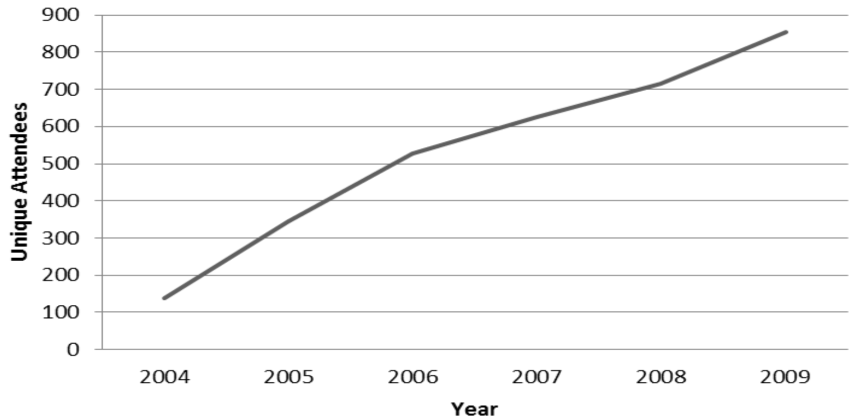
Based on data collected from 2004 through 2009, Figure 1 shows that over time, TA's who have had initial interactions with the GSI Program indicate that they plan to attend GSI Program offerings in the future. In 2004, 32% of participants indicated that they would attend a future offering. By 2009, this figure grew to 96%. This finding suggests that, from 2004 to 2009, participants increasingly found pedagogical development to be a valuable endeavor, which suggests that more participants at UT Austin began validating pedagogical development. This pattern in viability data can help in interpreting the growth data presented below.

Figure 1: Percentage of GSI Program Participants Indicating Plans to Attend Future Offerings (2004 through 2009)



The data presented in Figure 1 for program viability shows that individual TA's have increasingly found their pedagogical development to be valuable as they progressed through their graduate programs. Like program viability, program growth provides insights into whether TA's from across the university validate their own pedagogical development. The data in Figure 2 shows that the total number of unique attendees has increased over the lifespan of the program. The GSI Program has served 3,204 unique TAs from 2004 through 2009. At its inception in 2004, the program served 137 unique TA's, while in 2009 the program served 853 unique TAs, nearly an 800% increase. Since participants attend an average of almost two sessions, it is clear that many are engaging the program repeatedly, which may imply that the workshops and colloquia are sufficiently diverse and are perceived as meeting a wide range of participants' future faculty needs.

Figure 2: Number of Unique Attendees at GSI Program Offerings (2004 through 2009)



The summary of evaluative data presented above suggests that graduate students are satisfied with the program's offerings and that graduate students from across campus are increasingly interested in seeking opportunities for pedagogical development. The increased interest and attendance over the lifespan of the program indicate that graduate students see the value in developing the skills necessary for success in the classroom.

Moreover, academic departments increasingly see the value in engaging extra-departmental teacher-training staff to ensure that their undergraduate students are being led by TA's versed in contemporary, research-based best practices in teaching and learning. Departments are increasingly leveraging the specialized knowledge imparted by GSI Program staff to complement existing pedagogy training. Additionally, the GSI Program has seen an increase in and a routinization of requests for support workshops to complement departmental pedagogy courses.

For some of these courses, pedagogical development is being further validated by course policies that require graduate students to attend GSI Program workshops in addition to their normal course load. In these cases, the validation of a graduate student's pedagogical development has percolated to the departmental level, as departments are increasingly incorporating GSI Program offerings in their for-credit pedagogy courses. The GSI Program supports such bottom-up approaches to legitimizing graduate student pedagogical development, as graduate students who voluntarily attend program offerings relate their positive learning experiences to their faculty supervisors, who in turn may require attendance at offerings for a passing grade in the for-credit course.

Graduate Student Desire for Institutional Legitimization of Teacher Training

Their willing pursuit of teacher training demonstrates that graduate students understand that success in the classroom is tied to success in the academic job market. And although institutions are solely responsible for granting legitimacy to a given practice, TA's have developed innovative ways to take responsibility for legitimizing their own pedagogical development.

1. *Ad hoc teaching portfolios:* Many TA's purchase private web space and create online documentation of materials that they produced while interacting with the GSI Program. Such unofficial teaching portfolios serve to collect and organize the evidence that students are

competent, effective instructors. The portfolios may contain teaching videos recorded during individual consultation, syllabi created during a workshop, or slides presented at the GSI Colloquium.

2. *Requests for Letters of Recommendation from GSI Staff:* Often, GSI staff work more closely with TA's on their pedagogical development than do departmental faculty, so TA's may seek recommendation letters from GSI staff when applying for faculty positions. These recommendations document and legitimize the skills and talents that TAs have developed over their academic careers.
3. *Inclusion of ASPECTS Certificates on Resumes:* Many TA's who earn ASPECTS certificates note them on their curricula vitae to highlight their commitment to pedagogical development. Official, institutionally certified documentation would serve to strengthen the legitimacy of this commitment.

Despite the lack of institutional legitimization for graduate student teacher training, TA's have developed creative ways to highlight the value that they place on their development as effective teachers. However, institutions must do more to support these legitimization practices by TA's.

Towards Institutional Legitimization of Teaching at the University

We contend that (1) through the services provided by the GSI Program, the university believes that teacher training for TA's is a valid endeavor; (2) based on the success of the GSI Program, TA's value their own training as teachers; and (3) TAs are engaged in unofficial practices that demonstrate their desire for institutional legitimization of their pedagogical development. However, legitimization of pedagogical development remains within the purview of the institution. Just as the university legitimizes academic performance by means of transcripts and funding bodies legitimize research by means of grants, we argue that the university has the responsibility to legitimize graduate student pedagogical development in similar, officially documented ways.

The next step is legitimizing the graduate student's growth as teacher *and* researcher—that is, a whole or complete scholar.

Although the university appears committed to preparing graduate students for their future scholarly roles of both teacher and researcher, only the role of researcher is currently emphasized. The next step is legitimizing the graduate student's growth as teacher *and* researcher—that is, a whole or complete scholar. To take this step toward institutional legitimization, we offer three recommendations:

1. Integrate for-credit, university-mandated departmental pedagogy courses with support programs staffed by teaching and learning specialists. This model will ensure that discipline-specific content is coupled with current best practices in teaching and learning, while students will be awarded credit towards graduation, narrowing the gap between the importance of research and teaching in a graduate student's evolution to future faculty.
2. Create a university-supported e-portfolio system to encourage the cultivation and dissemination of best teaching practices. These professional development products will serve not only to market individuals to prospective institutions but also to market the university to new undergraduates, graduate students, and faculty.
3. At the minimum, pedagogy-oriented professional development efforts undertaken by graduate students should be recognized with transcript notation.

By considering these recommendations, universities can ensure that the pedagogical training that is validated at multiple levels (individual and departmental) can become institutionalized. By offering legitimacy for teacher training, universities could concretely demonstrate a commitment to ensuring a quality education for all students, thus better preparing them for futures both inside and outside of the academy.

References

Austin, A. E., & McDaniels, M. (2006a). Preparing the professoriate of the future: Graduate student socialization for faculty roles. In J. C. Smart (Ed.), *Higher education: Handbook of theory and* research, (pp. 397–456). Dordrecht, Netherlands: Springer.

Austin, A. E., & McDaniels, M. (2006b). Using doctoral education to prepare faculty of work within Boyer's four domains of scholarship. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, *129*, 51-65.

Branstetter, S. A., & Handelsman, M. M. (2000). Ethical beliefs, behaviors, and training of graduate teaching assistants. *Ethics and Behavior, 10*(1), 27-50.

Benassi, V. A., & Fernald, P. S. (1993). Preparing tomorrow's psychologists for careers in academe. *Teaching of Psychology, 20*, 149-155.

Cahn, S. M. (1994). *Saints and scamps: Ethics in academia*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.

Darling, A. L., & Dewey, M. L. (1990). Teaching assistant socialization: Communication with peer leaders about teaching and learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 6*, 315-326.

Golde, C. M., and Dore, T.M. (2001). At cross purposes: What the experiences of doctoral students reveal about doctoral education. A report prepared for The Pew Charitable Trusts. Retrieved from http://www.phd-survey.org

Graft, J. G., & Lambert, L. M.. (1996). Socializing future faculty to the values of undergraduate education. *Change, 28*, 38-46.

Kuther, T. L. (2002). Ethical conflicts in the teaching assignments of graduate students. *Ethics and Behavior, 12*, 197-204.

Kuther, T. L. (2003). Teaching the teacher: Ethical issues in graduate student teaching. *College Student Journal, 37*, 219-224.

Lowman, J., & Mathie, V. A. (1993). What should teaching assistants know about teaching? *Teaching of Psychology, 20*, 84-89.

Luo, J., Bellows, L., & Grady, M. (2000). Classroom management issues for teaching assistants. *Research in Higher Education, 41*, 353-380.

Meyers, S. A., & Prieto, L. R. (2000). Training in the teaching of psychology: What is done and examining the differences. *Teaching of Psychology, 27*, 258-261.

Nyquist, J., Manning, L., Wulff, D. H., Austin, A. E., Sprague, J., Fraser, P. K., Calcagno, C., & Woodford, B. (1999). On the road to becoming a professor: The graduate student experience. *Change*, 18–27.

Park, C. (2004). The graduate teaching assistant (GTA): Lessons from North American experience. *Teaching in Higher Education, 9*, 349-361.

Prieto, L. R. (2002). Teaching assistant development: Research and impressions. In W. Buskist, V. Hevern, & G. W. Hill, IV (Eds.), *Essays from e-xcellence in teaching, 2002*. Retrieved from http://teachpsych.org/resources/e-books/e-books.php

Prieto, L. R., & Altmaier, E. M. (1994). The relationship of prior training and previous teaching experience to self-efficacy among graduate teaching assistants. *Research in Higher Education, 35*, 481-497.

