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ABSTRACT

Offering new perspectives on community college faculty recruitment and training, and on the renewal of current faculty, this journal issue contains articles on preservice training, faculty development, and teacher improvement. The following 10 chapters are included: (1) "Quo Vadis: Staffing the People's College 2000," by Michael H. Parsons, which discusses trends for the 1990s and the active role new faculty must take in the future; (2) "Expertise and Values: How Relevant Is Preservice Training?" by Joyce S. Tsunoda, highlighting problems and innovations in preservice education; (3) "The New Problem of Staff Development," by Martin B. Spear, Evan Seymour, and Dennis McGrath, which discusses ways to avoid weakening and fragmenting faculty and curricula in development efforts; (4) "Faculty Professionalism Reconsidered," by Jim Palmer, examining professionalism from institutional, scholastic, research, and pedagogical frames of reference; (5) "To Walk on Water: Challenges for Community College Faculty," by Nancy Armes LeCroy and Kay McClenney, which emphasizes assessment, diversity, learning, and skills in preparing faculty; (6) "Empowering Faculty Through Redefined Work Roles," by Richard L. Alfred and Vincent Linder, focusing on planned preservice and inservice education; (7) "Down from the Podium: Preparing Faculty for the Learner-Centered Classroom," by Melissa Sue Kort, which suggests four methods to achieve a learner-centered environment; (8) "Using a Developmental Model of Maturity to Enhance Student-Centered Teaching," by Don G. Creamer, which stresses setting course goals and choosing interactive teaching strategies; (9) "Confronting Diversity in the Community College Classroom: Six Maxims for Good Teaching," by Rosemary Gillett-Karam; and (10) "Faculty Development and Renewal: Sources and Information," by Diane Hirshberg. (PAA)

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NEW DIRECTIONS FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES

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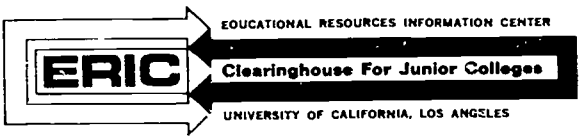

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EDITOR'S NOTES

In *Building Communities: A Vision for a New Century*, the Commission on the Future of Community Colleges (1988) noted that "within the next twelve years, approximately 40 percent of all community college faculty who now teach will retire" (p. 12). In addition, their study of community colleges revealed that "there is, on all too many campuses, a feeling of burnout and fatigue among faculty, a loss of vitality that weakens the quality of teaching" (p. 11). Accepting these two premises as a foundation from which to begin discussion, this volume addresses new faculty recruitment and training and the renewal of current faculty, offering new perspectives on these issues from community college administrators and faculty, four-year college faculty involved in community college education, and educational consultants.

In the first chapters, two community college leaders offer their views on recruiting and training future community college faculty. In Chapter One, Michael H. Parsons, dean of instruction at Hagerstown Junior College, discusses the impact of an aging community college faculty, potential sources of new faculty, and ways of integrating new faculty members into the community college's organizational culture. In Chapter Two, Joyce S. Tsunoda, chancellor of the Hawaii Community Colleges, questions the relevance and effectiveness of current preservice and in-service programs and offers several innovative models for training new faculty.

In the next four chapters, authors representing various community college educational perspectives discuss the issue of faculty culture and the importance, role, and form of faculty development in providing faculty renewal. In Chapter Three, community college teachers and critics Martin B. Spear, Evan Seymour, and Dennis McGrath argue that current faculty development programs actually contribute to the anti-intellectual climate that exists on community college campuses. In Chapter Four, Jim Palmer contends that community college faculty lack a clear sense of professionalism, and he offers suggestions on ways to develop this professional identity. In Chapter Five, Nancy Armes LeCroy and Kay McClenney, both participants in the Commission on the Future of Community Colleges, offer a professional development model based on the theme of building communities. Finally, in Chapter Six, Richard L. Alfred and Vincent Linder propose a professional development model that would train new and current faculty to become active participants in strategic decision making.

The next chapters focus on the activities of faculty in the classroom. In Chapter Seven, Melissa Sue Kort describes three classroom methods that empower both teachers and students by creating a learner-centered classroom. In Chapter Eight, Don G. Creamer describes a developmental model

of teaching that applies to both in- and out-of-class activities and that involves a high degree of interaction between teacher and student. In Chapter Nine, Rosemary Gillett-Karam argues that if faculty are to succeed in a culturally diverse classroom, they must become leaders in that classroom. Based on a national study of community college faculty, her chapter offers six maxims for the teacher as leader.

To conclude the volume, Diane Hirshberg, in Chapter Ten, provides a review of the ERIC literature on faculty recruitment, training, and renewal. The revitalization of faculty through the recruitment and training of new faculty and the renewal of current faculty is perhaps the greatest challenge currently facing community colleges. As the Commission on the Future of Community Colleges (1988) concluded, "It is through the careful selection and continuous renewal of faculty that the future of the community college will be built" (p. 13).

Keith Kroll
Editor

Reference

Commission on the Future of Community Colleges. *Building Communities. A Vision for a New Century.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, 1988. 58 pp. (ED 293 578)

KEITH KROLL is associate professor of English at Kalamazoo Valley Community College and has published several articles on the topics of faculty culture and professionalism at community colleges.

The challenges facing community college campuses in the 1990s coincide with significant personnel changes and offer exciting possibilities.

Quo Vadis: Staffing the People's College 2000

Michael H. Parsons

There are fewer than one hundred months remaining in the twentieth century! The challenges of the twenty-first century that once appeared so significant yet so distant are now upon us. With Charles Dickens, we might say, "It was the best of times, it was the worst of times."

Parnell (1990), in *Dateline 2000*, categorizes the 1990s as the most important decade in human history. As educators, we are likely to encounter ever-changing technology, a new emphasis on the importance of lifelong learning, and diverse new community college clients demanding services. In essence, the 1990s will be characterized by an education-based technological boom.

Eaton (1991) is less optimistic. She assesses the efforts made in the 1980s toward academic reform and concludes that they must culminate in the 1990s with changes in the college experience that respond to the needs of new-access students. But the outlook for such comprehensive change is not positive.

Some trends for the 1990s are already clear. Community colleges are continuing to grow and diversify. Societal change will continue, increase in rate, and become more complex. The faculty who personify "the People's College" will be responsible for ensuring that the related changes on the community college campus are productive. What, then, is the status of community college faculty as we enter the 1990s?

The Graying of Community College Faculty

Nationally, community college faculty reflect the changing nature of their institutions. Nearly 50 percent of them were employed in the last half of

the 1960s. Since the mid 1980s, concern about replacing these individuals has grown as many of them approach retirement. Pickens (1988) has provided some interesting statistics. In 1988, California community colleges employed 15,600 faculty. Of these, 6,900, or 44 percent, will reach age sixty-five by the year 2000. Therefore, a substantial number of California's community college faculty will retire or will take early retirement, if available, before then.

A Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching survey (Boyer, 1989) also emphasizes this trend. The report presents information gathered from approximately 550 two-year college teachers. Three findings are germane. First, half of the two-year faculty respondents reported that they would exercise an early retirement option if it were offered. Second, 42 percent of those responding rated quality of life at their institutions as "fair" or "poor." Third, 55 percent rated the sense of community on their campuses as "fair" or "poor." Thus, retirement is emerging as an important issue among community college faculty, and their perceptions about institutional climate tend to make retirement even more attractive.

Three state-level studies provide supporting data. Pierce (1990) reports that by 1992 nearly 40 percent of the current full-time faculty in Illinois community colleges will have retired or will be eligible for retirement. James Wattenbarger (personal communication, April 16, 1991) reviewed the status of community college faculty in Florida. He discovered that within the next five years it will be necessary to replace 700 faculty members due to resignations and retirements. Finally, Hunter (1991) provides data on the staffing requirements facing Maryland's community colleges. By 2000, Maryland will need to replace 660, or one-third, of the full-time faculty currently teaching in the colleges. These data suggest both opportunities and challenges for the People's College.

Handling the retirement of so many faculty members is both a complex and an essential issue if community colleges are to continue to offer educational solutions to a variety of society's problems. The replacement of, conservatively, 40 percent of the current faculty provides community colleges with a unique opportunity for institutional renewal. A number of potential sources are available from which to recruit new faculty. Further, these new faculty are likely to have the skills and the experience base needed to serve the new students best. This chapter will examine the sources and analyze the talent base for new community college faculty.

The Graduate School Connection

In his assessment of the status of America's universities at the start of the 1990s, Bok (1990) issues a telling indictment. He suggests that most universities continue to do "their least impressive work" (p. 122) on the

very subjects where society's need for greater knowledge and better education is most acute. Since universities have been a traditional source of community college faculty, this conclusion might make the future seem bleak. However, promising new models of teacher education are emerging.

For example, the master's degree in community college teaching offered at Glassboro State University in New Jersey addresses the needs of the 1990s (Richard Smith, personal communication, April 16, 1991). The program integrates the development of expertise in the graduate student's specific discipline with the development of teaching skill. An internship offers the candidate the chance to apply the newly acquired knowledge. Also, the program is articulated with several doctoral programs in order to encourage ongoing faculty development. This program design needs to be replicated at other universities across the nation.

At the doctoral level, George Mason University (Virginia), located in the suburbs of the nation's capital, has established a doctor of arts in college teaching degree (George Vaughan, personal communication, April 17, 1991). The program blends discipline, knowledge, and research skills to focus on institutional needs. Graduates of the program are prepared to function effectively in the rapidly changing environment of today's community colleges. Again, other doctoral programs need to adapt their content to the needs of a changing organizational culture.

Eaton's (1991) assessment of the accomplishments of higher education reform in the 1980s inspires a guarded optimism and suggests an emerging willingness on the part of institutions to manage change. She feels that academic reform has at least identified key issues in curriculum, campus climate, and pedagogy. In her opinion, we ended the decade better informed and with the potential to accomplish a great deal. If the changes that Eaton identifies continue into the 1990s, universities will remain a viable source for community college faculty.

The Business and Industry Nexus

There has been a synergistic relationship between community colleges and the business and industry community for decades. Parnell (1990) suggests that the nature of that relationship is now changing. The needs of a technology-based economy have refocused attention on higher education as a partner in the process of economic development. An important aspect of economic development is the retraining of the nation's work force. It is unlikely that community colleges will endeavor to replicate among their full-time faculty the level of knowledge or skill found in the high-technology industry. Colleges can, however, enter into cooperative agreements that allow industry personnel to share their expertise with the campus. Numerous large companies have loaned technical or managerial specialists to community colleges. This process disseminates knowledge about high

technology to a wide variety of students. In turn, the "specialist on loan" gains new insights from his or her participation in the teaching and learning process.

Examples of businesses that have participated in such partnerships include Ford Motor Company, IBM, FritoLay, Mack Trucks, Kingsford Charcoal Company, General Motors Corporation, and Citibank. In each case, participants report that the interaction was profitable for all involved (Parnell, 1990). As the rate of technological change increases and creates an expanding need for retraining, these partnerships are likely to become more widespread. In addition, they offer cost benefits that community colleges will find particularly attractive given the economic realities of the 1990s.

The Dry Pipeline

Keim (1989) presented the results of a national study of the demographics of community college faculty. Six hundred eighty-eight teachers from fifty-one colleges in thirty-two states responded. The results were not surprising. The profile reveals that the average community college faculty member is a middle-aged white male. As new-access students become an increasing majority on community college campuses, the demographic "fit" between these students and their instructors will become less precise. The personnel changes projected over the next decade provide the opportunity to redress this demographic imbalance.

One problem facing community colleges, however, is the "dry pipeline." Insufficient numbers of women and minority students are selecting higher education as a career. Community colleges have a unique opportunity to reverse this trend. The People's College attracts large numbers of students representing the demographics needed in the teaching cadre. Creative planning will allow colleges to recruit new instructors from these students. Baez and Clarke (1989–90) describe a model for linking two- and four-year colleges in a training partnership. Interesting elements of the process include special financial aid packages, internships, and placement services. Early results suggest that the program will produce viable role models for new-access students.

Andrews and Marzano (1990–91) present a refinement of the program under the heading "grow your own" (p. 26). Their model focuses on recruiting the best and the brightest of the new-access students to become teachers. The program includes elements discussed by Baez and Clarke and goes further to suggest that the junior faculty be supported by a senior faculty mentor program. Andrews and Marzano also recommend providing financial support to encourage further graduate education. Such a "grow-your-own" program increases the possibility that the best and the brightest among a college's minority students will return as part of the new

faculty cadre, thus helping community colleges provide a culturally diverse faculty to meet the challenges presented by new-access clients.

A Second Career

Education is not the only sector of society facing personnel turnover. Kutler (1991) reports that 80 percent of the nation's work force for 2000 has already left high school. Further, the 1990 census reveals that Americans are living longer. Both genders now have an average life span of over seventy-five years. Many individuals who have completed a successful, productive career of thirty years or more will remain productive for another fifteen to twenty years. These people possess skills, knowledge, and work habits that are relevant to the People's College. Further, many of them possess educational credentials consistent with the requirements of faculty positions.