Prieto, L. R., & Meyers, S. A. (1999). The effects of training and supervision on the self-efficacy of psychology graduate teaching assistants. *Teaching of Psychology, 26*, 264-266.

Smallwood, S. (2001). Survey points to mismatch in doctoral programs. *Chronicle of Higher Education, 47*, A14.

University of Texas at Austin, (2007). Strauss Center creates Jon Brumley Chair in global affairs; $1 Million gift to fund research on benefits, dangers of technology. News from the Office of Public Affairs, Retrieved from http://www.utexas.edu/news/2007/11/05/strauss-2/

Josh Iorio is a post-doctoral research scientist in the Project Network Dynamics Lab at Columbia University. He has a PhD in Sociolingusitics from the University of Texas at Austin, where he worked for 4 years in the Division of Instructional Innovation and Assessment (DIIA). During his time with DIIA, Dr. Iorio worked with graduate students to develop strategies for enhancing their teaching effectiveness. He currently works with faculty in Engineering, Architecture, and Construction at Columbia to develop rubrics for classroom-based research projects. His current research explores how virtual worlds can be used to integrate faculty research and teaching in Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) disciplines.

Mark Decker is a doctoral candidate in Education Psychology—Cognition, Learning, Motivation and Instruction—at the University of Texas at Austin. He also holds a Master of Science in Social Work degree with an emphasis in administration and planning from the University of Texas and was the coordinator of the Graduate Student Instructor Program since its inception in 2004 until the fall of 2010. Prior to joining the GSI Program, Mr. Decker headed the Center for Instructional Technologies' Courseware Group which provided university-wide training, support and consulting for Web course development tools—WebCT, and then Blackboard from 2000 until 2004.

Internationalizing General Education from Within: Raising the Visibility of Heritage Language Students in the Classroom

Evguenia Davidova, PhD

Assistant Professor, International Studies
Portland State University

This article analyzes the findings of a pilot project conducted in 2008–2009 as a partnership between University Studies, Portland State University's interdisciplinary general education program, and the University's Russian Flagship Language Partner Program. The project proposes a new approach of integrating non-English speakers' language skills, culture, and life experiences into classroom activities of general education courses. By engaging the students as facilitators in the exploration of their own cultures and languages, the project offers a model of enriching collaborative student teaching and learning that could be applied to various interdisciplinary courses.

> A geographer doesn't go out to describe cities, rivers, mountains, seas, oceans, and deserts. A geographer is too important to go wandering about. He never leaves his study. But he receives explorers there. He questions them, and he writes down what they remember (Saint-Exupéry, 2000, 44-45).

Introduction

Saint-Exupéry's observation in the quote above captures several aspects of the internationalization of general education. First, it suggests broader epistemological questions about learning and the creation of new knowledge by way of gathering empirical data, inquiry, and reflection in both oral and written forms. Second, the French author's observation highlights social interaction and collaboration as a significant form of intercultural learning, and the geographer's cozy study alludes to the safe learning space provided by the classroom, where intellectual exchange occurs. Although the quote specifically refers to physical travel, an imaginary interpretive step suggests the possibility of blending the mobile explorer with the sedentary geographer—the contemporary inquirer—a college student equipped with civic values, critical thinking, and technology to learn about the world, society, and the self.

The project proposes a new approach that increases student learning, commitment, and intercultural awareness by incorporating non-English speakers' language skills, culture, and life experiences into classroom activities of general education courses.

This article analyzes the findings of a pilot project conducted in 2008–2009 as a partnership between the University Studies, Portland State University's interdisciplinary general education program, and the University's Russian Flagship Language Partner Program. The project proposes a new approach that increases student learning, commitment, and intercultural awareness by incorporating non-English speakers' language skills, culture, and life experiences into classroom activities of general education courses. The project also offers a model for enriching collaborative student teaching and learning by engaging heritage language students as facilitators in the exploration of their own cultures and languages. Its significance resides in the idea of internationalization of curriculum from within -- by the integration of student language skills and cultural elements into non-language courses -- an approach that could be applied or adapted to various interdisciplinary courses.

Traditionally, internationalization of higher education boils down to six elements: foreign language, study abroad, an international student body, faculty travel abroad, internationalization of the curriculum, and international campus events. Recent research tends to acknowledge the benefits not only of such institutional changes but also of developing attitudes, skills, and competencies. In designing course outcomes and syllabi for this pilot project, my views were broadly informed by the model for internationalization of undergraduate education suggested by Cornwell and Stoddard (1999), which consists of four interrelated goals: "1. Understanding diverse cultures and understanding cultures as diverse; 2. developing intercultural skills; 3. understanding global processes; and 4. preparing for citizenship, both local and global" (p. 21). The project integrates all those components but emphasizes exposure to diverse cultures and appreciation of cultural interconnectivity on a microlevel in the classroom. Those elements are framed within the general theory of social construction of knowledge and use of active learning strategies (Bonwell & Eison, 1991).

The Collaborative Partnership Between University Studies and Russian Flagship Language Partner Program

University Studies, founded in 1994, comprises a four-year interdisciplinary, integrated curriculum (www.pdx.edu/unst; White, 1994; Rennie-Hill & Toth, 1999). This article focuses on its Freshman Inquiry component, a yearlong sequence of three quarter terms (each 11weeks long). Freshman Inquiry provides students with learning experience based on four goals: inquiry and critical thinking, communication, diversity of human experience, and ethics and social responsibility (Toth, 1999). These courses prepare students to develop strong writing and research skills, and transferable knowledge essential for academic success and lifelong learning. The complexity of freshman inquiry courses involves team-based teaching across broad disciplinary contexts. The courses are discussion oriented, employing extensive use of multimedia in the classroom. Classes usually have 36 students. Each faculty member is paired with an upper division student, who leads three mentor inquiry sessions of 12 students each. The small session size creates a collaborative environment where students get hands-on experience in developing skills in research, communication, and computer technologies. The main session's pedagogy is also interactive and combines various teaching methods, such as lectures, group projects, debates, and community-based learning projects, thus encouraging intellectual growth and promoting civic learning.

As noted, the partner to the pilot project was the Russian Flagship Language Partner Program at Portland State University. The concept of Flagship Language Programs is relatively new; the Flagship Programs are part of the National Security Education Program in the US Department of Defense and emerged in 2000 as "a national effort to change the way Americans learn languages"(www.thelanguageflagship.org/). The Russian Flagship Language Program, which began at Portland State University in 2008, is a four-year undergraduate program leading to a Certificate of Advanced Proficiency in Russian with a major in any discipline. Students take classes that have been identified as Russian Flagship partner classes (www.fll.pdx.edu); each class is accompanied by a two-credit mirror course conducted in Russian by a native speaker teaching assistant, who coordinates lesson plans with a Russian-language instructor. Mirror courses are intended to complement and enrich the material taught in the main class by introducing readings and perspectives that are "uniquely

The strategy of highlighting Russian heritage speakers' visibility in the classroom was motivated by three pedagogical goals: attracting student attention to the international and intercultural focus of the course, introducing the concept of collaborative student teaching and learning, and setting up expectations for social and intercultural interactions among all students.

Russian" (Freels, 2008). For example, while the Freshman Inquiry course explored the theme of nonviolent resistance and students read Gandhi, the Russian mirror class discussed Tolstoy. While the Russian class provided students with specific cultural practices, the freshman course put the intercultural interactions within a broader framework.

The collaboration took various forms: first were discussions and planning of course objectives and specific organization of course content, and the exchange of syllabi, assignments, lesson plans, and journals. Second, a linguist who did entry interviews with Russian Flagship students attended freshman sessions (when students presented in class). Third, all project participants organized a panel at the American Association of Teachers of Slavic and Eastern European Languages (ATSEEL) in 2008. Some evidence of the effective collaborative efforts can be gleaned from the heritage students' portfolio reflections. One student put it this way:

> I feel like my Russian course was very connected to my Freshmen Inquiry. We have discussed some of the same topics, such as Utopia, Gandhi, or Solzhenitsyn. The Russian course was a little behind, but it still was a lot of help for freshmen inquiry especially since some of the readings were very hard and discussions in Russian helped me to understand the concepts of those ideas a lot better. It helped me a lot on the final as well.

The Project's Activities and Goals

"Power & Imagination," a yearlong Freshman Inquiry course, explores issues of institutional power, imperialism, globalization, social justice, and empowerment. It engages students with inquiry-based concepts and questions and multidisciplinary content, and encourages them to learn by teaching each other and by creating a participatory learning community. The course began with five Russian heritage-speaking students out of 32 students; throughout the year, six other students acknowledged that they did not speak English at home; thus, about one third of the class were various heritage language speakers, a category that benefited most from the project.

In anticipation of potential changes in the classroom dynamics, I adopted the following strategies for achieving greater transparency: First, the whole class was informed about the pilot project and its goals. Second, I incorporated, in each term's syllabi, readings (in English) about Russian culture as case studies. Third, Russian heritage students gave short presentations about the readings in class (in English), which they prepared in their mirror class by finding extra sources in Russian. Thus, there was an intentional process of double translation – literally, from Russian originals and metaphorically, through rearticulating values from one culture into another. And fourth, various group projects, conducted by both heritage and non-heritage students (together and separately) contributed to class awareness of cultural diversity. The strategy of highlighting Russian heritage speakers' visibility in the classroom was motivated by three pedagogical goals: attracting student attention to the international and intercultural focus of the course, introducing the concept of collaborative student teaching and learning, and setting up expectations for social and intercultural interactions among all students.

Each term included a built-in set of activities and readings exposing students to cultures other than their own. For example, in the fall, one assignment required small group presentations about a Third World country (Appendix A), intended as a 'bridge" to winter term, with a focus on globalization and a "commodity chain" research paper. The assignment not only introduced basic research skills but also emphasized internationalization as the course objective. Another group project, related to the 2008 US presidential election, was assigned as poster presentations (Appendix B). The Russian Flagship students reported on Russian media coverage of the US elections. The Russian TA helped by locating appropriate materials in Russian; the presentations in my class were in English, and later on in Russian in the mirror class. Whereas the Third World country group projects involved a mix of students, the poster project engaged the heritage students as "explorers." In both cases, written student reflections revealed an appreciation of the collaborative construction of knowledge. For example, one student wrote that "we had many Russian flagship students that were working on many of the same things we were, but yet, also incorporating the similarities and differences of their Russian lifestyle and knowledge to ours here in the [S]tates."

In addition, throughout the year, the Russian heritage students became "facilitators in class" (Hong, 2008) and did individual presentations about the readings on Russia. They were encouraged not just to summarize the readings but to share stories gained from their families as well. Thus, they not only exposed the class to unfamiliar historical events and cultural phenomena, but also engaged the other students on an emotional and personal level. A non-heritage student expressed the success of this strategy: "There are several things I learned from them that I thought very interesting. The first of which was their perspective of the Russian Revolution and how they remember certain things and events in Russia."

Another assignment that exposed students to diverse cultures was a large group presentation (the entire mentor session of 12 students) called "Curate a Cuisine Project" (Appendix C). The project elaborated on Kluckhohn's concept of "cultural map" (as cited in Chen, 1990, 255-256), which refers to the awareness of cultural values and social practices in intercultural interactions that impact everyday behavior. It comes as no surprise that Russian cuisine was chosen by the students. In addition to the preparation of excellent Russian food, which we savored in class, the assignment required ethnographic and historic research about the intergenerational transmission of cultural rituals. This turned out to be the most engaging assignment, as students' portfolios revealed. The project stimulated other non-native speaking students to delve into their own multiple identities, as the following comment suggests: "I also learned many customs that they have and they have also broadened my perspective of that country. I did find many [Russian] customs similar to those in Poland, which is where I am from. They have a free education system as well as health care system, just like Poland, which is what I miss most about my home country." This comment not only captures an appreciation of one's own culture, but also an understanding of the interconnectedness of various cultural and social practices. The student also looked into issues of social justice, such as access to education and healthcare. It seems that the tangibility of the project also heightened students' awareness of the connections between emigration and the transmission of national cultural values.

I also employed another engaging in-class activity, called "The Art of Protest" (Appendix D), which also transferred the teaching function to students themselves. It fostered their understanding of contemporary international art as an expression of civic engagement by addressing issues of global inequity, war, and the environment. The assignment was contextually related to course readings and provided students with the vocabulary to address significant political issues. For example, a non-heritage student reflected on oppression: "During this time there was a lot of censorship in the USSR and anyone who fought against this censorship was punished. This is what happened to Nobel Prize for Literature winner Aleksandr Solzhenitsyn." Another student made a similar comment: "It showed how ideology of a nation can often be intertwined with science. It also demonstrated how such practices can hamper the progress of science." A third student reflected on his own prejudices as social constructs: "Throughout my life, hearing terms like 'Communism' and 'Marxism,' I never knew exactly what they were or what they meant, except for the idea that was painted into my head that they were 'bad'. "

All these activities were intended to create classroom social situations as intercultural interactions by following three major pedagogical principles: gradual building of a safe classroom environment, transferring teaching to students, and increased openness of the assignments. For example, there were two structured, small group presentations in fall, big semi-structured groups in winter, and free individual presentations in spring. This model of various collaborative practices engaged students in meaningful dialogue with one another and created a more explicitly intercultural class dynamic. Strategies of scaffolding collaborative research and teaching skills in exploring cultural practices (familiar to some students) have a broader generalizability beyond courses taught in general education programs and could be applied to courses in various disciplines.

Student Portfolios as a Method of Assessing Student Experience and Learning

The assessment of student learning plays a central role in the University Studies program. Multiple assessment instruments are used; among them, student portfolios have been prioritized as a form of both student learning and program assessment. The portfolio exists in two forms--hard copy and e-portfolio--and is organized around the four goals, that is, students reflect on the meaning of each goal and their progress towards achieving it, using two sample assignments to illustrate their progress. Thus, portfolios are a method of nurturing active learners who reflect on their own learning process. E-portfolios, which are another way of incorporating multimedia in education, also provide transferable documentation for student learning. Labissiere and Reynolds (2004) go a step further and argue persuasively that a website's hyperlinking stimulates metacognitive skills that allow "deeper engagement with content on multiple levels."

In this pilot project, I used both hard copy and e-portfolios as a method for assessing first, the process of growing student awareness of diverse cultures and international competencies, and second, the development of intercultural attitudes and the cultivation of civic values. I applied the strategy of assigning different types of reflections to both Russian heritage and non-heritage students. In the fall, the former included one assignment from the Russian mirror class under one of the University Studies goals in order to assess the way they perceive the "cultural mirroring" between the two classes and to make them aware of these connections. For the winter portfolio, all the students reflected upon one assignment that synthesized the four goals. Most used the Cuisine project, which also featured Chinese and Vietnamese cuisines (in both groups there were students who self-identified as belonging to those cultures). At the end of spring term, the students wrote a five-page essay reflecting on their one-year learning experience. The non-heritage students summarized three things that they learned about Russian culture through course readings, discussions, and student contributions. The Russian Flagship students synthesized three types of connections between the parent and the mirror classes in terms of ideas, readings, and assignments.

Simultaneously using segmented types of reflective questions reveals more about student learning and has high potential and applicability to other courses as well. All the students were well aware of being active participants in the project, and the reflections demonstrated widening and layering of freshman student cultural perceptions and attitudes. For example, two students emphasized the direct exposure in class to Russian language as a stimulus to studying foreign languages. Others engaged in socioeconomic comparisons between the US and Russian cultures: "One thing I learned from the reading and also the experiences of the Flagship students was the culture in Russia is not far off from the culture of America. The country is largely made up of the working class. As there are influential people in America, there are also people of great influence in Russia." A Russian heritage student made connections about Gandhi's impact on Martin Luther King and Lev Tolstoy's influence on Gandhi. Some students seemed to expand their horizons within their own culture and their interconnectedness to others:

> I understand this particular goal [diversity of human experiences] as being familiar with other cultures, and being open to get to know other cultures. In my Freshmen Inquiry class I have some foreign classmates, and I am open to get to know some information about their background. Actually, I am a foreigner and I can see how each culture is different from one

another. I think it is important to know or be familiar with other cultures because there is a lot more than just your own little world and when you go out there you will meet many different people with different values and somehow you need to accommodate with them.

In a pilot project, there are expected as well as unforeseen challenges to be faced. One of them was related to the ethical issues of singling out Russian Flagship students in the classroom. In order to minimize their anxiety, I designed the previously mentioned two different small group assignments in the fall term. In the country project, everyone was in the same situation of being a geographer, while the election poster activity positioned the Flagship students as Russian cultural ambassadors. A second related issue was the Russian heritage students' English proficiency, which varied, and impacted (initially) their level of participation in the classroom. A third challenge was the selection of readings about Russian culture appropriate for freshmen. Last, the Russian heritage students are not a homogenous group—one should bear in mind that the estimated number of Russian speakers in the Portland metropolitan area is around 80,000 (Freels, 2008). They come from diverse religious, educational, social, and ethnic backgrounds.

The intercultural dialogue that engaged both heritage and non-heritage groups contributed to expanding student awareness of interconnectedness of local, national, and global issues as well as their own role in these processes.

Conclusion: Effectiveness and Practical Applications

The pilot project was a highly encouraging model for both broadening and deepening internationalization of the general education curriculum. Establishing collaboration between a language department and a general education program has high potential, not just for student learning but also for expanding faculty's pedagogical approaches to teaching. The Russian heritage students acknowledged that both classes offered them multiple cultural perspectives. Their class contributions and the positive reactions of other students encouraged them to appreciate their own cultural heritage as part of their multiple identities. Moreover, their presentations in class did change the class dynamics in a constructive way. As one student puts it: "While the university studies goals have certainly helped in refining me as a student, I believe it's also important to note and understand that students can learn from one another as well." The intercultural dialogue that engaged both heritage and non-heritage groups contributed to expanding student awareness of interconnectedness of local, national, and global issues as well as their own role in these processes. For example, a Russian heritage student's comment on the election assignment revealed an augmented awareness of one's civic responsibility: "I haven't been watching [presidential] debates or anything. But lately I started to get more interested. From our in-class assignment I learned a lot."

A significant outcome was the opening up of the remaining students who do not speak English at home. Usually, these students remain silent about their cultural background; however, the highly participatory atmosphere that the project created allowed six other students to share their experiences, which was noticed and appreciated by all students. A student comment confirmed this high level of engagement: "They [the Russian Flagship students] have personally experienced it, and since they were all in the same age range, they knew what would be interesting to us."Therefore, positioning heritage students as cultural facilitators personalizes interactions and benefits all students. All class activities used for enhancing internationalization of the general education curriculum had one common feature: They privileged collaboration above competition and often incorporated both information collection and reflective practices, and thus combined the kinetic observations of the explorer with the cognitive reflections of the geographer.

The consistent use of the portfolio is a way to engage students in reflecting not only on their learning but also on their role as participants in the process of actively constructing knowledge. The portfolios also serve as a window into student perspectives. They reveal an awareness of cultural diversity (including within one's culture) and cultural connectivity (including "cultural mirroring"). A related theme is the acknowledgement of one's multiple identities. Another closely related issue is openness to other cultures. Yet another significant theme that stands out is an appreciation of student collaboration—both as research and teaching—and the benefits of learning from peers. Last, but not least, is the awareness of being socially responsible both in the classroom and beyond. Basically, students' comments revolve around understanding the self, interactions with others, and an appreciation of civic and human values.