Community colleges can benefit from recruiting second-career personnel into the faculty ranks. Two organizations, usually affiliated with the National Chamber of Commerce, have a track record of success. The Service Corps of Retired Executives (SCORE) is designed to recruit and market managerial personnel with proven expertise. Often, they function as consultants to businesses in the private sector. However, there are examples of their successful performance as full- and part-time faculty.

The Retired Senior Volunteers Program (RSVP) recruits from a broader base. These individuals perform a wide range of services in both the public and private sectors. In the college setting, they have the potential to teach as well as tutor under the direction of faculty.

The number of older Americans is rising steadily. This group has the potential to ease the stress on community college staffing when they are encouraged to embark on a second career in college teaching. It remains the responsibility of current college personnel to recognize the value of these "second-careerists" and recruit them.

Conclusion: They're Here—Now What?

At the signing of the Declaration of Independence, Benjamin Franklin told those present that they must all hang together or assuredly they would all hang separately. His insight applies equally well to the situation faced by community colleges in the 1990s. Simply recruiting new faculty for the People's College is no longer sufficient. Once we have them, an action plan must be implemented to ensure that they contribute to the realization of the institution's mission. I submit the following five-part design for such an action plan.

First, the new faculty must feel that they are a part of the college in order for them to influence its mission. Milosheff (1990) conducted a

national study of job satisfaction among community college faculty. She found that job satisfaction for the community college faculty member is related to more than just the nature of the work itself. Other significant variables include finances, relationships with colleagues, influence on campus, institutional quality, and perceptions of students. The study also suggests that college personnel recognize the impact that faculty job satisfaction has on such outcomes as student achievement, productivity, and faculty turnover. Our task is clear. We must ensure that all members of the college community become an integral part of the campus environment.

Second, new faculty will not become integrated into the organizational culture of the college on their own; we must assist them. Mentoring is one process that implements integration. Although mentoring is not new, Boice (1990) discovered that interest in it has grown as the problems of recruiting, retraining, and developing the best young faculty have increased. The cost of establishing and maintaining a mentoring program is insignificant when compared with the low productivity of alienated faculty and the cost of recruiting replacements. Colleges need to consider using mentoring with new personnel in order to encourage integration, enhance productivity, and manage change.

Third, the community college mission needs focus. Institutions cannot be all things to all people, especially in an era when we are all expected to do more with less. Cross and Angelo (1989) state concisely one of the niches that community colleges are best able to fill. They suggest that for community colleges to become premier teaching institutions, faculties need the opportunity to establish themselves as authorities on teaching and learning—as seekers after knowledge about this process as well as expert practitioners of the art and science of teaching. One of the goals for all colleges needs to be an ongoing, integrated professional development program that emphasizes teaching and learning. The challenges of job satisfaction, of the integration of new teachers, of the divergent needs of the new-access students, and of accountability can all be met through the design, delivery, and assessment of teaching and learning. Resources invested in a professional development program are likely to pay important dividends.

Fourth, the organizational culture of the community college needs to change. The traditional hierarchical authority structure deals inefficiently with diversity. Decentralization, self-directed work teams, and personal accountability have proved to be more effective. Raisman (1990) suggests that future community college leaders will occupy ranks below the level of president. New leaders must involve the whole campus in developing unified, coherent, and consistent missions that can be shared. Presidents and trustees must involve the faculty in developing and fulfilling a mission that recognizes the importance of both community needs and collegiate

values. A decentralized leadership structure is consistent with an effective change management process.

The fifth and last element of the proposed action plan recognizes that part-time faculty will continue to be an integral part of community colleges' response to diversity and change. For the past decade, the number of part-time faculty employed by community colleges has continued to increase. These individuals must become a part of the organizational culture for their influence to be felt. Osborn (1990) recommends that providing part-time faculty with techniques and information on teaching and learning can help them develop as teachers. Such professional development efforts will have to extend to the part-timers' workplace or home. We will have to compensate them for participation in professional development and acknowledge their improvement in performance with increased salaries. Unless job satisfaction, professionalism, teaching effectiveness, and accountability extend to the part-time faculty, the efforts of the full-time members of the college community toward change and improvement will be hampered.

The agenda for the 1990s is emerging. We need to ask ourselves where we are going and how we are to get there. Richard Smith (personal communication, April 16, 1991), coordinator of the master's program in junior college teaching at Glassboro State University, summarizes the challenges we face by suggesting that if we seek to convert today's negative environment into a positive one, we must lead, maintain what works, discard what doesn't, understand and address the unique needs of our new learners, and articulate our mission in ways that connect powerfully and directly with the expanding diversity that is America. The new faculty are integral to this process.

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Can preservice education recruit, prepare, and sustain teaching professionals who can fulfill the community college mission, or are we expecting too much?

Expertise and Values: How Relevant Is Preservice Training?

Joyce S. Tsunoda

Two decades ago, the National Advisory Council on Education Professions Development enunciated the importance of faculty to the mission and purposes of the American community college. In an address to the U.S. Congress, the council said, "The quality of education in the community junior college depends primarily on the quality of the staff" (O'Banion, 1977, p. v). There is little doubt that institutional success depends to a large degree on the people within the organization. Among community colleges whose goal is to be "the nation's premier teaching institution" (Commission on the Future of Community Colleges, 1988, p. 25), the teaching faculty are critical to student success and, ultimately, to the nation's ability to meet the challenges of the next decade. Community colleges must, therefore, find faculty with the qualities necessary to prepare a diverse student population for the twenty-first century. In our present environment, this is a monumental task.

Prelude to the Twenty-First Century

In the 1990s, community colleges will lose more than half their staffs to retirement or to more attractive, higher-paying opportunities, leaving an estimated 150,000 positions to be filled (Macomb Community College . . . , 1990). At the same time, these colleges will be asked to address the educational needs of a rapidly changing knowledge- and technology-based society that will require a well-trained work force with the ability to acquire "new skills, attitudes, and behaviors" at a significantly faster pace in order to remain competitive in a global economy (Saul, 1990, p. 51). Parnell (1990) and others point out that the new workplace environment

will demand higher-quality performance, more interpersonal interactions, and higher critical thinking skills. More adults will be returning to campuses for training or retraining as jobs become obsolete within a short time; women, minorities, and immigrants will dominate both the work force and college campuses, which must meet their special needs, such as child care, language training, and cultural understanding and support. Dolce (1988) observes that rapidly changing knowledge and available technologies are making the educational process (and thus the teacher's job) more difficult. Furthermore, the acceptable "margin of error in education" (p. 15) is narrowing, and community colleges will be held accountable for the quality of their end products—namely, their students.

Difficulties of the Job

Few educators would deny that community college teaching is one of the most difficult jobs in higher education. Community college teachers must deal on a daily basis with a tremendous diversity of students, ranging from the functionally illiterate to the merit scholar, from teenagers to senior citizens, and from blue-collar workers to white-collar professionals. Community college teaching is discouraging and frustrating to many faculty members because they often must teach unprepared or underprepared students in inadequate facilities with limited resources.

Community colleges and community college faculty are at the bottom of the higher education hierarchy in terms of workload, image, self-esteem, and, until recently, salary. The 1990–91 survey by the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) reported that community college faculty now rank second behind doctorate-granting institutions in salary (Leatherman, 1991). This was not true a few years ago, however, and community college faculty generally carry a heavier teaching load than their four-year campus colleagues. Average faculty salary increases as a whole have not kept pace with cost-of-living increases (Leatherman, 1991). Attracting teachers in the critical areas of science and technology, as well as vocational programs, is especially difficult because of the higher salaries offered by private industry.

Community college faculty, moreover, are generally titled "instructor" or "lecturer," despite the fact that they are responsible for teaching a majority of the nation's undergraduate students and may have the same credentials as their four-year colleagues. These titles do not command the same prestige or respect as "professor" or "associate professor" and "assistant professor."

Teachers for the Twenty-First Century: Expertise and Values

For community colleges, the conditions of the present and future environments translate to a need for faculty with strong professional, pedagogical,

and technical skills to teach adult students with diverse heritages, socioeconomic backgrounds, goals, and abilities. More than ever, community college faculty will need expertise in the subject or subjects to be taught, skill in the art of teaching, and, most important, a strong commitment to the community college mission and values. A primary implication of the new economic competitiveness is the importance of wholly utilizing the nation's human resources. The new generation of teachers must internalize the core philosophy of the community colleges, which values the individual and the individual's right to succeed. President John F. Kennedy (1965) expressed this philosophy when he said, "Not . . . all men are equal in their ability, character, and motivation, [but] . . . every American should be given a fair chance to develop all the talents they may have" (p. 184). Community colleges are further challenged to recruit women and minority faculty to serve as role models for the increasing numbers of women and cultural minorities on campuses, as well as to meet affirmative action targets (Andrews and Marzano, 1990–91; Gillett-Karam, Roueche, and Roueche, 1991).

Scholarship is also vital to enhance the quality of undergraduate education and to earn collegial respect for community college faculty (Boyer, 1990; Dolce, 1988; Seidman, 1985; Vaughan, 1988). Boyer (1990) defined a new scholarship that goes beyond traditional research (discovery) to include the synthesis, application, and transmission (teaching) of knowledge. Teaching, the ultimate art, encompasses the three other forms of scholarship. Cross and Angelo (Cross, 1990; Cross and Angelo, 1989) have promoted the use of classroom research to improve teaching effectiveness and, thus, student outcomes, focusing attention on the relationship between teaching and learning. Unfortunately, faculty at two-year colleges traditionally have not been encouraged to do research. In fact, the prevailing climate appears to discourage intellectual pursuits. A disturbingly large number of faculty rate the intellectual climate on their campuses as "poor" or "fair" (Commission on the Future of Community Colleges, 1988, p. 11), due perhaps to a "false dichotomy between teaching and research" (Seidman, 1985, p. 274).

Preservice Education

Developing preparatory programs (as well as in-service programs) to prepare and recruit faculty who can meet the stringent criteria of the future is a formidable challenge, especially when we consider the past. Programs offering the master of arts in teaching (MAT) and doctor of arts in teaching (DAT) were established in graduate schools in the late 1960s and continued to be offered through the 1970s, receiving government support from the Education Professions Development Act (EPDA) and private support from organizations such as the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and the Ford Foundation (Cohen and Brawer, 1989).

None of these programs became a significant source of community college faculty, perhaps due in part to a declining demand for academic teachers during the 1970s (Cohen and Brawer, 1989). In-service programs also peaked during the 1970s. Brawer (1990) points out that faculty development is still not a high priority among community colleges, "despite the furor occasioned by demands for faculty accountability and evaluation" (p. 51).

Few graduate training programs for community college education exist today. A 1980 national survey (Lumsden, 1981–82) identified ninety-four universities with such programs. Peterson's Guide (1990), a standard higher education directory, today lists about thirty-one institutions, nineteen offering master's programs, eight offering doctoral programs, and four offering both. While some programs specifically focus on community college teaching, many simply offer a field of specialization within the broader study of higher education (Smith, 1990). Almost all programs are offered within the College of Education.

Inadequate Programs. Unfortunately, O'Banion's (1972, p. 84) criticism of the preservice programs of the 1970s as "grossly inadequate," taught by "narrow, subject-matter specialists or secondary school oriented College of Education graduates" still has merit. To be fair, some exceptional programs are being developed under the guidance of leaders such as Arthur M. Cohen at the University of California, Los Angeles, Richard Richardson at Arizona State University, John E. Roueche at the University of Texas, Austin, and Patricia Cross at the University of California, Berkeley. New programs such as the Center for Community College Education at George Mason University are also emerging. For the most part, however, graduate training programs in community college education have not fulfilled their potential to provide relevant training for prospective or already employed faculty.

O'Banion (1972) suggested four guidelines for successful, high-quality preparatory programs for two-year faculty, and these guidelines are still valid. Preservice programs must provide an understanding of community college history and philosophy, a knowledge and appreciation of community college students (their diversity in age, ability, learning styles, and socioeconomic and ethnic background), and practical experience through internships under a master teacher. Community college teachers must also understand the learning process and be acquainted with new approaches and innovations in learning. Knowles and Associates (1984) focus on another primary requirement for the 1990s: andragogy, the teaching of adults who have significantly different perspectives and needs from the traditional college-age student and who will soon comprise the majority of college students.

As more community college faculty are encouraged to conduct research and to seek doctoral degrees, the doctoral program may become a

realistic training alternative for community college faculty. Keim's (1989) study, which supports earlier ones, reported that 25 percent of full-time community college humanities faculty have doctoral degrees.

Faculty Qualifications. For any preservice program to be viable, however, some basic changes must be made in the operation and culture (that is, the intellectual environment) of community colleges. Minimum qualifications for community college faculty, for example, must be reevaluated. Since the minimum entry requirement for community college faculty is a master's degree in the discipline to be taught, there has been little incentive for candidates to receive formalized training in teaching itself, which could add another year of study, until after they are hired. Keim's (1989) study indicated that less than one-third of full-time and less than one-fourth of part-time instructors have had a formal course on two-year colleges, raising questions about "faculty familiarity with the institutional history, mission, and literature" (p. 41). A critical question is whether community colleges can or should make it more difficult to enter the profession at a time when they are competing with other occupations for top candidates and at a time when the campus environment will be more demanding than ever. Can preservice programs also address the needs and time constraints of part-time faculty who bring valuable skills and perspectives to the curriculum, particularly in the occupational and technical areas, and who currently comprise almost 60 percent of the two-year faculty? These are serious considerations, although most community college policy makers would support the idea of a more fully prepared faculty (Keim, 1989).