The strategies of student engagement used in this pilot project are relevant not only to other general education and Flagship Language Programs but also have much broader applicability. Such partnerships are opening new venues for pedagogical innovations that build pride in student cultural and linguistic identities. The model of scaffolding various types of individual and group projects (and reflective practices) engages students in a meaningful dialogue with one another, pertinent to the way they experience the rapidly globalizing world, and encourages them to explore their worlds, their cultures, and their place within them in a collaborative manner. In sum, tapping into the multicultural, multilingual, and multiethnic richness that our students bring into the classroom and providing a broader international framework opens new possibilities for enhanced student engagement.

Notes

[1] The term originates from a foreign language-teaching milieu and gradually gains broader use. I am following G. Valdes' definition of heritage language student: "a student who is raised in a home where a non-English language is spoken, who speaks or merely understands the heritage language, and who is to some degree bilingual in English and the heritage language" (as cited in Reid and Kagan, 1999)

References

Bonwell, C., & Eison, J. (1991). *Active learning: Creating excitement in the classroom* (AEHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 1). Washington, D.C.: Jossey-Bass.

Chen, G.-M. (1990, Summer). Intercultural communication competence: Some perspectives of research. *The Howard Journal of Communications, 2*(3), 243-261.

Cornwell, G.H., & Stoddard, E.W. (1999). *Globalizing knowledge. Connecting international and intercultural studies.* Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities.

Freels, S. (2008). *Russian across the curriculum: Planning, implementation, assessment.* Paper presented at AATSEEL, San Francisco.

Hong, S. (2008). The role of heritage students in incorporating culture into language teaching. *South Asia Language Pedagogy and Technology*, *1.*

Labissiere, Y., & Reynolds, C. (2004, Fall). Using electronic portfolios as a pedagogical practice to enhance student learning. *Inventio. Creative Thinking about Learning and Teaching*, *2*(6).

The Language Flagship Program. http://www.thelanguageflagship.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=64&Itemid=78

Reid, H., & Kagan, O. (1999).

Heritage language survey project. UCLA. http://www.international.ucla.edu/languages/heritagelanguages/survey/survey-hl-i.asp

Rennie-Hill, L., & Toth, M. A. (1999). Eds. *The Journal of General Education, 48*(2).

Russian Language Flagship Program. Foreign Languages Department. Portland State University. http://www.fll.pdx.edu/Russian%20flag/index.htm

Saint-Exupéry, Antoine de. (2000). *The little prince*. Transl. Richard Howard. Orlando, FL: Harcourt.

Toth, M. A. (1999). A brief overview of university studies. *The Journal of General Education, 48*(2), 65-67.

University Studies. Portland State University. http://www.pdx.edu/unst/.

White, C. R. (1994). A model for comprehensive reform in general education: Portland State University. *The Journal of General Education, 43*, 168-229.

White, C. R. (1999). Conceiving university studies. *The Journal of General Education, 48*(2), 75-81.

Evguenia Davidova is Assistant Professor at Portland State University. She teaches in University Studies, the general education program, and in International Studies, with a regional focus on Europe. Her area of expertise is the socioeconomic history of Southeastern Europe. Dr. Davidova has published in, among other journals, East European Quarterly, Journal of European Economic History, New Perspectives on Turkey, Studia Pontica (Méditerranées), and Revue des Etudes Sud-Est Européennes. She is currently preparing a book manuscript (for Brill Publishing) on the Balkan transitions to modernity and nation-states.

Learning with Stories: A Personal Case Study Approach in Communication

Nirupama Akella, MA
Instructional Designer & Doctoral Assistant, Innovation in Learning Center, University of South Alabama

This paper is a reflective paper—an attempt by the researcher to explore, explain, and understand the workings and benefits of the case study method from the perspective of a learner. The researcher opens with a discussion of up the issue discussing the case study method as a learning and teaching medium in applied disciplines, by providing her own learning experience in her graduate communication class. She further supports her perspective with suitable theory.

Introduction

Instructors in fields of applied communication and theory, such as public relations, ethics, law, advertising, and social effects, are using the case study method to teach important concepts, theories, and issues in class. Case study method teaching and learning forms an important contemporary pedagogical tool in the academic field of communication. There needs to be current research supporting or negating this position.

This paper presents a learner's viewpoint of how an academic topic was taught in a graduate communication class using the case study method. This forms the beginning section of the paper. The following three sections lay the theoretical foundation of the paper. The researcher wraps up her paper with a discussion about the workings and benefits of the case study method.

Learning with Cases

This paper is a personal observation of my experience of learning about a qualitative communication research method through a case study rather than systematic, empirical research into the practice of case study as a teaching and learning tool. I am a communication graduate student at a large Midwestern university. In my third semester, I had to enroll for a research methods class. This class, 501: Qualitative Research Methods, is a core course and has to be taken by every graduate student. The class, designed to be a conference class for a maximum of 15 students, is offered every fall as an evening class from 6 p.m. to half past eight. The class follows the traditional lecture format with additional class readings and assignments on various research methods, paradigms, concepts, theories, traditions and practices. Outcome evaluations done at the end of the semester have a research and a written examination component. Students have to submit an original piece of research and take an examination to pass the course.

Case studies are steeped in the ethnographic tradition, in which the researcher observes an event, or is an active participant in the event. Case study research does not restrict the researcher to the role of an observer and interviewer. Hence, case studies can be autobiographical in nature and filled with rich description and dialogue.

In fall 2009, the Qualitative Research Methods class (scheduled on Monday evenings) was a large class of 22 students, which was more than the designated number. There were two course texts and a number of additional readings and assignments. The class was due for two lectures on participant observation in the month of October. And I was not looking forward to it. It would be the same old lecture where my classmates and I would sit with our heads resting on our elbows, listening to a monologue by the professor. There would be hushed chatter and a couple of yawns. The professor would give the class a ten-minute break, and my classmates and I would rush into the corridor, thankful to escape the ordeal. Some of us would stretch our legs, while others would drink water and eat chips from the vending machine. Then the class would return to the conference room. The door would close, and then it would be time to catch a few winks before the class would end at precisely half-past eight. Perhaps the professor would call attention to the sleeping class by giving a written assignment.

It would be exactly like that, I thought, entering the conference room located in the corner of the communications department building, Room 1263.

“Another boring class…”

I sat down in my designated chair and waited for the professor, idly doodling on my notepad. The professor entered the room at precisely six p.m., and the class began. I stifled a yawn and opened my text. There was a flipping of pages as everyone seemed to be counting the page numbers of the text. The professor sat down and said, “We are supposed to discuss participant observation tonight, but I am not going to give a lecture, and you are not going to take notes. Instead, you are going to read a story…”

I sat up—*a story… that WAS different.*

The chatter had stopped. My neighbor put away his mobile …

The professor handed out copies of a thick article and said,

“That’s it for this evening. Let me take your attendance and you can go … read the story at home…”

I had wrongly assumed that it would be the same old lecture format, but instead, the class had been saddled with a story. I put the article in my bag and left class.

I went home, threw my bag on the floor and switched on the television. I did not even glance at the story that night, or the next morning. It was not until the weekend that I thought about it. I had finished all my assignments for the coming week and was sitting idly. And, I thought, it is a story after all…

I searched for the article, found it, and started reading *Street Corner Society* by William F. Whyte (1993). After the first page, I didn’t want to put it down; I wanted to know more. And so I kept on reading the story; the story of a Harvard doctoral student, William Foote Whyte, who decides to do his PhD research on the housing situation in slums. The story took me on a journey of his experiences, emotional encounters, interactions, and thoughts during his stay in the slums of Cornerville.

The Heavy Stuff

In the Classroom

The storytelling genre is becoming popular again in lecture halls and classrooms of communications departments and colleges (Cox, 2001). This is because ordinary lectures consisting of a monologue by an ‘authority figure’ do not mentally stimulate the audience (Kreps, 1984). Stories, on the other hand, are first-person accounts of what happened, how it happened, and to whom it happened. They involve the audience as they call upon them to resolve a crisis or problem with a theoretical rationale or explanation (Cox, 2001). In a nutshell, stories compel a listener to think critically (Cox, 2001). Stories are illustrations of real-life episodes and take on the form of cases. A case is a snapshot of human activity and crisis, with real characters, dialogues, and a problem (Kreps, 1984).

Case studies are used to teach students how to effectively apply communication theory to actual situations. The emphasis is on a message and action-centered perspective. A student analyzing a case must first understand the situation: what is going on, who is the main character. The student must recognize and identify the problem and address the issue with relevant strategies pertaining to the academic theory and literature (Schnelle, 1967; Mier, 1982). The reader should experience the emotion and mental trauma of the protagonist and grapple with dilemmas as if they were his or her own. And when the dilemma is solved, the reader should feel relieved. That is the primary focus of the case study method: The audience has to have a 'feel good' experience at the end of the discussion. Development of knowledge base and critical thinking is a necessary by-product—something that has to happen for the achievement of the solution (Mier, 1982).

A typical case study must incorporate rich background information that provides the setting for further action and behavior. This background should provide the student with appropriate clues as to why the protagonist is facing a problem (Kreps, 1984). There should be dialogue between the characters in the story, which should be as realistic as possible, providing background information about the characters, their education, personalities. The listener should be able to visualize these characters from the description in the case. The most enriching cases describe—show and not tell—"the process by which actions take place" (Ulrich, 1953, p. 31).

A case study clarifies the role, function, and usage of theory in a professional workplace: how someone can use theory to effectively resolve workplace problems. Students are apt to remember and engage in continuous learning if they learn by active participation (Mier, 1982). Knowledge learned through passive participation is bound to reside in short-term memory. This limits a student's ability to analyze and comprehend situations and theories (Mier, 1982). It is crucial to select case material that reflects course information and explains important and appropriate theories. It is the responsibility of the instructor to present the story in an engaging fashion with appropriate usage of visual aids, audio, and role-play exercises (Kreps, 1984).