Curriculum. Specific modes of delivery of preservice education programs will require close examination and thought, cooperation between graduate schools and community colleges, and adequate time to implement. Preparatory programs must offer more than a handful of general courses appended to traditional education programs, and some courses may not be relevant to students without experience in the classroom. Placement of these programs within the traditional College of Education should also be questioned. Clifford and Guthrie (Thelin, 1989) contend that among the distinguished American universities, no school of education is held in high esteem on its own campus, regardless of its place in the hierarchy among other schools of education. A major criticism of education programs is that they lack the rigor of other disciplines and frequently sacrifice subject expertise for pedagogy. A doctorate in education fails to command respect among the community college faculty's higher education colleagues (Seidman, 1985).

Preservice Alternatives: Innovations

Given the inherent limitations and time required to establish strong preparatory programs, staff development programs offered by professional

discipline-based associations appear more promising at this time than does the process of developing new programs at universities. This is particularly true since studies show that instructors prefer developmental programs and courses in their teaching fields (O'Banion, 1972; Cohen and Brawer, 1989). Subject expertise is the foundation on which community colleges can build teaching excellence.

As an alternative to traditional graduate College of Education programs, professional associations could develop programs for community college teachers leading to independent certification, such as those offered in the accounting and banking professions. Well-structured summer institutes and short-term seminars using experienced community college educators could train the next generation of teachers in the special art and science of community college teaching in their own disciplines. These programs could forge students with a firm educational foundation and subject mastery into scholar-teachers with the compassion, understanding, and technical skills to teach a particular discipline to the community colleges' diverse adult, vocational, transfer, and special-population students. The programs could be a vehicle for continuing faculty and staff development as well. The Classroom Research Institute developed by Cross and Angelo (1989) at the University of California, Berkeley, provides an excellent model for such programs. Credit equivalencies could allow students to apply these courses to degree programs offered by universities.

National Science Foundation Model. The commitment of the National Science Foundation (NSF) to strengthening science, mathematics, engineering, and technology programs in two-year colleges is one exciting development that may lead to new training options for community college faculty. Critical shortages of qualified personnel in the science and technology disciplines are expected between 1995 and 2010 due to faculty retirements in combination with the decreasing number of students who are electing teaching careers and with industry's courting of students in these major areas (Koltai and Wilding, 1991). Many retiring faculty are excellent teachers who went through NSF-supported training programs during the 1970s. Following a critical report of undergraduate education issued by the National Science Board in 1986, NSF established an Office of Undergraduate Science, Engineering, and Mathematics Education, which supports undergraduate education improvements. NSF has also initiated the Undergraduate Faculty Enhancement Project, which has funded proposals by and for undergraduate faculty, and it has supported two workshops providing opportunities for representatives from community colleges and business and industry to meet with NSF staff (Koltai and Wilding, 1991).

The American Association of Community and Junior Colleges' (AACJC's) National Task Force for the Improvement of Science, Engineering, and Mathematics Education in Community, Technical, and Junior Colleges resulted from a recommendation by participants in a 1988 NSF

workshop. Recognizing that the improvement of science, engineering, and mathematics education is "largely dependent upon a qualified, innovative, and motivated faculty and staff" (Koltai and Wilding, 1991, p. 18), the AACJC task force recommends providing stipends—that is, national-level grants and scholarships—to enable two-year faculty to further their education in these three disciplines and to encourage faculty participation in long-term staff and curriculum development (Koltai and Wilding, 1991).

The National Endowment for the Humanities and the National Endowment for the Arts could adopt similar strategies to organize and support a cohesive program of professional development opportunities that would help arts and humanities faculty, who are already discipline experts, become master teachers.

Consortia for Success. The Consortium for Institutional Effectiveness and Student Success in the Community College and the Community College Consortium could also play a vital role in promoting teaching effectiveness as an extension of institutional effectiveness and student success. The two consortia have sponsored successful institutes that showcase exemplary state-of-the-art practices in institutional effectiveness and student success since 1989 (Alfred and Kreider, 1991). Formed in 1988, the Consortium for Institutional Effectiveness and Student Success is now a seventy-five-member, AACJC-affiliated consortium headed by Paul Kreider, president of Mount Hood College. The Community College Consortium includes eighty-six community colleges and the University of Michigan, the University of Toledo, and Michigan State University. Established in 1986, the consortium's purpose is to provide training programs for faculty and staff. By focusing on classroom effectiveness and using the same successful strategies that have been applied to institutional effectiveness, the two consortia could play an essential role in strengthening community college teaching (Alfred and Kreider, 1991).

The Hawaii Experience

In seeking external support for professional development programs, community colleges cannot forget their own responsibilities to initiate and promote programs that will prepare faculty and staff for the rapidly changing teaching environment. Like other colleges, the University of Hawaii Community Colleges (UHCC) have had to adopt an aggressive approach to staff development in the absence of formal education programs. (Some UHCC faculty and staff received training for community college teaching through an Education Professions Development Act program administered by the University of Hawaii's College of Education during the 1970s. Although federal funds terminated some time ago, the university retained a program of limited scope until recently.)

To improve the faculty environment, the UHCC system took three

significant steps during the 1990–91 academic year: under the direction of Dr. Richard Alfred, codirector of the Community College Consortium, it conducted a faculty survey to assess professional development needs; it adopted new titles for faculty (professor, assistant professor, and associate professor); and it redefined faculty assignments to reflect a broader definition of scholarship and to recognize professional activities in addition to teaching. The chancellor's office has also supported participation of faculty members in the University of California, Berkeley, Classroom Research Project to improve teaching effectiveness.

Perhaps one of the most exciting new projects is an annual Asia-Pacific Summer Seminar for two- and four-year faculty, which was developed collaboratively by the AACJC, the American Association of State Colleges and Universities, the East-West Center, and the University of Hawaii. The purpose is to improve and internationalize undergraduate teaching and curricula throughout the U.S. Following a 1990 planning workshop, the first seminar was held in July 1991 with forty participants from two- and four-year colleges from Hawaii and other states. Focused on contemporary issues, primarily those of importance in East and Southeast Asia, the three-week seminar is an excellent example of cooperative programs for staff and curriculum development.

Conclusion

Increasing global competition underscores the importance of human resource development. Like the period following World War II when Truman's blue-ribbon Commission on Higher Education began to promote community colleges as the vehicle for economic recovery, America's economic survival during the twenty-first century will depend on extending educational opportunities to every individual over a lifetime. If faculty are the key to successful programs, then it is imperative that community colleges become proactive in developing and supporting preparatory and in-service programs to attract and shape an outstanding professoriat.

Formal education programs prior to hiring can provide a strong philosophical, pedagogical, and subject-matter foundation for community college teaching. These preservice training programs can help identify and mentor potential teachers who are sensitive and receptive to the community college's philosophy and students. These programs are the ideal vehicle for introducing and reinforcing operational themes, such as the mutual responsibility of students and teachers for teaching and learning, as well as for identifying individuals with the most important characteristic, a "humanistic personality" (O'Banion, 1972, p. 87). A preservice program oriented toward the community college can set patterns, reinforce expectations, and develop the attitudes, interpersonal skills, and appreciation for diversity that will support the community college mission.

Finally, preservice programs can help to reconceptualize the role of community college faculty as a distinct part of higher education that is valued not only by community college students and their communities but also by community college educators and their colleagues.

Preservice training is, however, only one part of a comprehensive program that incorporates identification, recruitment, mentoring, and in-service training to ensure faculty competence. The ultimate objective is to generate a community college professoriat that will deliver a work force imbued with strong values and learning skills, capable of achieving personally satisfying lives while contributing to the nation's cultural, intellectual, and political growth, as well as economic strength. This can only be accomplished in concert with strong in-service programs that offer opportunities for staff renewal. Preservice and in-service training opportunities developed through cooperative efforts will support lifelong learning and produce teachers with the expertise and values needed by our community colleges.

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Current staff development practices contribute to the disintegration of community college faculties.

The New Problem of Staff Development

Martin B. Spear, Evan Seymour, Dennis McGrath

Staff development activities are a much more prominent feature of community colleges than of four-year colleges or universities. There are no New Directions volumes that worry about revitalizing university faculties. But about the community college professoriat there is and always has been suspicion. From the very beginnings of the profession, people have noticed that there is something unusual about this new species, something that perhaps they can't quite pin down but that they know is there. They know the much-heralded "new student" of open-access colleges encounters a "new professoriat," but about its precise nature and how it was brought into being and shaped there has been relatively little careful work (Seidman, 1985; McGrath and Spear, 1988, 1991; Sledge, 1987).

The profusion of staff development activities that came into being during the last generation may be taken as a measure of this suspicion about community colleges and their faculties. After all, the avowed point of staff development, the reason colleges spend so much time and money on it, is to reduce the dissonance between actual faculty performance and the imagined required performance. There are many points where this dissonance occurs, just as there are many perspectives on the relationships between community college instructors and their students, college, and colleagues; characteristically, over the course of years colleges will design activities to address at least several of these. In the early years of the community college movement, for instance, messianic founding administrators felt that instructors' expectations about their colleges and their jobs clashed with the administrators' own innovative vision of the institutions. In response, these administrators instituted and later routin-

ized in-service and staff development activities—a phenomenon reminiscent of the approach to faculty development used at high schools and unheard of at universities. Apparently, staff development, like the poor, was going to be with us always, for over the course of many years, it continued to find and focus on different problems with faculty performance. This time, what needed to be fixed were the long-term consequences of faculty's successful acculturation: the cumulative effect of the stresses of the new profession had produced a "burnout" characteristic of one-step careers with intensive worker-client interactions. Similarly, and especially in the traditional academic disciplines, instructors were thought of, and continue to be thought of, as simply mistrained for their jobs—traditional graduate research training, it was decided, provided markedly inappropriate preparation for what would face teachers in community college classrooms. This led some graduate schools to flirt with a new doctor of arts degree and to point at least a few special academic programs toward training prospective community college teachers. But again, over time, the reverse worry has perhaps come to dominate. There is no longer any realistic concern that community college instructors may be elitist intellectuals; on the contrary, now it may be that they are too much undertrained relative to their four-year college counterparts, too detached from their original disciplines.

The recounting of worries about community college faculties could go on at some length; given the idealistic, reformist bent of community colleges, new problems and new worries are uncovered regularly. This is all to the good. To the extent that outcomes of community colleges are a matter of what faculty do—and they are to a great extent indeed—then instituting successful reforms is a matter of understanding what faculty do. But that understanding is no small feat. Their new profession does not map neatly onto ordinary, easily available models. The daily reality of their lives resembles in some ways both that of college professor and of high school teacher, yet in others it diverges from both these professions. Trained in disciplines, community college faculty nevertheless think of themselves primarily as generic "educators," "effective teachers." They rarely identify themselves with or engage themselves in disciplinary activities in the traditional way, although they must represent these disciplines to the new, nontraditional student. At some colleges, they may carry "academic rank," but such distinction is more likely linked to longevity or service to the college than to academic prowess. In a thousand ways—from how they are described and addressed to how they are approached by students, from the duties they are expected to perform to those they are expected to neglect—they are reminded that they are not exactly college professors, or trade school teachers, or high school teachers. The early hope that they might form the vanguard of a new profession—that of "effective teacher"—embodied all these tensions and ambiguities, but what was spawned instead was actually a new profession of itinerant staff developers.

Presuppositions of Current Staff Development Models

Everybody agrees that the new student now encounters a new professoriat. However, the newness of this professoriat lies perhaps less in its being "student centered" or "exclusively committed to teaching," as the reigning ideology would put it, than in its confused reshaping of traditional professional models and in its loss of corporate norms, identity, and mission. Still, the striking mismatch between traditionally trained faculty and a nontraditional career has long been recognized almost everywhere, and in response, routine staff development activities have been made ever more ordinary, ever more prominent features of the institutional landscape.

The most common forms of staff development activities have been affective workshops, which encourage continuing graduate or professional studies and provide instruction in effective teaching. What we find most striking about this constellation of activities is not that they are wrong but that they share ways of thinking about community colleges that are more part of the problem than part of the solution. In particular, these sorts of activities presuppose the theoretical isolation of pedagogy from disciplinary practices and imagine the faculty to be an aggregate of journeyman experts. Cutting ourselves free from bondage to those presuppositions will produce a new image of the community college faculty and new possibilities of enriched instruction.

Generic Teachers. The proudest claim of community colleges has always been that they are student-centered teaching institutions. As community colleges were largely shaped by this vision, so also their faculties were encouraged to develop new professional identities divorced from scholarship and disciplines: they were to be "effective teachers," the vanguard of an instructional revolution. With this vision came a new notion of faculty development; the new profession was to be single-mindedly concerned with the improvement of instruction. Therefore, the most common professional development activities were designed to help individual faculty members improve their teaching, whatever their discipline. Perhaps for teachers in vocational programs, these were entirely useful and beneficial. There was, however, a not entirely unintended consequence for traditional academic disciplines—that is, they were repositioned and redefined within the college—and this consequence was not so obviously benign.

For teachers of literature, psychology, philosophy, physics—in other words, for teachers of the traditional academic disciplines—a career line at a community college consists of four or five or at some places even six introductory-level courses per semester, taught over and over for twenty, thirty, or forty years, sometimes in the same classrooms, using the same erasers. The tensions and dissonances of the new teaching role, the constant pressure of informal classroom negotiation with nontraditional,

maybe underprepared students, the gradual disengagement of each teacher from his or her discipline—all this spawns a progressive, if silent, academic drift away from disciplinary rigor and toward anemic generic practices at community colleges. For any individual teacher, disciplinary concerns rather quickly recede under the pressure of classroom necessity, to be replaced by the approved professional concern with "teaching." As graduate students, they had discussed difficult literary, mathematical, or sociological issues. But for people in the new role of community college teachers, those academic discussions are memories only. They have been plucked from a disciplinary community and annointed as "teachers." Now their professional conversations with their colleagues center exclusively on curriculum and pedagogy.

Early apologists for the idealized new profession, "effective teacher," endorsed this drift away from disciplinary rigor. They held out the hope that community college sociologists, far from the disciplinary core, might nevertheless maintain a proud professional identity, even though that identity would now be "teacher" rather than "sociologist." This shift from the traditional professional ideal was made possible by the assumption that knowledge and pedagogy might meaningfully be separated from the various disciplines and that, consequently, teachers might be experts in teaching and learning understood generically (McGrath, Spear, and Seymour, 1991). According to this model, cognitive psychology purportedly undergirds a science of effective teaching. Thus, those would-be sociologists still could become expert "teachers," trained to practice such arts as specifying objectives, organizing courses into carefully arranged sequences, developing "learning packages," and mastering computer-assisted instruction and other forms of individualized learning.

By now, this is all too familiar, but what is not often noticed is how completely it depends on the problematic paired epistemological and cognitive psychological assertions: (1) that knowledge, whether propositional or practical, is not strongly related to special disciplinary processes of production and transmission and (2) that the processes of teaching and learning can be independent objects of knowledge. If both those assumptions fly, as they were thought to a couple of generations ago, there really might be something called an expert teacher, and professional development staff really might be able to teach faculty how to teach just about anything. Of course, then one would expect staff developers to adopt a stance analogous to that of faculty to students, expert to novice, teacher to learner. Notoriously, however, this has been a hard sell. Faculty members so strongly resist claims to superior expertise from anyone who would teach them how to teach that staff development on this model is always fraught with tension and anxiety. As a result, staff developers have adopted a much softer pose: they "facilitate" faculty growth, "share" expertise, "celebrate" diversity. Although this now seems to everyone the natural way

to proceed, it is actually quite peculiar that at colleges defining themselves as the vanguard of a scientific instructional revolution, public claims to theoretical knowledge of teaching and learning can only appear so tentatively, so weakly, and so much in constant worry of being trumped by the everyday experience of individual classroom practitioners. This is a consequence of the second presupposition of contemporary staff development—a presupposition that has gradually become hard social reality—that a college faculty is comprised of independent journeyman instructors.

Journeyman Teachers. For each of the familiar staff development approaches, though the problem is described as social and collective, the solutions always turn out to be individual and psychological. Developing staff translates into developing individual staff members, whether in their affective qualities, their expertise in their field, or their pedagogical competence. So just as the problem of nontraditional education can be unfortunately recast as a problem of aggregate student deficiency, so the problems of the new professoriat can be misread as aggregate deficiencies. Just as the educational issues of community colleges begin to look like the problems of individual students writ large, so ordinary staff development activities are also conceived as attempts to influence teachers only as individuals. Individual faculty members are the target; the intention is to make them better informed, or better teachers, or even happier people. When this perspective reigns, social and cultural forms that profoundly shape the educational environment and educational practice can only peek out, bizarrely twisted and thrust into the heads of individual persons, whether students or teachers.

After a generation of dedicated administrative effort, this imagery of an atomized academic community is no longer far off the mark. Although it is a complicated matter, the easiest place to see it quickly is in the substantial reliance on part-time faculty that is characteristic of community colleges. Now, for administrators, part-time staffing is primarily a matter of fiscal responsibility and administrative flexibility, secondarily matters of anticipated employee commitment or quality control. Except that part-timers teach only one or two courses per semester, they are, from a formal managerial perspective, identical to their full-time colleagues. Given adequate credentials and common course objectives, adjuncts can be expected to teach roughly as well and at very significant savings to the institution. For full-time faculty—and their unions—the practice of large-scale staffing with part-time instructors may appear more ominous, but their objections usually flow from an understanding of the college that parallels the management perspective. They allege that part-timers will be less committed; they question the level of effort and involvement that part-timers can be expected to show in the classroom. Just as administrators see the practice as benign because of their focus on the formal features of instruction, so faculty view it as harmful because of their belief in the

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autonomy of the classroom instructor and in the significance that this autonomy lends to the moral and affective qualities of individual instructors. Neither administrators nor faculty recognize the social and cultural implications of staffing patterns; both portray college as students, one by one, interacting with faculty, one by one.

For staffing with part-time instructors to seem so natural and inevitable, individual courses in the curriculum have to be conceived as relating to one another only loosely. Faculty members have to appear as jobbers in their courses, bearing only such relations to one another as journeymen have within a guild. As the college faculty is but an aggregate, so the curriculum is merely summative. The college itself becomes simply a place where an individual teacher can teach his or her individual course. "I am an independent contractor in my course," one of our colleagues said to us recently. Consequently, students will not be thought to relate to the faculty as a group or to the college as a whole but rather to individual teachers within individual courses, which are taken one by one and perhaps, at most, "sequenced." In almost every way, community colleges are now organized according to a fragmented and atomized notion of their academic function and of students' educational experience.

The journeyman illusion is that all faculty members are created equal, be they part or full time, Ph.D. or B.A., published or not—one might even say competent or not, since the defining feature of a journeyman system is that competence is entirely a matter of initial certification. A faculty organized on journeyman principles naturally splinters: toward isolated and autonomous jobbers with no professional future beyond maintenance of membership in the guild, toward loss of corporate identity.

Developing a New Professoriat

The new challenge of staff and organizational development for community colleges is to find ways to recover from the weakening and fragmentation of curricula and the correlate disintegration of the corporate faculty that have taken place over the past generation. For their own good, for the good of the college and the students that are their reason for being there, community college faculties need a surrogate for the strong disciplinary cultures of the universities, which ensure continued professional growth after graduate school. Unlike their university counterparts, community college faculty cannot expect processes, contexts, and possibilities for professional growth just to be there, to happen automatically. These opportunities will have to be created almost from scratch, since there are really no adequate models at present.

However, any faculty development program that aspires to move beyond Band-Aid responses to individual cases of burnout and into collective response to what is a collective problem will need to take into account

the emerging anti-intellectual faculty culture—what we (McGrath and Spear, 1991) have called, following Stephen North, the culture of "practitioners." Roughly, what we argued was that a faculty composed of sociologists far from sociology or of philosophers far from philosophy, living and working isolated from scrutiny in conditions of structural equality, will necessarily find itself developing practices to prevent the outbreak of an academic culture. "Sharing" is not arguing, after all, nor is "celebrating diversity" likely to be much help in settling critically important collegiate issues. Communally, community college faculty inevitably form as a confederacy of equals—equally disconnected from their original disciplines, equally fearful of atrophying, and equally afraid of being found out. What passes for professional development activities—various settings in which faculty take turns talking, or "collaborating," "valuing" one another (since deep down they know no one else does), swapping suspicious claims to expertise along with anecdotes and reassurances—these kinds of activities attempt to counter the social and affective aspects of isolation and disconnection but ignore the cultural and intellectual, the professional aspects.

In *The Academic Crisis of the Community College* (McGrath and Spear, 1991), we argued that the critical educational problem faced by community colleges is the erosion of the academic culture. This is not a matter of the personal qualities of either students or faculty, whether individually or in sum. What is distinctive and disturbing about the new professoriat and what implicates faculty members in the paling of academic norms and the trivialization of disciplines are not so much their personal professional qualifications, predilections, abilities, and styles as the social and cultural features of the new profession.

Were faculty understood not so much from under the skin but culturally, their real situation would be better displayed: the overall shape of their professional lives, how they understand their professional role, and the way they are influenced by the organizational culture they both share and shape. That would move the level of analysis from the aggregate psychological level to the sociological and anthropological—and, of course, contemporary educational researchers now frequently draw on the resources of those disciplines. As staff development practices of the next generation are influenced more by the interpretive disciplines, from anthropology to organizational theory, rather than by psychology, we may see systematic attempts to influence faculty culture by affecting the intellectual and social environment, the structures within which they act. As things now stand, however, staff development means developing individual staff members, or trying to, while the silent but pervasive destruction of the very idea of a college faculty proceeds apace.

Until the cultural condition of a community college faculty is acknowledged and addressed, there can be no progress toward a collegiate vision

of what counts as education at all, but rather many, perhaps very many, different understandings working at cross-purposes with no effective institutional constraints. The emergence of the new professoriat raises the important new institutional challenge for the next generation of educational reformers: can we learn how to rebuild a college out of discrete units, out of individual faculty members, different departments and divisions, different sides of the house?

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Community college faculty still lack a shared sense of professional identity. Four frames of reference are examined within which a collective professional identity might be formed.

Faculty Professionalism Reconsidered

Jim Palmer

During the community college's greatest period of growth, 1965–1975, the questions of who should teach at the community college and how prospective teachers should be prepared for their jobs arose as key issues. With the demand for new faculty high (the number of faculty teaching at two-year colleges increased by 539 percent from 1953 through 1973), many pondered not only how faculty vacancies should be filled but whether junior college teaching was a distinct profession and, if so, how candidates for this profession should be trained. Articles appeared on the desired competencies of junior college faculty in individual disciplines. For example, biologists debated the question of whether those teaching biology at junior colleges require different and less specialized forms of graduate training in biology than colleagues teaching at four-year institutions (Hertig, 1971; Hurlburt, 1971). Many universities, responding to concerns that traditional master's degree programs produced subject-area experts who lacked pedagogical skills, initiated graduate tracks in junior college teaching, combining work in the discipline with courses and internships designed to hone teaching skills and introduce students to the junior college environment (Ross, 1972).

These graduate programs never became the primary source of new faculty members, and as growth in the number of institutions (and in the number of new faculty hired) tapered off in the mid 1970s, debates about the nature of a new community college teaching profession gave way to the administrative concerns of collective bargaining, faculty burnout, and the continuing education of faculty already hired. Writing on the heels of this growth period, Cohen (1973) observed that the professional status of community college faculty never fully developed. Many of the attributes of

a profession, he wrote, could be at least partially conceded to community college faculty as an occupational group. For example, the master's degree had become the standard for entrance into the field; hence, practitioners needed to undergo a relatively long period of training and acquire a specialized body of knowledge not readily available to the layperson. In addition, faculty involvement in tenure and hiring decisions gave them a voice, albeit shared with administrators, in policing their own ranks. But a shared sense of professionalism, one toward which all members of the faculty could aspire, never emerged: "collectively, the image of the faculty may be quite different from any of its members' individual reflections. It is this collective image that must be clarified if community college teaching is to become more of a profession" (Cohen, 1973, p. 102).

Nonetheless, the issue of how community college teaching should be defined professionally may arise once again as college leaders prepare for a new era of faculty hiring brought on by the retirement of those employed in the 1960s and early 1970s. Almost one-fourth (23 percent) of all full-time faculty now teaching at public community colleges are fifty-five or older, and 62 percent are forty-five or older (Russell and others, 1990). Replacing these faculty over the next twenty years will not prove as dramatic an event as the expansion of the faculty ranks two decades ago. Those hired will fill existing positions in long-established institutions and not (as was the case earlier) newly created positions at newly established institutions. Yet the prospect of substantial turnover among faculty leads to questions not only about how replacements will be found but also about who those replacements should be professionally.

How is the latter question to be approached? At least four frames of reference have been proposed within which faculty professionalism can be conceptualized: (1) the institutional frame of reference, stressing responsibilities to the mission of the community college and the students that mission serves; (2) the scholastic frame of reference, stressing responsibilities to scholarship within the discipline; (3) the classroom research frame of reference, stressing responsibility to assess systematically the teaching and learning process; and (4) the pedagogical frame of reference, stressing responsibility to define and lead students to specific educational outcomes. This chapter examines each of these, drawing implications for how community college teaching might continue its evolution from a job to a profession.

Institutional Frame of Reference

Within the institutional frame of reference, which received its greatest support during the growth years of the 1960s and early 1970s, the faculty member ties his or her sense of responsibility to the comprehensive mission of the community college. Rejecting the university's emphasis on specialization within the discipline, instructors embrace the task of teaching a

broad spectrum of related subjects at the lower-division level to students who may or may not intend to earn a baccalaureate. Gleazer (1967) was a strong proponent of this perspective, arguing that "at the heart of successful junior college teaching lies faculty understanding and acceptance of the diverse purposes of an 'open-door' type of educational institution" (p. 148). Because faculty "perceptions and attitudes will inevitably exert a major influence on the course of these institutions and their educational effectiveness" (p. 148), Gleazer continued, faculty who do not embrace the community college mission would at best become discouraged and at worst thwart the institution in its attempts to meet the educational needs of its broad constituency. He called for the development of master's degree programs in community college instruction, combining interdisciplinary study in related fields (such as biology, zoology, and botany) with supervised teaching experiences at a community college.