The main attraction of the case study method is the active participation of the audience. This means that the listener should be physically and mentally involved in the case (Kreps, 1984). Instructors often use the exercise of role-play, where students are given roles of the characters in the case. The students then engage in dialogue and action so they can experience the crisis unfolding. This provides a further insight into the situation and helps students to develop critical thinking skills, thus bridging the gap between theory and practice (Kreps, 1984). It is also the responsibility of an instructor to create a class environment conducive for case study teaching and learning (Glover & Hower, 1953). A student should not hesitate to ask questions, clarify doubts, and think aloud.

This calls for a permissive atmosphere in which they (students) feel free to put forth their ideas and questions without the instructor reacting in the form of rejection, derision, blame, or authoritarian injunctions to think along other lines preferred by the instructor at that moment. It is essential to develop a supportive class atmosphere of communication, non-judgmental behavior, cooperation, empathy, and spontaneity. These factors help the student experience firsthand the workplace environment envisioned in the case (Gibb, 1961).

After reading and discussing the case in depth during class, a student must be able to successfully answer the case questions. Case analysis represents the outcome of the comprehension and explanation process (Kreps, 1984). A typical case analysis must comprise three primary parts: (a) the opening problem-identification statement, (b) Problem analysis, and (c) recommendations or solution. A case analysis report must be systematic, logically organized, realistic, well-researched, and have a theory base (Bernthal, 1975).

Case studies have the power and ability to engage every type of student: the kinesthetic student learns best through case studies by getting physically involved in the case study activities. The tactual learners find the case study method most appropriate, as it engages the emotional ego. In short, the tactual learner identifies with the verbal exchanges and drama of the case study. The case study method is also suitable for the auditory learners who are able to establish, identify, and understand complex relationships, concepts, ideas, and theories during discussion. Visual learners also benefit from this method, which gives them the opportunity to see in person the problem and the unfolding of events. Class activities, such as role-playing and games, allow them to see how theory can be used to address an issue (Kosa, 2008). "Tell me and I will forget, show me and I may remember, but involve me, and I will understand and remember forever" (Kosa, 2008, p. 45).

Theoretical Framework

Academic storytelling in the form of case studies is a recognized qualitative research tool (Dooley & Skinner, 1977). Case study work was first introduced in the academic spheres of medicine, library science, business, legal education, and social work. The goal of the case study method is to present the actual "meaning" of action and behavior (Avis, 1995). Hence, storytelling or case study research is described as a qualitative alternative paradigm where the objective is to find not the 'truth' but the 'meaning': "a representation [of reality] from one particular point of view, in contrast to the quantitative understanding of reality as truth… a social and physical reality which exists independently of our experiences of it" (Avis, 1995, p. 1206). This means that a story in academic literature seeks to present a subjective meaning of an event. This event or real-life episode can be interpreted in various ways by many people. All interpretations are true and valid meanings of the real-life episode. This is in contrast to quantitative research, which states that research exists to find the "truth," which is objective in nature and devoid of any social, physical, or emotional interpretation.

The goal of case study researchers is to provide ways of understanding this meaning and experience (Schwandt, 1994). Thus, one case study can have different meanings colored by social, physical, and emotional reality. Case study inquiry is based on the view that knowledge is not absolute or devoid of any subjectivity. Knowledge is relative and is a creation of the interaction between researcher and the researched (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Avis, 1995; Reed, 1995; Strubert & Carpenter, 1999). In other words, knowledge is not an independent entity but is dependent on human interaction. This epistemological basis forms the foundation of case study research. Richards explains that case research cannot be value free and have a single conclusion or "truth." He says that case research is subjective and objective at the same time. This means that a case study researcher or reader cannot and does not approach a case without any "prior theory in mind" (Richards, 1993, p. 40).

MacIntyre (1984) states that man is a storytelling animal. According to him, telling stories that detail an event or a process is critical to human experience and learning (1984). He further clarifies that storytelling can be described as a "narrative enquiry" (MacIntyre, 1984; Flyjvberg, 2006, p. 240). His view is further propounded by a phenomenological approach, which states that stories are snapshots of human experience. This approach is advocated by Christensen (1987) when he says that similar stories build knowledge about a particular phenomenon. Christensen further states that these stories are described as cases (1987). Thus, he notes that case studies are central to human learning and knowledge utilization (Christensen, 1987; Flyvbjerg, 2006, p. 222). The approach focuses on the aspect of human interaction, and states that human learning does not evolve in a straight, vertical, or horizontal line (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Rather, cases present human interaction which can project and diverge in many different ways. Thus, exposure to case studies builds human experience and learning (Flyvbjerg, 2006). The phenomenological approach echoes the essence of the qualitative constructionist theory (Avis, 1995).

The constructivist theory argues that all reality has meaning that is a construction of human interaction (Avis, 1995). This means that a case study researcher is involved in the process of reality construction. Thus, the case study researcher can write the case constructing one reality. The audience reads the case and constructs another reality. The reality of the researcher can be different from that of the audience and that of the researched. But every reality construction represents subjective meanings. In case study research, "objective knowledge is a myth" (Avis, 1995, p. 1207). Case study research also falls within the paradigm of qualitative narrative analysis (Mishler, 1986). The basic premise of this argument holds that individuals develop and create constructions of reality and make sense of meaning and their world by telling and listening to stories (Ricoeur, 1981; Smith, 1981; White, 1981; Connelly & Clandinin, 1986, 1990; Sacks, 1986, 1992; Riessman, 1990, 1991, 1993; Bruner, 1991; Clandinin & Connelly, 1994; Wiltshire, 1995). Case studies are steeped in the ethnographic tradition, in which the researcher observes an event, or is an active participant in the event. Case study research does not restrict the researcher to the role of an observer and interviewer. Hence, case studies can be autobiographical in nature and filled with rich description and dialogue. The listener can take any perspective and create any construction. The ultimate goal of the case study is to make the audience think and become critical enquirers and reality constructivists (Atkinson, 1992; Mishler, 1979, 1986, 1990; Bailey, 1998).

Lincoln and Guba explain that a case moves from the particular to the general. A case has many solutions as it depicts one story (Lincoln & Guba, 1984; Perry, 1998). Thus, they conclude that a case is descriptive and biased. Hunt (1991) and Parkhe (1993) argue that cases are the study of "observable" phenomena, and therefore fall into the realm of objective research. Hunt further states that cases are not prescriptive (Hunt, 1991). Cases do not provide an answer or the solution to the problem, but encourage readers and researchers to probe and think further to propose suitable appropriate answers. Thus the focus is on "how do" rather than on "how should" (Hunt, 1991). Hence, case study utilizes the scientific paradigm of realism with an emphasis on the induction research methodology.

Hunt (1991); Leplin (1986); and Tskouas (1989) state that case study research embraces the scientific paradigm of positivism. Cases represent a mix of induction and deduction methodologies (Perry, 1998). On one hand, cases have a narrative descriptive quality which takes support from pure induction methods (Perry, 1998; Mishler, 1986; Parkhe, 1993). Yin states that descriptive cases are positivist based, while exploratory cases which further knowledge and human learning adopt a realistic scientific paradigm (Yin, 1994; Flyvbjerg, 2006). Richards further clarifies that cases are a mix of prior theory and newly compiled theory emerging from the raw data (Richards, 1993, p. 40).

Playing a Role in Applied Disciplines

Contemporary teaching methods in the academic field of communication are narrow (Robbins, 1975). The emphasis is on teaching students "what to do" rather than "how and why to do it" (Robbins, 1975). In other words, educators are confining students to the 'novice' level of competency and comprehension. Novice teaching methods include textual analysis and printed notes by the teacher and the formal, traditional lecture. This method is based on the assumption that students learn "best when someone else tells them what to do" (Robbins, 1975, p. 38). Thus, students spend time reading, listening to an instructor, and taking notes. The instructor decides when and what students should learn and periodically evaluates their level of knowledge (Robbins, 1975).

Students do not engage in critical thinking or in logical and symbolic organization of academic content. They simply follow what is presented to them, read, and verbalize it without understanding its value, importance, and meaning (Cascio, 1991). There is minimal student- teacher interaction, resulting in a failure to organize relevant thoughts and concepts for use in future situations. In addition, this passive method of teaching does not encourage "students' abilities of discovery, problem solving, and collaboration with peers to formulate discussion, thoughts, and ideas (Reich, 1991). The novice method fails to facilitate and teach students to solve problems with the use of related theory (Digman, 1995). The traditional novice method stifles competency building, leaving the graduate communication student unfit for professional work in the real world (Digman, 1995).

Applied communication disciplines are usually taught by the ‘craftsman’ or workshop method. The focus is to train students to fit into the professional field. Here again, the emphasis is on ‘doing something’ rather than on ‘understanding the how and why of a situation or process” (Robbins, 1975). Students write assignments and theses, produce documentaries, write copy and advertising text, business communication memorandums and letters to display and prove their declarative and procedural knowledge (Robbins, 1975; Blanchard & Thacker, 2003). However, these activities fail to teach the student to understand how and why he or she is doing that activity. Workshop method develops craftsmanship or expertise in doing activities (Robbins, 1975). But students need to learn more to be able to function as communication practitioners. Current academic study of communication is slowly making the transition towards the ‘expert’ method of teaching. Instructors have realized that they need to broaden the focus of their teaching and make it relevant to real life. The ‘expert’ method of teaching equips students to be able to:

(a) Examine a real-life situation and discover inherent communication problems and opportunities;
(b) Research the communication environment they are a part of and critically study diverse aspects of the audience, media, and technology, including organizational constraints placed by them;
(c) Formulate communication goals, targets, and objectives;
(d) Evaluate alternative communication paradigms, theories, and strategies to achieve their objectives;
(e) Engage in a high level of critical thought and logical cognitive organization (Robbins, 1975, p. 38).