Focusing professionalism on the institution appeals to the ideals of those who identify the community college with the movement to open higher education to students previously unserved by the university. The resulting sense of mission has been a cohesive force among many community college educators. But those espousing the institutional frame of reference never structured it on a fully developed rationale that would link the perceived uniqueness of the community college to the practice of teaching. How exactly does teaching at the community college differ from teaching lower-division courses at four-year institutions? Without a clear answer, those outside the community college movement often looked askance at claims to a new teaching profession. As one biologist (Hertig, 1971) put it, "there has arisen a confusion about the difference between the overall mission of two-year colleges and the contribution that a given discipline makes toward the achievement of that mission" (p. 185). It may be granted, he continued, that two-year college biology classes prepare students for careers in medical technology as well as for baccalaureate degrees in biology. "But we are left with biologists teaching the discipline of biology" (p. 185).

One can therefore question the extent to which the institutional frame of reference actually took hold. Still, its legacy remains, notably in the limited extent to which community college faculty (in sharp contrast to university colleagues) identify with and remain active in their disciplines. Some deplore this lack of activity as a debilitating situation. Schmeltekopf (1983), for example, notes the relatively low participation of community college liberal arts faculty in discipline-based associations and views this limited participation as a symptom of intellectual stagnation. Others, however, are not so concerned. They see limited faculty ties to the discipline as an institutional strength, one that helps to focus faculty attention on teaching and student needs and away from outside commitments. Baker, Roueche, and Gillett-Karam (1990), for example, allude to this idea in their assertion that "a major challenge for the leadership of

community colleges is to cause the faculty members to see themselves first as members of the college community and secondly as members of their specific professional community" (p. 291). Both points of view reflect the different tugs that all faculty members encounter when balancing professional responsibilities to the college with those that are owed the disciplines they teach.

Scholastic Frame of Reference

The scholastic frame of reference rejects the notion that intellectual work in one's discipline and commitment to the teaching-oriented, comprehensive community college are mutually exclusive goals. It embraces a broad definition of scholarship, one that includes traditional research, or the production of knowledge, as only one of many scholarly activities that may be undertaken by faculty. In embracing this broad definition, the scholastic frame of reference lays bare the false notion that research universities are the sole theater for scholarship in higher education. It recognizes the responsibility of community college faculty to imbue their teaching with the insights gained from active scholarship, rather than simply covering the course material.

Vaughan (1988) has been the leading advocate for attention to scholarship at the community college. He sees a clear tie between teaching effectiveness, which is at the heart of the community college mission, and scholarly endeavors, maintaining that "outstanding teaching requires constant learning and intellectual renewal" (p. 28). Noting that scholarship is the systematic pursuit of a topic through "rational inquiry and critical analysis," he points out that scholarly products may take many forms: "a book review, an annotated bibliography, a lecture, a review of existing research on a topic, [or] a speech that is a synthesis of thinking on a topic" (p. 27). These are clearly projects that do not require traditional, original research. But whatever the product, Vaughan continues, it is the obligation of the scholar to share it with others and open it to the criticism of those qualified to judge its merits.

In making his case, Vaughan concedes that the community college culture is often hostile to faculty involvement in scholarly activities outside of teaching. The failure of many college leaders to connect scholarship with teaching effectiveness and thus reward the scholarly activities of faculty has taken its toll. In addition, heavy teaching loads have sometimes fostered a work-by-the-hour mentality, one in which "obligations to the job overshadow a [professional] commitment to scholarship" (Vaughan, 1988, p. 29). As a result, faculty attitudes toward scholarship are mixed. In a recent national survey of community college faculty, Palmer (1992) found that most (86 percent) had completed at least one scholarly product, as broadly defined by Vaughan, within the past two years; 73 percent felt

that work on these scholarly products improves teaching effectiveness. However, only 48 percent felt that community colleges should make scholarly work outside of the classroom a required condition of employment. Though the faculty recognize the value of remaining active in scholarship, most are reluctant to view it as a collective, professional responsibility.

Classroom Research Frame of Reference

Vaughan's call for the recognition of a broader definition of scholarship, one that makes room for those who do not spend their professional lives at research universities, has gained currency. Boyer (1990), for example, has warned that the intellectual vitality of the American professoriat demands that colleges recognize the many ways in which scholarly contributions can be made. Unlike Vaughan, Boyer focuses on the processes of scholarship rather than on its products. Some faculty, he notes, will continue work on basic research (the scholarship of discovery), while others will analyze and interpret research findings (the scholarship of integration), apply knowledge to the solution of technical or social problems (the scholarship of application), and convey knowledge and a love of learning to students (the scholarship of teaching).

The teaching emphasis of the community college leads naturally to a focus on the fourth scholarly process, the scholarship of teaching, and to a consideration of the faculty role in systematically analyzing the classroom as a learning environment. The Commission on the Future of Community Colleges (1988), for example, places the community college teaching profession squarely within this framework. "Community colleges," the commission argues, "should define the role of the faculty member as classroom researcher" (p. 27). Faculty should be analysts of the classroom environment who are "trained to be . . . careful observer[s] of the teaching process, to collect feedback on what and how well students learn, and to evaluate the effectiveness of instruction. This approach . . . asks faculty to make a clear connection between how they teach and what students learn. It establishes the classroom as both a teaching and research environment" (p. 27).

The use of the word *research* does not imply controlled experimentation; hence, faculty responsibilities as classroom researchers do not extend into the realm of social science. Cross (1989), the most outspoken advocate of today's classroom research movement and whose work was cited by the commission, stresses that classroom research does not require training or expertise in social science research methods. Procedures aimed at helping teachers assess student learning as classes proceed are key, rather than the production of research findings that are shared with the larger profession. As Cross explains, "our goal in Classroom Research [sic] is not

to add research projects to already heavy teaching loads but to integrate research into everyday teaching. . . . A study of critical thinking in the classroom, for example, might begin with the assignment of a task that requires critical thinking and permits systematic observations about how students approach the task and how well they perform. The Classroom Researcher [sic] would experiment with modifications in the design of the task and its presentation, followed by a reevaluation of the effectiveness of the changes" (p. 15).

Under the classroom research frame of reference, then, faculty professionalism is anchored in a process of teaching that has its roots, albeit unacknowledged by Cross, in the traditions of action research, which "is designed to yield practical results that are immediately applicable to a specific situation or problem" (Houston, 1990).

Unlike the scholastic frame of reference, fostering a sense of professionalism on the basis of classroom action research requires relatively little change on the part of colleges themselves. It does not take the teacher out of the classroom. By defining the faculty member's role as classroom researcher along the lines Cross suggests, the Commission on the Future of Community Colleges describes a faculty profession that, while not precluding work on out-of-class scholarly activities, does not threaten the suppositions of those who believe that such activities diminish the faculty member's teaching effectiveness. In this regard, today's emphasis on classroom research reflects the institutional frame of reference prevalent two decades ago; both tie the professional identity of faculty to the college and its teaching emphasis, although today's classroom research movement presupposes no need for specialized graduate training.

Pedagogical Frame of Reference

If faculty are to take responsibility for determining the extent to which their teaching results in desired student learning, they must have a clear idea of what it is that students should know or be able to do as a consequence of instruction. The need to specify desired student outcomes, acknowledged by Cross (1989) as a prerequisite of classroom research, places the faculty member not only in the role of classroom teacher but in the larger role of arbiter of the curriculum. In this role, faculty define the competencies that indicate successful completion of courses and degree programs; in turn, faculty are judged on the basis of the extent to which students demonstrate mastery of those competencies.

During the 1960s, Cohen, Brawer, and Prihoda (1967) argued forcefully for a community college teaching profession built around the discipline of instruction. They stressed faculty attention to the specification, in advance, of cognitive and affective behavioral objectives, to the use of varied instructional media in helping students master course material, and

to the development of a sense of professional responsibility built around documented student learning. Faculty were to be judged solely on the basis of the proportion of students who meet specified goals; hence, traditional modes of instruction would have to be changed. "This approach," they wrote, "differs from the usual one in which the teacher lectures, gives reading assignments, hopes all pupils do well on the examinations, and then cuts a curve of grades across his [or her] classes" (Cohen, Brawer, and Prihoda, 1967, n.p.).

While this vision of the profession never fully emerged, more recent calls for the documentation of student outcomes, emerging in the requirements of regional accrediting agencies, have once again underscored faculty responsibility to effect predetermined changes in students, not simply to cover the s ·ects outlined in course syllabi. Banta (1991) cites several examples of ollege efforts to involve faculty in specifying general education o· ·omes and developing assessment programs that monitor institutional success in leading students to those outcomes. Only through these efforts, she maintains, can institutional outcomes assessment programs succeed. While som· lleges begin planning these programs by selecting or developing as · ent instruments, they in effect place the cart before the horse. "Th2; ot proceed very far along this path," Banta maintains, " . . . without direction from a statement of expected student outcomes. That is, hat do faculty hope students will know and be able to do as a result of ...ir experience in the general education program?" (Banta, 1991, p. 1).

Will faculty able to fulfill this professional role? Much will depend on their ability to define outcomes in ways that allow a measurement of the degree to which students have mastered course material. It will not be enough to agree that students passing a specific course should have "a good grasp" of the material covered in the class or that graduates should have certain attributes, such as critical thinking skills. Broad educational goals are useful, but faculty will need more specific measures that take the form of behavioral objectives, outlining both what students should know or be able to do and what criteria will be used to measure student success.

Conclusion

How should community college faculty define their profession? When asked, most faculty members would undoubtedly respond that teaching is their primary function and hence defines their role within the community college. A national survey conducted by the United States Department of Education in 1987 found that full-time community college faculty spent approximately 72 percent of their professional time in teaching or teaching-related tasks, compared to only 52 percent for full-time faculty at four-year institutions (Russell and others, 1990). In a subsequent national

survey conducted in 1989 by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (1990), 92 percent of the responding faculty from community colleges indicated that teaching effectiveness should be the primary criterion for promotion.

Agreeing that teaching is what community college faculty do, however, says little about what community college faculty take responsibility for and hence who the faculty are as professionals. Without a defined scope of responsibility, teachers are hired hands who, because they hold specified credentials (usually the master's degree), are qualified to teach certain subjects for a specified number of hours per week. Dedication, hard work in the face of large teaching loads, and commitment to the student may all be conceded as qualities of most community college instructors. But within the community college professoriat, the gap between employment and membership in an identified profession has yet to be bridged. As Cohen and Brawer (1989) suggest, "community college instruction has become a career in its own right. Its flowering awaits a more fully developed professional consciousness on the part of its practitioners" (p. 90).

What can be done to foster this professional consciousness? Preservice education will be of little help; the master's degree within the discipline has long been established as the credential of entry into the profession, and specialized programs designed specifically for community college teachers are rare. Thus, the answer must come from within the institution and from the development of a college culture that has high expectations of its faculty. Before this culture can be developed, at least two barriers must be overcome.

The first is the recognition that the frames of reference discussed in this chapter are not mutually exclusive. For example, a commitment to the comprehensive mission need not preclude active involvement in scholarship; similarly, classroom research techniques are an ideal complement to course and curriculum development based on behavioral objectives. All may help to build a sense of profession. But when one is set against the other, discussions of faculty professionalism revolve around false dichotomies between activities (such as teaching versus research) rather than focusing on the ends toward which faculty work.

The second, noted by Cohen and Brawer (1989), is the tendency of the community college to be regarded as a passive agency that, like libraries and parks, prides itself on the number of clients served rather than on specified ways in which those clients are helped or changed. This aspect of the institutional culture is a legacy of the historical focus on access, which has often overshadowed concern for student outcomes. Without a delineation of the institution's responsibility toward students (other than to leave the doors of education open), faculty responsibilities will remain unclear. If the institution aims for high enrollments only, then the view of faculty as hired hands teaching a set number of hours will suffice. But if the

institution hopes to lead students to the completion of curricula within defined fields of study, then faculty have larger responsibilities as practitioners within those fields of study. They must, as Ratcliff (1991) points out, help students understand the ways of knowing within their disciplines and thus ensure that students become able practitioners themselves. This demands that faculty understand the requisites of successful practice within the discipline, that they are able to define these requisites in the form of desired student outcomes, and that their teaching incorporates mechanisms to determine whether those outcomes have been achieved. Thus, faculty understanding of the discipline through active scholarship, a requisite of the scholastic framework, operates hand in hand with the pedagogical imperatives of classroom research and outcomes assessment.

The institution, discipline-based scholarship, classroom practice and research, and the specification of student outcomes all define the parameters of faculty work. Each poses a framework around which a collective professional identity might be formed. Yet each is insufficient as a basis for professional responsibility toward the student. Making a commitment to the institution and to its mission of serving all who can benefit leaves open the question of what those benefits are and how the college will know that those benefits have been gained. Stressing teaching and classroom research without reference to scholarship in the discipline trivializes the educational process, stripping it of the disciplinary context that shapes the ways of knowing that students will need as they pursue careers or further education. Emphasizing scholarship without reference to the constraints of the community college and its obligation to serve large, diverse student populations may unduly impose a definition of scholarship that, while appropriate at the university, leaves little room for scholarly participation on the part of community college faculty. The professional identity of faculty must, in the final analysis, incorporate all four frames of reference within an institution that bases its merits on predefined student outcomes.