Thus, the expert method of teaching argues for the holistic competency development of the communication student. This method takes the form of case study teaching or storytelling in a communication classroom. However, there is a definite lack of empirical research detailing the benefits and limitations of case study teaching. Questions such as the number and names of communication subfields currently using this method, including the rate of success, have to be empirically investigated. Case study methods are being used in contemporary classrooms of business, education, information technology, organizational communication, and mechanical engineering (McDade, 1995). The aim of such applied disciplines, as explained by McDade (1995) and Gerring (2004), is to be able to identify possible workplace problems in a realistic paradigm and offer feasible solutions. Applied academic disciplines require students to think creatively and critically, analyze, and be cognitive, categorical decision makers (Robbins, 1974; Gerring, 2004). This means that students of applied disciplines have to move beyond the ‘craftsman’ stage and acquire expertise in the field (Gerring, 2004). Academic fields such as business marketing, financial management, nursing, accounting, research and program evaluation, abnormal and industrial psychology, counseling psychology, information technology, architectural design, instructional design, and mechanical engineering are some of the contemporary academic users of case studies.

However, applied communication disciplines such as media theory and law, advertising, public relations, and research methods do not use this method as an official classroom methodology for imparting knowledge (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Given the critical link and influence on human learning, researchers McDade (1995) and Kosa (2008) opine that the explicit lack of case study as a viable classroom teaching method in applied communication disciplines is astonishing. McDade (1995) points out that cases are a way of sustaining a student's interest, as they encourage students to think and analyze, make associations, and draw possible conclusions. Cases help students to remain focused on the issue and develop a working knowledge of the feasibility of textual fact in the "real" world (McDade, 1995, p. 10). This is crucial for applied communication disciplines because as the name suggests, the aim of such disciplines is to equip students to apply classroom knowledge in the workplace (Kosa, 2008).

Integrating Theory and Practice

The story did what the lecture could not do…

I learn best when the reading material involves drama and emotion. I need to feel I am a part of the literature presented to me in order to identify, understand, and critically analyze its various dimensions. Whyte's story managed to engage me at an emotional level. After the first page, I felt sorry for Whyte, the poor PhD student. I am also a student, and know how difficult it is to live on a student salary. The reading material had already gotten me hooked and involved with the main character. I wanted to know how Whyte, with his financial problems, was going to do a comprehensive research study.

I had my text nearby in case I needed to consult it about methodological terms and concepts. After all, Whyte's article was only a story. I was in for a delightful surprise: I didn't need to refer to my text at all. Whyte's article showed me everything. The paper was a combination of realism and my interaction with it. It depicted a journey of Whyte which was believable and humorous. By the time I finished the article, I knew everything about the qualitative research method of participant observation—the theory, pitfalls, validity, and reliability concerns. And I had not read the textbook. I had just read the story of Whyte and understood and enjoyed his emotional roller-coaster ride in Cornerville. I lived through the entire process of data collection with Whyte, the protagonist of the story. I was there with him when he befriended his gatekeeper, Doc, who later became his source for information. I was at the edge of my seat when Whyte went on a drinking spree and indulged in illegal activities to fit in with the slum members; I grappled with his mental dilemma of either being objective and neutral, or become involved, to lose perspective and become biased.

The following week in class (the last one on participant observation method), I found myself actively discussing and participating in a discussion on the method. Whyte's article had successfully bridged the gap between theoretical knowledge and the practical application of that knowledge in the field. We all saw and understood how scientific knowledge was shaped by administrative concerns. In this case, we identified Whyte's doctoral grant funding committee as the primary stakeholders. Whyte was "forced" to choose the slum of Cornerville for his research because his finances, controlled by the doctoral funding committee, dictated it. Thus, Whyte's study taught us that all scientific research has to be conducted within administrative constraints.

We were questioning each other and encouraging a regular flow of interaction. Here I must mention that my instructor made it possible for us to exchange ideas, debate, and argue about research issues of reliability and validity; she created an open and informal classroom setting where each one of us felt comfortable to discuss and critically think. We developed respect for each other as individuals and students. This active participation, I am sure, will serve al l of us in good stead when we work with diverse people in the workplace. In addition, dreary research issues of gate keeping, participant observation, and field notes came alive. We engaged in a short skit immersing ourselves in the various characters in Whyte's article. Someone became Doc, the gatekeeper, a few others enacted roles of the doctoral-grant-funding committee, and someone took up the role of Whyte. The students playing the roles kept changing, as all

Here I must mention that my instructor made it possible for us to exchange ideas, debate, and argue about research issues of reliability and validity; she created an open and informal classroom setting where each one of us felt comfortable to discuss and critically think. We developed respect for each other as individuals and students.

of us took turns. The rest of the class was the audience. This role-playing made us critically comprehend, sympathize, and also come up with preventive solutions. Each one of us was able to see what Whyte was faced with—his research dilemmas, his mental tussle between objectivity and subjectivity—Should he join the residents of Cornerville on their drinking binge, or should he refrain from becoming one of them and remain a fly on the wall? Similarly, the audience as well as the actors could understand Doc's dilemma—Should he betray his longtime friends and include a stranger among them on false pretenses, or should he tell the truth? Role-playing also made us appreciate the storytelling-narrative-enquiry inherent in case studies. We realized that there is no "single" truth, but that what we learn builds towards our knowledge and understanding of academic phenomena and the human endeavor to uncover truth's many facets.

We had moved beyond the "novice" method of learning where we just read what was given to us, repeated it, and listened to a lecture. We had successfully learnt the "craft" of participant observation. But all of us had accomplished something more—something we would not have achieved with a traditional, ordinary lecture. We had become participants in the lecture. We had shaped, influenced our instruction. We had become experts at the qualitative research method of participant observation. The cognitive activity of reading, analyzing, evaluating, and synthesizing Whyte's experiences, attitude, and perception had taught us firsthand the function and course of action of the participation-observation method. Reading the case had made us aware of the various drawbacks and consequently we reflected on the holistic process of choosing an appropriate methodology for research. Hence, the case study method had propelled us to engage in critical thought and emerge as logical, cognitive individuals. It helped us gain a real-life perspective on how things get done in real life. The case study method had blended the theory of participant observation with its practice in the real world.

We had become experts at the qualitative research method of participant observation. The cognitive activity of reading, analyzing, evaluating, and synthesizing Whyte's experiences, attitude, and perception had taught us firsthand the function and course of action of the participation-observation method.

This kind of situated learning also made us realize that research does not occur in a vacuum but happens in a context. Research attitudes, behaviors, and actions cannot be predetermined but are a function of the context. Whyte did not plan and theorize that his research method would lead him to participate in illegal activities. His experience made us aware that all research is contextual. That evening, all of us had crossed from being students to learners who had engaged in knowledge acquisition, knowledge application, knowledge evaluation, and cognitive critical thought. The case study method had successfully integrated Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives. It made us all holistically and cognitively competent in the realm of research.

At the end of the class, we came out feeling excited and refreshed. We felt happy for Whyte, as by now he had become an extension of our personal selves. We were personally involved in Whyte's successes and failures, and we experienced a sense of relief and joy when his research yielded successful results.

Conclusion

Cases or stories encourage active, participatory learning. The student has control over material he or she reads. Consequently, students are able to unite theory and practice to develop a holistic and comprehensive view of the situation. And cases are generalizable—you can apply learned and interpreted material of one story in a situation to another story in a similar situation. But empirical investigation detailing such effects of the case study method needs to be done in all fields of academic instruction. My case shows that learning new material by way of case studies is helpful, and beneficial. But the research purpose would have been better served had my personal research investigation been supported by quantitative-survey evidence. Hence, a mixed-methods research design could be deemed suitable for further research into the identified problem.

References

Akella, D. (2010). Learning together: Kolb's experiential theory and its application. *Journal of Management & Organization*, *16*(1), 100-112.

Atkinson, P. (1992). The ethnography of a medical setting: Reading writing, and rhetoric. *Qualitative Health Research*, *2*, 451-474.

Avis, M. (1995). Valid arguments? A consideration of the concept of validity in establishing the credibility of research findings. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *22*(6), 1203-1209.

Bailey, P. H. (1998). *Patients, family caregivers', and nurses: Stories of acute exacerbation events of chronic pulmonary disease* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). The University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK.

Bailey, P. H. & Tilley, S. (2002). Storytelling and the interpretation of meaning in qualitative research. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, Blackwell Science Ltd. *38*(6), 574-583.

Brenthal, W. (1975). Case analysis in organizational behavior and the practice of management, unpublished instructional mimeograph. University of Colorado.

Bruner, J. (1991). The Narrative construction of reality. *Critical Inquiry*, *18*(1), 1-21.

Blanchard, N. P. & Thacker, J.W. (2003). *Effective training: Systems, strategies, and practices*, (2nd ed.) Pearson Education: Prentice Hall.

Cascio, W. F. (1991). *Applied psychology in personnel management* (4th ed). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Christensen, C. R. (with Hansen, A.J.) (Ed.) (1987). *Teaching and the case method*, Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Clandinin, D. J. & Connelly, F. M. (1994). Personal experience methods. In Denzin, N. L. & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.). *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, Sage Publications, London.

Connelly, F.M. & Clandinin, D. J. (1986). On narrative method, personal philosophy, and narrative unities in the story of teaching. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, *23*(4). 293-310.

Cox, K. (2001). Stories as case knowledge: Case knowledge as stories. *Medical Education*, *35*(9), 862-866.

Digman, L. A. (1995). *Strategic management: Cases*. Houston, TX: Dame.

Dooley, A. R. & Skinner, W. (1977). Chasing case methods. The *Academy of Management Review*, *2,* 277-289.

Flyvbjerg, B. (2006). Five misunderstandings about case-study research, *Qualitative Enquiry*, *12*(2), 219-245.

Gerring, J. (2004). What is a case study and what is it good for? *American Political Science Review, 98*(2), 341-354.

Gibb, J. R. (1961). Defensive communication, *Journal of Communication*, *11*(3), 141-148.

Glover, J. D. & Hower, R. M. (1953). *Some comments on teaching by the case method: The case method of teaching human relations and administration*. (Andrews, K. Ed.), Cambridge, Harvard University Press.

Guba, E. G. & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In Denzin, N. L. & Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds), *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, Sage Publications, London.

Hunt, S. (1991). *Modern marketing theory*. Cincinnati, South Western.

Kreps, G. L. (1984). *Using the case study method in organizational communication classes: Developing students' insight, knowledge and creativity*. Paper presented at the meeting of International Communication Association Conference, San Francisco, CA.

Kosa, J. R. (2008). Tell a story. *NJEA Review*, *81*, 3-10.

Leplin, J. (Ed.) (1986) *Scientific realism*. University of California Press, Berkeley: CA.

MacIntyre, A. (1984). *After virtue: A study in moral theory* (2nd ed.). Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press.

McDade, A. S. (1995). Case study pedagogy to advance critical thinking. *Teachers College: Columbia University, 22*(1), 9-10.

Mier, D. (1982). From concepts to practices: Student case study work in organizational communication, *Communication Education*, *31*, 151-154.

Mishler, E. G. (1986). *Research interviewing context and narrative*. Harvard University Press, London.

Parkhe, A. (1993). "Messy Research", methodological predispositions and theory development in international joint ventures. *Academy of Management Review, 18*(2), 227-268.

Perry, C. (1998). Processes of a case study methodology for postgraduate research in marketing. *European Journal of Marketing*, *32*(9/10), 785-802.

Reed, P. G. (1995). A treatise on nursing knowledge development for the 21st century: Beyond postmodernism. *Advances in Nursing Science*, *17*(3), 70-84.

Reissman, C. K. (1990). Strategic uses of the narrative in the presentation of self and illness: A research note. *Social Science and Medicine*, *30*(11), 1195-1200.

Reissman, C. K. (1991). Beyond reductionism: Narrative genres in divorce accounts. *Journal of Narrative and Life History, 1*, 41-68.

Reissman, C. K. (1993). *Narrative analysis*. Sage Publications, London.

Reich, R. B. (1991). *The work of nations: Preparing ourselves for a 21st century capitalism*. NY: Alfred A. Knopf.

Richards, L. (1993) Writing a qualitative thesis or grant application, In Beattie, K. (Ed.) *So where's your research profile? A Research Book for Academics*. Union of Australian College Academics, South Melbourne, Australia.

Ricoeur, P. (1981). Narrative Time. In W. J. T. Mitchell (Ed.), *On Narrative*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, IL.

Robbins, J. C. (1975). Training the professional communicator: The case study method. *Journal of Business Communication*, *12*(3), 37- 45.

Sacks, H. (1986). Some consideration of a story told in ordinary conversation, *Poetics*, *15*(1/2), 127-138.

Sacks, H. (1992). Part IV Spring 1970. G. Jefferson (Ed.), *In Lectures on Conversation*, *2*, Blackwell, Oxford.

Schwandt, T. A. (1994), Constructivist, interpretivist approaches to human inquiry. In N. L. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln0 (Eds), *Handbook of Qualitative Research.* Sage Publications, London.

Schmidt, M. & Lipstreu, O. (1975), *The case method*, (Unpublished instructional mimeograph). University of Colorado.

Schnelle, K. (1967), *Case analysis and business problem solving*, McGraw-Hill: New York.

Smith, B. H. (1981), After thoughts on narrative. In W. J. T. Mitchell (Ed.), *On Narrative* University of Chicago Press, Chicago, IL.

Streubert H. J. & Carpenter, D. R. (1992), *Qualitative research in nursing advancing the humanistic imperative*, J.B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia.

Tsoukas, H. (1989) The validity of idiographic research explanations. *Academy of Management Review, 24*(4), 551-561.

Ulrich, D. N. (1953), *The case method: The case method of teaching human relations and administration* (Andrews, K. Ed.), Cambridge, Harvard University Press.

West, C., Farmer, J. & Wolff, P. (1991), *Instructional design: implications from cognitive science.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

White, H. (1981), The value of narrativity in the presentation of reality, in W. J. T. Mitchell (Ed.), *On Narrative*, University Press of Chicago, Chicago, IL.

Whyte, W. F. (1993), *Street Corner Society*, (4th ed.) University of Chicago Press, Chicago, IL.

Wiltshire, J. (1995), Telling a story, writing a narrative: Terminology in health care, *Nursing Inquiry*, *2*(2), 75-82.

Yin, R. K. (1994) *Case study research: Design and methods*. Applied Social Research Method Series, 5 (2nd ed.), Sage, Newbury Park: CA.

Zhao, J. J. (1996), Using case studies for international business communication training, *Business Communication Quarterly*, *59*(4), 11-24.

Nirupama Akella is a PhD student in Instructional Design and Development at the College of Education, University of South Alabama. She is also employed as an Instructional Designer and doctoral assistant at the Innovation in Learning Center, University of South Alabama. Nirupama has master degrees in management, journalism, and communication.

Call for Papers

Volume 7: *Scholarly Teaching and Learning*

InSight: A Journal of Scholarly Teaching welcomes original manuscripts with a focus on the scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) from scholars across the disciplines. We seek articles that address the following: methods and practices of scholarly teaching; critical analyses of the scholarship of teaching and learning; theoretical and empirically-based research articles with practical application possibility; case studies; scholarly analyses and reflective accounts of teaching and learning; teaching narratives that promote conversations about SoTL's value as a tool for advancing student learning.

Articles should present practical and informed applications of teaching, and should address specific issues relating to real classroom experience. Theoretical issues should be rooted in practice. Articles that include student voices and responses are especially welcomed.

Suggested topics include the following:

- Challenges/Responses to the SoTL paradigm
- Practical methods of developing institutional and discipline-specific definitions of SoTL
- Status reports of SoTL's role in a particular discipline
- Essays that offer guidance to faculty new to SoTL, or which outline strategies for support of new faculty
- Examples of SoTL projects at the course or discipline-level
- Intersections of SoTL and service-learning, eLearning, learning communities, and other learning initiatives
- Future directions in SoTL
- Cross-disciplinary and cross-institutional collaborations for promoting SoTL
- Innovative critiques that include specific suggestions for implementation of institutional initiatives for SoTL practices.

Submission Requirements

- *STYLE* - All manuscripts must be formatted in APA style.
- *LENGTH* - Manuscripts should be no more than 12-15 pages (including abstract, references or appendices). Authors are encouraged to include appendices that promote application and integration of materials (i.e., assignments, rubrics, examples, etc.).
- *ABSTRACT* - Each manuscript must be summarized in an abstract of 50 to 100 words.
- *AUTHOR* - Each author should provide his/her full name, title and departmental affiliation, campus address, telephone number, and email address. Each author must also include a brief biography (no more than 100 words per author).
- *FORMAT* - All manuscripts must be submitted via email as attachments in Microsoft Word or Rich Text Format. Do not include personal identifiers within the manuscript. Include contact information only on a separate cover sheet. Each manuscript will be assigned a unique identifier for blind review processes. Send submissions to cetl@park.edu.
- *DEADLINE* - All submissions must be received by **4:00pm on March 1, 2012 (CST)** to be considered for inclusion in Volume 7.

Review Procedures

All submissions are initially screened by the editor for suitability to the journal. Relevant manuscripts are then sent to appropriate reviewers and undergo a rigorous blind peer review. Manuscripts are evaluated for relevance, practical utility, originality, clarity, significance and the extent to which the submission contributes to the goals of the journal and the ongoing development of the scholarship of teaching and learning.

The review process for publication takes about three months. Authors are provided feedback from the editor and from reviewers.

The CETL office retains the final authority to accept or reject all submitted manuscripts. The final publication will be distributed both in print and online fall 2011.

Copyright

Manuscript submissions are accepted with the assumption that they neither have been nor will be published elsewhere. Authors and CETL will hold joint copyright to all published manuscripts.

Contact

Please address your inquiries to: cetl@park.edu. For more information, visit the CETL website at www.park.edu/cetl.

QUICK TIPS: PREPARING MANUSCRIPTS FOR *INSIGHT*

The following "Quick Tips" provide suggestions and guidance for preparing manuscripts for potential publication in *InSight: A Journal of Scholarly Teaching. InSight* is a peer-reviewed publication highlighting the scholarly contributions of postsecondary faculty. As is the nature of refereed journals, acceptance and publication of original manuscripts is a competitive process. The goal of the following information is to assist faculty in preparing manuscripts in a manner that maximizes the chances of publication.

Preparing the Manuscript

The organization and style your manuscript will be largely dictated by the type of submission (e.g., theoretical, empirical, critical reflection, case study, classroom innovation, etc.). Thus, while guidelines will follow to assist you in preparing your manuscript, the key to successful submission is clear, effective communication that highlights the significance and implications of your work to post-secondary teaching and learning in relation to the target topic. To prepare and effectively communicate your scholarly work, the American Psychological Association (2010) provides the following general guidelines:

- Present the problem, question or issue early in the manuscript.
- Show how the issue is grounded, shaped, and directed by theory.
- Connect the issue to previous work in a literature review that is pertinent and informative but not exhaustive.
- State explicitly the hypotheses under investigation or the target of the theoretical review.
- Keep the conclusions within the boundaries of the findings and/or scope of the theory.
- Demonstrate how the study or scholarly approach has helped to address the original issue.
- Identify and discuss what theoretical or practical implications can be drawn from this work.