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An innovative professional development model is needed to meet the current and future challenges of the community college teaching assignment.

To Walk on Water: Challenges for Community College Faculty

Nancy Armes LeCroy, Kay McClenney

The image of "walking on water" underscores the tensions and paradoxes implicit in a community college teaching assignment. On the one hand, the image suggests the extraordinary demands placed on community college teachers. On the other, it ironically connotes unreasonable—indeed, misguided—expectations. Both aspects of this image are informative, for they represent a community college dilemma: faculty are too often cast in a role that is at once expected and unattainable.

There is another connotation to the "walking on water" image that may be even more unsettling. Those who walk on water are depicted as meeting enormous challenges in an effortless manner; they show little anxiety, are totally in control. To put it crudely, walking on water should be "no sweat." The danger in creating an expectation of total competence, however, is that it makes both new and experienced professionals less likely to share concerns, admit weaknesses, and seek out growth experiences.

This chapter attempts to demythologize the community college teaching assignment. Many of the insights offered here grow out of the testimony and deliberation of the Commission on the Future of Community Colleges (1988). Specifically, the chapter will describe three underlying challenges that make this teaching assignment demanding, it will suggest several broad categories of innovation that can help faculty meet these challenges, and, perhaps most important, it will propose a professional development model.

Teaching Challenges

Community colleges remain complex and growing institutions. They enroll almost half the undergraduates in higher education. They have

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disproportionately large numbers of minority, low-income, and first-generation college students. They offer financially feasible education at a time when fiscal constraints for college-going populations are painfully real. In a more than symbolic way, they continue to open the doors of higher education to a broad contingent of Americans who otherwise would not have the opportunity to obtain this education.

In *Building Communities: A Vision for a New Century*, the Commission on the Future of Community Colleges (1988) proclaimed community colleges to be primarily teaching institutions, a point of view clearly endorsed across the nation. Shortly after the report was published, 150 prominent community college leaders were asked to prioritize the report's sixty-three recommendations. They chose as their first priority "Insist that good teaching be the hallmark of the community college movement, with students encouraged to be active, cooperative learners." As a statement of primary mission, however, one to be rallied around, this places enormous responsibility on a faculty who, in their zeal to walk on water, may underestimate the challenges of the assignment and thus jeopardize their long-term productivity. There are three underlying conditions on community college campuses that form the principal challenges.

Diversity. The dominant characteristic of community college students is their diversity. They are diverse in skill, background, race or ethnicity, age, and purpose. In the commission's testimony, faculty acknowledged this reality, paying particular attention to issues related to diversity of skills. It remains common, for example, for faculty to deal with six or more reading levels in a single class.

But there are other, more subtle variations. Over the last few years, the Dallas County Community College District (DCCCD) has documented the college-going patterns of its students. Recent high school graduates are more likely to be full-time students (one-third), to state transfer as their educational goal, and to reenroll from fall to spring semesters. Paradoxically, they are also more at risk of making unsatisfactory grades and of dropping out. In other words, although their college-going patterns are more traditional, their academic success is at greater risk. Older students (two-thirds) in the DCCCD tend to take fewer courses, to stop out for a semester or longer, and to have more diverse reasons for attending. On the other hand, they are more likely to complete successfully the courses in which they enroll.

Research offers a good bit of cogent help in dealing with dilemmas of diversity. Active learning, carefully conceived small-group work, peer interaction, and frequent opportunities for feedback from the instructor are basic tenets. Strong assessment, advisement, and placement processes and strong developmental studies programs can lessen the skill diversity in one class. And once extreme variations in skill level have been minimized, other forms of diversity in the classroom have the potential to enhance learning.

Fundamentally, however, dealing effectively with student diversity means that faculty must become managers as well as teachers in the learning environment. This is an unfamiliar role for many, one with few models in the teachers' previous academic experiences.

Fragmentation. As a pervasive presence at community colleges, part-timers, whether students or faculty, are more difficult to engage meaningfully in teaching and learning. More than two-thirds of community college students are part time; approximately 60 percent of community college faculty are part time, typically teaching 25 to 30 percent of the courses offered. There are also other factors that contribute to the splintered nature of the teaching environment. Reverse transfers, stop-outs, and concurrent enrollments are common and defeat the stair-step approach laid out in conventional degree plans and programs of study.

Research-based suggestions about how to accelerate learning are often not easy to apply precisely because of this lack of continuity. What may work for residential, full-time, young, well-prepared liberal arts students will not work in the same ways with adult, commuting, part-time, employed community college students carrying family responsibilities. The Commission on the Future of Community Colleges was greatly concerned with this splintering of the college community. In an institution largely populated by part-time participants with divergent objectives and substantial outside commitments, the ability to build connections becomes critical.

Demand. The most recurrent theme heard by the commission from community college faculty was that they were overextended: classes were too large; time was too short; there were too many essays to grade and too many "problem students" with whom to cope.

In order to meet the demands presented by open enrollments, community colleges have built economies of scale. Funding is driven by enrollments, and this creates an incentive to attract large numbers of students, with few exclusions made for any reason. A typical faculty teaching load is five courses, and instances of overload of two or more courses are common. In addition, faculty undertake significant leadership assignments outside the classroom in order to improve campus life, renew the curriculum, and have a say in decisions that have an impact on the academic environment of the college. In short, faculty are institutional foot soldiers, carrying out the college's comprehensive mission.

The most debilitating feature of these demands on time and professional energy is that they mitigate against innovation and development. When faculty and administrators are overextended, their work becomes more routine and less open to professional growth.

Building Community Through Innovations

It may not be an oversimplification to suggest that the challenges represented by the diversity, fragmentation, and demands of the community

college teaching environment can best be met through the building of community. In fact, this became the thesis of the Commission on the Future of Community Colleges' (1988) report, with commissioners coming to believe that developing a capacity for relatedness within the college was not only possible but profoundly necessary for the long-term health of the institution and its professionals.

When we list the concepts that are key for the decade ahead—such as human resource development, interdependent relationships, multinational corporations, and interdisciplinary partnerships—the emphasis on relatedness becomes clear. So, too, does the fact that these are not concepts best taught, learned about, or managed in isolation, without the benefit of each other's expertise, without understanding that people, ideas, and structures are intertwined. In the specific case of the community college teaching environment, there are key areas of innovation with great potential to solve diversity, fragmentation, and demand issues because, in each case, they help to build community. Just as important, each of the following broad categories of innovation represents a major opportunity for faculty development.

Building Community Through Assessment. The commission identified the classroom as the best place available to faculty for building community among students. Because it provides prime-time contact with commuter students, the effectiveness of what occurs in the community college classroom is critical. For this reason, the commission was drawn to Cross's (1989) concept of classroom research. In its simplest form, classroom research is an ongoing assessment dialogue between students and faculty to determine what students are learning. The frequent assessment of learning, especially when embedded in the course, provides a conversation, as it were, about teaching and learning, with all conversants feeling more involved, more valued, more in touch with their strengths and weaknesses.

The assessment of student learning (for example, in the major program or in general education) also serves to build community outside the classroom. It encourages faculty within and across disciplines to engage in conversations about desired learning outcomes, about the cumulative impact of courses, and about the meaning of a certificate or degree. The conversations inevitably produce, we have learned, a greater coherence in curriculum and a strengthened connection among faculty peers.

Our colleges have only begun to discover what it means to build community through the assessment of learning, but the exploration promises to be an exciting, stimulating one.

Building Community by Hearing Different Voices. Because the community college faces the challenge of dealing with diversity, it makes sense that administrators and teachers should develop expertise in hearing and honoring different student voices. Then classroom conversations can extend to matters of gender, race, ethnicity, age, background, and experi-

ence. Faculty begin to consider how they can translate these different voices into a curriculum that includes rather than excludes, into learning dialogues in which participants listen differently and find ways to acknowledge the value of each other's perspectives.

Cross (1991) has recently suggested that we are shifting the paradigms that structure higher education, moving from the unidimensional to the multidimensional and transformational. She points out that we need to move from one perspective, to multiple perspectives, to an interacting of perspectives that transforms differences into something more than the sum of their parts. Cross suggests that we are struggling in the second phase, clumsily groping for ways to move to the third, where we can transform our learning environments.

In four-year teaching settings, the ability to hear different student voices often gets bogged down in discussions of the literary canon or academic freedom. These debates verge on the effete for community college faculty who daily have multiple opportunities, as well as an organizational mandate, to hear these different voices. For community colleges, the pressing need is to find ways to modify the curriculum and structure learning to affirm differences in race, class, and gender. For example, faculty need ways to consider cultural differences in the key matters of grading and learning style. The professional development canvas remains mostly unpainted as we explore ways to use our expertise and experience to honor these different voices.

Building Community Through the Structure of Learning. Those dynamics that tend to fragment and deplete faculty and students and thus keep them from feeling connected to the learning community may be eliminated or diminished when learning experiences are differently structured. There are a number of innovations to be explored in the next decade that reconfigure the learning community into smaller, more focused groups, typically with schedules that provide longer blocks of time in order to incorporate a greater variety of learning activities. Whether they take the form of linked courses, learning clusters, coordinated study programs, or honors programs, these structures allow for greater intellectual interaction and curricular coherence. They promote the understanding of issues that cross subject-matter boundaries. They promote active learning, student retention, and faculty development. They build community through both process and content.

The professional development benefits of such restructuring are obvious. Faculty work in teams that include each other and their students. They push themselves to find relevance and relationship across disciplines. They explore and develop through collaboration.

Building Community Through the Skills That Are Taught. In 1990, Anthony Carnevale and a research team completed a three-year study commissioned by the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) and the U.S. Department of Labor (Carnevale, Gainer, and Meltzer,

1990). Their research produced a now-familiar listing of skills that employers desire: basic reading, writing, and computation; listening and speaking; self-esteem and interpersonal skills; problem solving and creative thinking.

In many cases we have good strategies for strengthening skills across the curriculum, with writing, listening, computing, critical thinking, and, in several pioneering cases, speaking across the curriculum. But these strategies represent only a beginning. In matters of skill development, more faculty need to be involved and more stratagems employed.

Ironically, our classrooms may currently offer the least help in building students' human relations skills, such as how to seek and accept criticism from peers, how to solicit help from and give credit to others when appropriate, and how to negotiate in a difficult situation. In a similar vein, Robert Reich (1989) describes the need to enhance students' responsibility skills—those skills that encourage taking initiative in learning and developing the capacity for creative thought and problem solving. Students who take responsibility for their own learning know how to experiment, investigate, and analyze in ways that are self-directed and that achieve complex learning goals.

Teaching in ways that promote these various levels of skill development remains all too rare. Practice in real-life situations (or carefully simulated ones) and opportunities to tackle problems as a team are examples of teaching strategies more likely to encourage across-the-curriculum skill development. Honing such efforts represents an extraordinary opportunity for professional growth among faculty.

Professional Development Assumptions

There is no great mystery about what makes for a satisfying work environment for faculty—indeed, for all community college staff. In today's work environment, adults again and again express their desire for some degree of variety and choice so that work experiences are not unnecessarily degrading, boring, or limiting. They want more involvement and connection with one another and with the larger purpose of the organization. They want to continue to learn throughout a career in order both to renew themselves and to avoid obsolescence. They also want some degree of self-determination, some degree of coherence, and some degree of recognition. Faculty further report that their professional motivation is enhanced when they have strong administrative support—that is, when they are given time, help, and flexibility in order to learn and grow.

Several assumptions seem to offer the most benefit for professional development. First, it is reasonable to assume that our faculty pursue community college teaching as a career, not just as a short-term position. The wave of anticipated retirements speaks of a cadre of professionals who

have chosen to remain in the faculty role and suggests that any professional development framework worth its salt must consider issues of longevity. A second assumption is that most community college faculty are highly self-motivated and come to the profession primarily for intrinsic rather than extrinsic reasons. According to faculty testimony (Commission on the Future of Community Colleges, 1988), they choose this career because they love teaching, because they love their discipline, because they want to make a difference, because they understand the powerful role of education in society. A final assumption is that new faculty, particularly those entering a profession directly from a graduate school experience, have had little opportunity to prepare for the community college teaching assignment. Rather, they have been well prepared in a discipline and often may have framed an image of teaching that does not take into account the diversity, fragmentation, or demands that they will face in the community college environment.

Professional Development Guidelines

Experience and research suggest several general program guidelines that have clear implications for community college faculty development:

1. Development needs to be developmental—that is, it needs to be seen from a career perspective and thus be goal oriented.
2. Development needs to deal with the real-world issues that face faculty, particularly with those issues that are confronted in the classroom.
3. Development needs to emphasize peer interaction.
4. Development needs to include mentoring, not so much by one, but by many individuals all chosen for different reasons.
5. Development needs to include honest, recurrent feedback.

A Professional Development Model

Working from these assumptions and guidelines, we can now propose a model for professional development that confronts the challenges and incorporates the innovations discussed in this chapter. Such a model would have the characteristics described in the subsections that follow.