There is no mandatory format for *InSight* articles; rather authors should organize and present information in a manner that promotes communication and understanding of key points. As you write your manuscript, keep the following points in mind:

- <u>Title</u> - Generally speaking, titles should not exceed 15 words and should provide a clear introduction to your article. While it is okay to incorporate "catchy" titles to pique interest, be sure that your title effectively captures the point of your manuscript.

- <u>Abstract</u> - Do not underestimate the importance of your abstract. While the abstract is simply a short summary (50-100 words) of your work, it is often the only aspect of your article that individuals read. The abstract provides the basis from which individuals will decide whether or not to read your article, so be certain that your abstract is "accurate, self-contained, nonevaluative, coherent, and readable" (Calfee & Valencia, 2001).

- <u>Body</u> - Within the body of a manuscript, information should be organized and sub-headed in a structure that facilitates understanding of key issues. There is not a mandatory format for *InSight* articles; rather authors should use professional guidelines within their discipline to present information in a manner that is easily communicated to readers. For example:

- *Empirical investigations* should be organized according to the traditional format that includes introduction (purpose, literature review, hypothesis), method (participants, materials, procedures), results, and discussion (implications). The following links provide general examples of this type of article:
    - http://www.thejeo.com/MandernachFinal.pdf
    - http://www.athleticInSight.com/Vol7Iss4/Selfesteem.htm
- *Theoretical articles and literature reviews* should include an introduction (purpose), subheadings for the relevant perspectives and themes, and a detailed section(s) on conclusions (applications, recommendations, implications, etc.). The following links provide general examples of this type of article:
    - http://www.westga.edu/%7Edistance/ojdla/winter84/royal84.htm
    - http://www.westga.edu/%7Edistance/ojdla/winter84/mclean84.htm
- *Classroom innovation and critical reflections* should be organized via an introduction (purpose, problem, or challenge), relevant background literature, project description, evaluation of effectiveness (may include student feedback, self-reflections, peer-insights, etc.), and conclusions (applications, implications, recommendations, etc.). If describing classroom-based work, please include copies of relevant assignments, handouts, rubrics, etc. as appendices. The following link provides a general example of a critical reflections article:
    - http://www.compositionstudies.tcu.edu/coursedesigns/online/33-2/ritter.htmlv

The limited length of *InSight* articles (manuscript should be no more than 10 pages, not including abstract, references or appendices) requires authors to focus on the most significant, relevant factors and implications.

- References - Select your references carefully to ensure that your citations include the most current and relevant sources. As you select your references, give preference to published sources that have proven pertinent and valuable to the relevant investigations. The goal is not to incorporate ALL relevant references, but rather to include the most important ones.

- Tables, Figures, Appendices & Graphics - Authors are encouraged to include supporting documents to illustrate the findings, relevance or utilization of materials. Particularly relevant are documents that promote easy, efficient integration of suggestions, findings or techniques into the classroom (such as rubrics, assignments, etc.). Supplemental information should enhance, rather than duplicate, information in the text.

The importance of clear, effective communication cannot be highlighted enough. Many manuscripts with relevant, original, applicable ideas will be rejected because authors do not communicate the information in a manner that facilitates easy understanding and application of key points. The value of a manuscript is lost if readers are unable to overcome written communication barriers that prevent use of the knowledge. With this in mind, authors are strongly advised to seek informal feedback from peers and colleagues on manuscripts prior to submission to *InSight*. Requesting informal reviews from relevant professionals can highlight and correct many concerns prior to formal submission, thus improving chances of publication.

References

American Psychological Association. (2010). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

Calfee, R. & Valencia, R. (2001). *APA Guide to preparing manuscripts for journal publication*. Washington, DC: APA

QUICK TIPS: SUBMISSION GUIDELINES FOR *INSIGHT*

The following "Quick Tips" provide suggestions and guidance for submitting manuscripts to *InSight: A Journal of Scholarly Teaching*. *InSight* is a peer-reviewed publication highlighting the scholarly contributions of postsecondary faculty. The following information provides an overview of the purpose; scope and functioning of InSight so that faculty may better understand the *InSight* publication process.

Scope & Focus

InSight features theoretical and empirically-based research articles, critical reflection pieces, case studies, and classroom innovations relevant to teaching, learning and assessment. While there are a broad range of acceptable topics, all manuscripts should be supported with theoretical justification, evidence, and/or research (all methods and approaches relevant to qualitative and quantitative research are welcome); all manuscripts should be appropriately grounded in a review of existing literature.

Audience

InSight emphasizes the enhancement of post-secondary education through the professional exchange of scholarly approaches and perspectives applicable to the enrichment of teaching and learning. Relevant to this mission, manuscripts should be geared toward post-secondary faculty and administrators; included in this audience are full-time and adjunct faculty; face-to-face, hybrid and online faculty; tenure and non-tenure track instructors; trainers in corporate, military, and professional fields; adult educators; researchers; and other specialists in education, training, and communications. Recognizing the cross-disciplinary readership of *InSight*, manuscripts should present material generalizable enough to have relevance to post-secondary instructors from a range of disciplines.

Review Process

All submissions are evaluated by a double-blind, peer-review process. The masked nature of the reviews helps ensure impartial evaluation, feedback and decisions concerning your manuscript.

This review process utilized by *InSight* mandates that you should keep the following points in mind when preparing your manuscript:

- Your name and other identifying information should only appear on the title page; the remainder of the manuscript should be written in a more generalized fashion that does not directly divulge authorship.
- All information needs to be explained and supported to the extent that an individual not familiar with a particular institution's mission, vision or structure can still clearly understand the relevance, significance and implications of the article.

Focus of the Review

Prior to dissemination to the reviewers, the *InSight* Managing Editor will conduct a preliminary appraisal for content, substance, and appropriateness to the journal. If the manuscript is clearly inappropriate, the author will be informed and the manuscript returned. Appropriate manuscripts will be electronically sent to two reviewers for blind evaluation. Although there is an attempt to match manuscripts and reviewers according to content, interests, and topical relevance, the broad focus of the journal dictates that papers be written for applicability to a wide audience. As such, reviewers may not be content experts in a relevant, matching academic discipline.

The manuscript will be reviewed and evaluated according to the following dimensions:

- Relevance - The most important feature of your manuscript is its relevance; the decision to accept or reject a manuscript is typically based on the substantive core of the paper. As such, manuscripts should introduce the substance of the theoretical or research question as quickly as possible and follow the main theme throughout the article in a coherent and explicit manner.
- Significance - Related to relevance, significance refers to the value of your manuscript for substantially impacting the enhancement of post-secondary education relevant to the target topic. Significant manuscripts will clearly highlight the value, importance and worth of a relevant topic within a meaningful context.
- Practical Utility - As highlighted previously, the goal of *InSight* is to enhance teaching and learning through the exchange of scholarly ideas. With this purpose in mind, all manuscripts should emphasize the practical value, relevance or applicability of information. Manuscripts should go beyond the simple reporting of information to provide InSight into the implications of findings and the application of information into meaningful contexts.
- Originality - The most effective articles are those that inspire other faculty through innovative practices, approaches and techniques or via the thoughtful self-reflection of the purpose, value and function of educational strategies. Thus, manuscripts that highlight original approaches or perspectives will be given priority. Per the nature of published work, all contributions must be the original work of the author or provide explicit credit for citations.
- Scholarship of Teaching - Contributions to the enrichment of teaching and learning should be grounded in relevant theoretical concepts and empirical evidence. As such, articles should be free from flaws in research substance/methodology and theoretical interpretation. All conclusions and recommendations must be substantiated with theoretical or empirical support; personal classroom experiences and critical reflections should be framed within a structure of existing literature.
- Generalizability - The broad goals and varied audience of *InSight* mandate that manuscripts be written for consumption across a range of disciplines that allows generalizability of findings and implications. Thus, while classroom techniques may be developed, tested and reported for a specific discipline or student population, the manuscript should go on to highlight the implications for other populations.
- Clarity - All manuscripts must be written in a clear, professional manner free from grammatical flaws and errors in writing style. The purpose of the manuscript should be clearly defined, relevant and supported by the evidence provided. All manuscripts should be structured in a manner that promotes a clear, cohesive understanding of the information presented. Be sure that your manuscript is free from organizational, stylistic or "sloppiness" barriers that would prevent effective communication of your work.

Review Outcomes

Based upon the feedback and recommendations of the two anonymous reviewers, the Editor will make a final publication decision. Decisions fall into the following categories:

- Reject - Rejected manuscripts will not be published and authors will not have the opportunity to resubmit a revised version of the manuscript to *InSight*. All rejections will be handled in a courteous manner that includes specific reasons for rejection.
- Revise and Resubmit – A manuscript receiving a revise-and-resubmit recommendation shows potential for publication, but needs significant attention and revisions. Those electing to resubmit will be subjected to a novel round of blind review.
- Accept Pending Revisions - A manuscript accepted-pending-revisions meets all the major requirements for publication but may need improvements in substantive, mechanical or methodological issues. Once these issues are adjusted for, the manuscript will receive a "quick review" by the Editor prior to publication. Very rarely is an article accepted with no changes required; as such, most manuscripts are accepted in this category.
- Accept - Accepted manuscripts will be published "as-is" with no further modifications required.

Reference

American Psychological Association. (2010). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

Calfee, R. & Valencia, R. (2001). *APA guide to preparing manuscripts for journal publication*. Washington, DC: APA.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

InSight: A Journal of Scholarly Teaching could not have been created without the contributions of many individuals; the Center for Excellence in Teaching and Learning is deeply indebted to each of them for their support and expertise.

Additionally the editorial staff would like to thank the executive staff of Park University; their leadership and support in providing faculty resources makes this publication possible. A special thank you is given to President Michael Droge, Dr. Jerry Jorgensen, and Dr. Daniel Donaldson.

"The difference between a good and a mediocre teacher lies mainly in the emphasis the former puts on the exploring part of the mind, the aspects of learning that reveal meanings and lead to further understanding."
~Northrup Frye