Longitudinal. First, development opportunities should be placed on a continuum that allows for varying interests and other fluctuations over an entire career. The initiation of new faculty, for example, suggests the need for building camaraderie, creating an individual and collective sense of the community college mission, and sharing expertise. Thus, for new faculty, an orientation phase is critical, and it should include a variety of learning opportunities. Midcareer faculty are more likely to have concerns about staying current. They are ready to experiment in substantive ways with new

methodologies and content. They may need a change of scenery. Senior faculty often discover a deep-felt desire to share their expertise, to mentor, to finish a body of work that will leave a legacy to the institution and to those who will follow.

Finding ways to respond to the phases implicit in a career is a key element for community college faculty development.

Discipline Based, Colleague Supported. With a structure in place that encourages a longer view, the opportunities for substantive interaction with one's supervisor, discipline and department peer groups, and likely mentors become much more apparent. Together, faculty members and colleagues can look at needs and interests, chart a course that is both based on current issues and oriented toward innovation, and then consider time and resource constraints that apply to the next several years. In this way opportunities for development can be more logically choreographed because there is time to prepare.

It is worth stressing that a pivotal piece of faculty development most naturally occurs within a discipline or department. Academic disciplines not only command career-long loyalties but stress distinctive instructional approaches. Business and law rely on the case method. The sciences require laboratory experiences and demonstrations. Mathematics instructors frequently model ways of solving problems for their students. Writing instructors use peer exchange and feedback. Angelo and Cross (in press) suggest that the benefits of classroom research can be amplified when the examination occurs within a discipline or department. To facilitate this dialogue, they have designed a teaching goals inventory as a way for faculty to begin the conversation. If a shared understanding of goals for teaching and learning can be achieved, then faculty can develop materials and programs that target these goals.

Of course, as suggested in this chapter, creating community through teaching and learning across disciplines is important, but a logical place for many faculty to build a community capable of supporting a career-long professional journey is within their own core discipline. Here mentoring as well as peer interaction can occur over time and be supported by several colleagues rather than by a single individual.

Feedback Oriented. Finally, long-term professional development based on collegial interaction offers more opportunity for useful, illuminating feedback. Feedback strategies can vary depending on career phase and must draw on a supportive professional community. New faculty can participate in initial assessments to learn more about the skills, attributes, and style they bring to the teaching assignment. They can learn about the best ways to get feedback from students. Experienced faculty can structure the feedback they receive in order to help them refurbish, refine, or experiment. There are a number of ways to provide longitudinal feedback and analysis, especially with peers and mentors to help. With feedback a

priority, there is also greater incentive for self-assessment, particularly through the development of portfolios that highlight accomplishments over time and from a number of different perspectives.

Such feedback processes honor a teaching career as a journey deserving of careful, thoughtful support.

Conclusion

There is nothing easy about the concepts presented here. The challenges and the innovations—and the professional development structure that takes both of them into account—are all enormously demanding. Perhaps it is the very nature of these demands that makes them worthy of a career path. While they ensure that faculty will avoid any misunderstandings about whether they must "walk on water," they also give evidence that community college teaching is an exciting, rewarding vocation.

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Although community college instructors have an interest in strategic roles outside of teaching, such as those involved with classroom research, planning, assessing student outcomes, and so on, they are frequently incapable of asserting leadership in areas where they, as teachers, assign great value.

Empowering Faculty Through Redefined Work Roles

Richard L. Alfred, Vincent Linder

A continuing theme in articles, books, and reports concerned with faculty supply and demand is the graying of college and university faculty. Most analysts believe that there is a need for more and better-prepared instructors due mostly to the fact that a large cohort of professors hired in the 1960s—which were expansion years for community colleges—will be retiring together (Bowen and Schuster, 1986; Mooney, 1989). This need could become even more acute if community college enrollments continue to grow, causing the gap to widen between faculty demand and supply. As new learners enter the system, fewer full-time faculty will be available to teach them, thereby leaving administrators little choice but to use stop-gap hiring strategies to correct the imbalance.

At a time when community colleges need more and better-prepared instructors, it appears that academic administrators are encountering a stumbling block. While institutions are beset by such problems as increasing student diversity and accelerating demands for accountability, serious planning has yet to begin for training new faculty. Stop-gap hiring will fill vacant positions, but it will not solve problems posed by students with different learning needs. Tomorrow's teachers will need to be acutely aware of changing markets and changing expectations for learning. They will need to incorporate these changes into the curriculum and develop creative approaches to teaching. Community colleges can no longer afford instructors who are mere purveyors of information, teachers who care little about students and devote little time to class preparation. Our colleges require committed teachers who are actively involved in planning and

student assessment. The issue is not so much one of locating and hiring more faculty as it is one of hiring better faculty.

In this chapter, we will argue that faculty are products of their background and experience. Prospective faculty who arrive at full-time teaching positions through graduate education or an extended tour of duty as part-time instructors are already well steeped in a tradition of passive learner involvement and disengagement. And though many have an interest in doing more—in conducting classroom research, academic planning, assessing student outcomes, and so on—they are frequently incapable of asserting leadership in areas where they, as teachers, assign great value. Only through a combination of carefully planned preservice and in-service education can we hope to address this problem. The first part of this chapter describes the milieu of disengagement that has come to characterize faculty-institution relationships on many campuses. The next presents a new role and workload definition for faculty, and the last describes a strategy for preservice education that can be used to strengthen the commitment of instructors to students and the institution.

Dissatisfaction, Alienation, and Isolation

In *Habits of the Heart*, a provocative book examining the pivotal values underlying American life, Bellah and Associates (1985) argue that individualism in society may have grown cancerous, cutting us off from responsibility for the common good and from deeper sources of meaning in our work. Their thesis suggests that while individualists may experience improved circumstances in life, they may not experience greater satisfaction in their work.

Can this thesis be applied to community college faculty? Several prominent features of the organizational culture in community colleges suggest that it can: a lack of clarity and understanding concerning faculty and administrative roles; a fragmented faculty divided along lines of gender, age, teaching area, background experience, and part-time versus full-time status; a growing frustration with a diverse student body that does not readily respond to traditional pedagogical techniques; a lack of involvement in strategic decisions that affect programs and curricula; an inability to move from one institution to another, or between programs in the same institution, without economic consequences.

These attributes contribute to a condition of malaise or alienation from work. Alienation for community college faculty can take many forms.

Powerlessness. This is a feeling or belief shared by faculty that their behavior cannot determine the occurrence of the specific learning outcomes that they seek with students. Faculty do not participate directly in budget decisions. They do not have the capacity to link program needs with resources. This sense of powerlessness is sustained through insufficient

research evidence about long- and short-term student outcomes. When information documenting the outcomes of teaching is absent over an extended period of time, faculty satisfaction cannot be nurtured through positive feedback.

Meaninglessness. This form of alienation is characterized by the expectation among instructors that meaningful predictions about future plans and resources cannot be made. When faculty are uncertain of resource conditions or of interrelationships between resources and programmatic decisions, minimal standards for clarity in decision making will not be met. Faculty cannot choose appropriately among alternative plans for courses and curricula without information.

Normlessness. The expectation among faculty is that institutionally unapproved behavior is required to achieve individual and group goals. Normlessness develops when commonly held values, such as academic freedom, collegiality, and job security, are submerged in a welter of administrators' competing interests. An important function of management is to provide an environment for sharing ideas and information. When administrative interests prevail, faculty attention may be focused on survival—a condition that may inhibit effective teaching.

Isolation. Through this process of detachment, faculty begin to assign a low value to goals and beliefs that are highly valued by administrators. Some indicators of isolation are administrative value orientations that favor efficiency in decision making in contrast to faculty values that favor broad input, as well as administrative interests in classroom instruction that focus on productivity and student retention in contrast to faculty interests that focus on academic quality.

Self-Estrangement. This form of alienation concerns the degree of faculty dependence upon professional rewards that lie outside of teaching. The instructor who works merely for salary and job security and who assigns passing grades to students only for their effect on retention will experience self-estrangement. Self-estrangement occurs when faculty no longer experience teaching as a self-rewarding activity that engages them. Teaching is not valued in itself, nor is learning; they are only valued in terms of the income they generate, since this income enables faculty to pursue other interests (Alfred, 1986).

Inherent in the work of teaching are properties that promote faculty isolation and individualism (Case, 1985). Commonly, colleges deploy instructors in classrooms that, though physically side by side, rarely connect in respect to the work of teaching and learning. As Case puts it, "over the generations of the community college, there has been little in the ethos of teaching by way of vibrant and compelling norms and values to urge teachers to initiate and maintain colleague networks or support systems conducive to the sharing of knowledge and experience. Past efforts

at innovation and experiment in curriculum, instructional procedures, integrated programs, or special subunits within the college have run up against tendencies of isolation and individualization" (p. 83).

Decline in Faculty Influence

As complex and demanding as the work of teaching is, little is being done to prepare prospective instructors for community colleges or to assist current faculty in handling problems associated with alienation. Ideally, faculty should play manifold roles in their institutions. They should be not only teachers but also planners, researchers, marketers, evaluators, and innovators. In time, instructors' work may routinely include support functions for teaching, which would involve ongoing interaction with the professional staff responsible for institutional research, marketing, planning, and so forth. Evidence, however, points to a perceived decline in the influence of faculty. A 1980 survey conducted by Teachers College at Columbia University found that less than one-half (44 percent) of responding faculty believed that a "shared-authority" approach to decision making was used at their institution; a similar survey in 1970 found that 64 percent of the faculty believed that a shared-authority approach to decision making was used (Anderson, 1983). According to the 1980 survey, instructors felt a loss of control and perceived that presidents, chancellors, and local politicians were more likely to be making the decisions.

It is not unrealistic to say that effective faculty participation in decision making may never have been part of the management scheme in community colleges. Although opportunities to influence decisions were present when colleges opened, these opportunities do not exist today. As institutions have grown larger and more complex and as resources have grown more scarce, the tendency to centralize decision making at the top of the organization has become irresistible. Faculty are peripheral to the processes of decision making, distanced by the isolating tendencies of their work and the language of collective-bargaining contracts. Excluded by hardening layers of administrative personnel who are themselves moving toward a professionalization of management, faculty are faced with the prospect of growing disengagement and an increasingly adversarial quality in their relationships with administrators (Case, 1985).

Alfred and Linder (1990) described the effects of faculty disengagement in their large-sample research report *Rhetoric to Reality: Effectiveness in Community Colleges:*

- A high percentage of faculty who report that strategic decisions are presently made primarily by executive administrators but should be made by a shared process involving faculty

- An inability to involve faculty in a meaningful way in strategic decisions about programs and curricula
- A planning system that includes no input from faculty on key decisions relating to the allocation of resources.

These beliefs do not differ greatly from one college to another. Two opposing situations now dominate faculty work life in community colleges. One is the desire of many instructors to help their programs grow and to acquire resources. For example, the answer to virtually all questions concerning program vitality is to provide more resources to enable departments to hire more faculty or to purchase better equipment. In contrast, there is also evidence of growing disengagement from programs and teaching. A "design standard" appears to have taken hold in which instructors teach on automatic pilot. They spend the minimum time necessary to meet contract obligations—obligations that get in the way of more attractive work opportunities elsewhere. This standard is blind to such events as diminished state funding, technological advances, and increasing diversity of the student population. While lip service is given to innovation and change by instructors, the operating reality for many departments and the faculty within them is continuation of the status quo.

Redefining Faculty Roles

We opened this chapter by noting the forms of alienation that impel faculty to disengage themselves from students and the institution, but there is a way to revitalize and reengage faculty. We could redefine the work of teaching to include activities that improve faculty control over resources and student learning outcomes. Table 6.1 shows how each of the forms of alienation might be addressed through a broader definition of faculty work roles and the resulting increase in faculty empowerment.

The keys to avoiding alienation come down to two action words implicit in each work role in this table: *participation* and *accountability*. Active participation is the process of involvement and sharing that occurs when faculty are plugged into the decision-making cycle. This does not mean that faculty have the final say in strategic decisions. Rather, it means that they become involved in important activities such as planning and student outcomes assessment; these, in turn, set the parameters for decision making. For example, as instructors generate information about employer needs and student outcomes through ongoing research at the program level, they shape decisions about resources that will be allocated to the program. At the same time, they identify changes in courses, curricula, and instructional techniques that are needed to improve the program.

Table 6.1. Redefined Work Roles for Faculty

Form of Alienation	*Faculty Work Role*	*Empowerment*
Powerlessness: the expectation by faculty that they cannot determine the occurrence of specific learning outcomes or reinforcements they seek from students	Responsibility for program-level research on student needs and outcomes related to instruction	Instructors will experience increased satisfaction through information about the effects of teaching on students.
Meaninglessness: the belief that meaningful predictions about courses and programs cannot be made because administrators control the resources used in decision making	Responsibility for strategic planning at the program level, including enrollment projections, SWOTS analysis, and resource requirements	Instructors will develop a "stakeholder mentality" as they assume responsibility for determining the future direction of programs and curricula.
Normlessness: the expectation that institutionally unapproved behavior is required to achieve important goals	Faculty responsibility for program planning and assessment institutionalized through inclusion in the collective-bargaining contract	Instructors will be rewarded for work outside of teaching, which leads to improvement in student outcomes.
Isolation: the process of detachment experienced by faculty who assign low value to goals and beliefs that are highly valued by administrators	Faculty involvement in strategic decisions related to programs, enrollment, and resources expanded to facilitate goal concensus with administrators	Instructors will gain insight into important issues confronting the institution, enabling them to build a shared vision of the future with administrators.
Self-Estrangement: the inability of faculty to experience teaching as a self-rewarding activity because other activities are viewed as more important	Effective teaching recognized through rewards that are valued by faculty	Instructors will assign greater importance to the work of teaching with a resulting gain in self-esteem.

Participation must be accompanied by accountability to important publics. Responsibility for the performance of an academic program or support service is never borne by teachers alone; therefore, accountability is a questionable proposition. The effective instructor must have a strong concern about the quality of service rendered to "customers" (students, employers, other faculty teaching courses in the same sequence, and so on) through the courses he or she teaches and the curriculum as a whole. Teachers need to take responsibility for activities that provide information about what "customers" want and how well the program is doing. In the best-run companies, customer satisfaction is the highest priority. Constant assessment is the key to satisfied customers. Instructors are not exempt from assessment—rather, they are its key players.

Redefining faculty roles is not enough to ensure effective teaching. We must understand that the work of teaching takes place within a structured process that is reinforced by collective bargaining. The collective-bargaining contract provides the job description for community college instructors. Along with presenting a framework for faculty roles and responsibilities, it can also serve as a springboard for innovation, injecting faculty into roles cooperatively worked out with administrators in the bargaining process. Indeed, a climate conducive to innovation is one in which rigid differentiations between faculty and administrators are reduced. A clear picture of innovative faculty roles inside and outside of the classroom, arrived at through collective bargaining, is essential. In this way, collective bargaining is a dynamic process that cuts across institutional boundaries and fosters creative roles and endeavors that are understood and supported by faculty and administrators alike. A restatement of faculty roles and responsibilities in the collective-bargaining contract is perhaps the most important step in faculty role definition.

Designing Preservice Programs

How do we prepare instructors who function effectively in a multiplicity of roles? How do we cultivate an understanding of meaningful participation in governance and develop needed skills in planning, assessment, and research? How do we foster educational entrepreneurship in instructors—that is, a focus on customer service and marketing mixed with a more conventional focus on product and process?

The multidimensional, multiskilled instructors we envision begin their preparation for teaching before they arrive on campus. Exposure to campus governance, advanced training in a discipline, familiarity with diverse "customers," and experience in classroom teaching are important components of preservice education. Assuming that preservice education is important but knowing that it is costly, how might we design a program that works for instructors and administrators alike? One approach would

be to view preparation as essential in five areas of faculty involvement with the institution: formal education, instructional leadership, customer service, decision making and decision support, and classroom teaching. The objectives of preservice education in each area are described in the subsections that follow.

Academic Preparation. Preparation for teaching takes place in a graduate program at the master's level, which includes cross-discipline training in a content area, teacher preparation, and community college education. Content area course work should include two concentrations to provide flexibility. Teacher preparation course work should cover teaching methods, curriculum design, learning styles, and instructional technology. Community college course work should focus on institutional history and culture, philosophy, and management systems. A major applied paper that addresses an issue of importance to a specific community college and that fosters a partnership between the prospective instructor and the college should be encouraged.

Instructional Leadership. This aspect of preservice training involves forming a liaison with a qualified full-time faculty member who serves as a mentor to assist the prospective instructor with organizational assimilation and with understanding institutional expectations and norms. Mentoring should begin before degree completion and continue for some time after full-time employment has begun in order to ensure a smooth transition between learning and doing.

Customer Service. This entails placement with an employer, transfer college or university, or community agency that regularly uses the services of the community college or hires or accepts the college's graduates. Choice of placement would depend on the intended field of teaching, but the goal of the placement would be to provide firsthand exposure to the needs and concerns of an important constituent group.

Decision Support. In this area, the instructor-in-training is exposed to administrative systems, processes, and norms through a rotated internship in various community college administrative areas, such as student services, marketing, planning and budgeting, and assessment.

Classroom Teaching. Here, the preservice program would provide extended contact with instructors and students through the trainee's involvement in classroom activities. Involvement should include lecture preparation and presentation, small-group discussion, test construction and administration, tutorial assistance, and classroom management. Classroom teaching should begin early in advanced degree programs and continue throughout the program.

Table 6.2 presents a list of faculty attributes and training strategies that should be part of preservice education. While this list is not exhaustive, it does show the wide range of roles that can be performed by instructors in a progressive college. It also shows that multiple preservice strategies are required to prepare instructors. Unfortunately, at a time when instructors

Table 6.2. Dimensions of Preservice Training

Faculty Attribute	*Training Strategies*				
	Theory	*Internship/Skill Training*			*Externship/ Outreach*
	Formal Education	*Classroom Teaching*	*Instructional Leadership*	*Decision Support*	*Customer Service*
Role Awareness	X	X	X	X	X
Mission Comprehension	X	X	X		
Discipline Knowledge	X				
Curriculum Design	X	X	X		
Instructional Technology	X	X			
Instructional Techniques	X	X	X		
Classroom Management	X	X	X		
Program Administration			X		
Strategic Planning	X		X	X	
Research Methods	X			X	
Marketing Skills				X	X
Student Performance and Outcomes Assessment	X			X	X
Program Performance Assessment	X		X	X	X
Assessment of Customer Needs and Satisfaction			X	X	X
Understanding and Involvement in Governance			X	X	

need encouragement to assume multiple roles, they are also the target of efforts to confine their work to the classroom. Governors, legislators, and state auditors in several states are moving to determine how much time full-time instructors spend in class with students. Surveys of faculty workloads have been completed in Mississippi, New York, and Virginia (Cage, 1991). The Arizona Higher Education Advisory Board and the state auditor in North Carolina are beginning similar studies. These studies are based on the assumption that teachers must be engaged as much as possible in classroom instruction in order to be doing their job.

Conclusion

For those who believe that the work of teaching extends beyond the classroom into governance, planning, and customer service, the questions are how can we prepare instructors with skills in these areas and how can we be sure that broadly prepared faculty will be better teachers. Those of us who share concerns about the quality of academic programs and their effects on "customers" must begin to confront the fact that instructors may not be effectively prepared through in-service and preservice training programs to contribute to quality. And some, perhaps many, may like things the way they are. Professional development for expanded roles involves time, effort, and commitment. Faculty and administrators, without really reflecting on it, have retreated from the more vigorous arena of professional development to the contentious and binding arena of collective bargaining. In the meantime, decisions about college goals, priorities, and resources continue uninfluenced by the parties principally engaged in teaching: instructors and their students.

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Faculty development programs need to encourage instructors to learn from their students how to increase teaching effectiveness and improve learning.

Down from the Podium: Preparing Faculty for the Learner-Centered Classroom

Melissa Sue Kort

Community college faculty find themselves discussing or being told how to improve not just "teaching" but "teaching and learning." This compound expression arises from two powerful changes over the last decade: the increasingly diverse student populations entering college since the open-door policies of the midcentury were instituted and the inception of the faculty development movement, which has come about, in part, to help faculty address the needs and challenges of those new, heterogeneous, and often underprepared students.

"Teaching and learning" as a two-part concept is not a balanced one; in recognition of the central fact that teaching can only be called successful when it is evaluated in relationship to learning, "learning" is the privileged term. If students are not learning, teaching is not occurring; I am reminded of the tree falling in the forest or of one hand clapping. Out of this attention to teaching's relationship to learning, even in such lofty arenas as the university, a new paradigm has arisen: the learner-centered classroom. This model assumes that the learner, not the teacher, stands at the heart of all classroom activities and of the text. The learner-centered classroom has entered the ring as the newest perspective for faculty development—and hence, for debate.

My purpose here is not to enter that debate but to examine some of its implications for faculty development. I begin with a concern that most faculty currently teaching chose this career because of an admiration for the people behind the podium, the teachers or professors on whom they

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decided to model their futures. I know I did, and scores of anecdotal reports I have heard over the last fifteen years lead me to believe that a large number of my colleagues did as well. However, I have learned, mostly through trial and error, that the classrooms in which I teach are not similar to the ones in which I learned, and the students I face need a different sort of teacher than I did, one who comes down from the podium to learn how to teach from the learners themselves.

Here are the questions that dominate this chapter. Given the current realities of our teaching lives, how do we learn to provide what Cross (1976) calls "education for each"? "We can have educational equality and excellence for all," Cross maintains, "if we can provide maximum opportunity for each student to develop fully his or her talents" (p. 6). What relationship does that concern for individuals have to a broader concern in our colleges for "community," as discussed in such widely divergent places as *Building Communities: A Vision for a New Century* (Commission on the Future of Community Colleges, 1988) and the work of Palmer (1987)? How do the current catchphrases of *critical thinking* and *collaborative learning* and even *writing across the curriculum* fit here? How can we encourage faculty to examine closely the recent literature that describes the diverse students they teach, from different learning styles (for example, Kolb, 1984) to gender differences (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule, 1986; Gilligan, 1982) to ethnic or racial differences? What kinds of faculty development activities, focusing on improving learning by improving teaching, could address these issues? How? And why?

Learning New Tricks

Let me begin with the assumption that teachers can learn to develop the skills and techniques needed to address the always-shifting challenges in their classrooms. Most community college instructors have survived by doing just that and, by extension, have taught the educationists a thing or two about teaching and learning.

For examples of some of the key factors that can contribute to improved teaching, we can turn to a few of the descriptions Heath (1983) gives of practices at two schools in the Piedmont Carolinas in the 1970s:

> Simply put, many teachers used the challenge of integration to push themselves into organizing and refining many of the intuition-based practices of observation and teaching they had occasionally used with particularly difficult individual students in their past years of teaching. . . . Integration meant that there would be more students in each class who might not adapt to the usual ways of managing social interactions and doing schoolwork in a classroom. Thus teachers resolved to use the methods and principles of their social science courses to become more

> practiced and more skilled in observing patterns of behavior in groups of children, and determining why and how these differed from the mainstream school ways. All this learning was preparation for the next step—adapting materials and methods to help bring all children closer to a realistic chance for school success (pp. 272–273).
>
> [One teacher] emphasized "traditional" teaching methods . . . but she maintained a steady focus on the fact that students already "read to learn" before they came to school. They read price tags, names and instructions for toys, and notices of upcoming events in school and neighborhoods (p. 289).
>
> In finding ways to make reading and writing make sense to these students, [teachers] had to alter their methods of teaching, but not their standards of judging the mechanics of writing and clarity of writing. They learned to believe that their students could learn, and that they could learn from their students. One teacher summarized this feeling: "the needs are many, the motivation is amazing; and the goal of learning from students is for us to know what they have, not to tell us what they lack" (p. 314).

In observing teachers adjust to radically new student groups, Heath found them "organizing and refining . . . intuition-based practices," using "methods and principles of their social science courses . . . in observing patterns of behavior," focusing on what students already know, altering methods without lowering standards, and believing "that their students could learn, and that they could learn from their students." I find in her report important lessons for community college faculty development activities that aim to prepare faculty for the learner-centered classroom.

Faculty development should not ask faculty to unlearn their skills but to develop what they know by looking at their experience in new ways, exploring new techniques, and discovering more useful frameworks. This might require serious study; teaching and scholarship do not have to be seen as opposing activities (Boyer, 1990; Cross and Angelo, 1988). "Teaching and learning" can describe the concerns of both faculty and students: to teach more effectively, instructors need to learn more about teaching and about how their students learn; to learn more effectively, students need to understand how teaching influences their own learning.

Key Factors for Successful Faculty Development

After studying faculty development programs, Eble and McKeachie (1985) determined that successful programs ensure faculty ownership; are initiated in ways that do not threaten the faculty or increase insecurity; not only

aim at the least effective instructor but also offer opportunities for all faculty; stimulate faculty enthusiasm; create situations in which faculty members feel increased colleague support for investments in teaching and a greater sense that administrators value teaching; enjoy high visibility on campus with both faculty and students; do not demand a permanent investment of additional time; provide training in new skills, not just pep talks; and result in tangible changes leading toward improved student learning. The activities increased interaction and communication among faculty and students in working toward common goals. At the highest degree of success, the program created a better climate for teaching and learning, and commitment to teaching and communicating about teaching became normative.

The programs I will describe here—the Instructional Skills Workshop, classroom research, and small-group instructional feedback—show these characteristics. They avoid threatening faculty self-esteem by respecting the autonomy of instructors, stimulating an internal commitment to change. They recognize that developing new skills often requires letting go of old assumptions that were themselves hard won. Given the demanding workload of community college instructors, these programs offer flexibility and emphasize practical applications. They can be adapted to the particular college's faculty, recognizing that each institution (and within each institution, often each division or department) has developed a unique culture. Above all, they emphasize collaborating with both colleagues and students to improve teaching and learning.

Learning in Community: The Instructional Skills Workshop

In 1978, the British Columbia Ministry of Education sought to create a faculty development program that would address the needs of new faculty, particularly occupational instructors with considerable trade skills and little if any classroom experience. The result—the Instructional Skills Workshop (ISW)—was built on several models, particularly Amidon and Flanders' (1971) interaction analysis and the microteaching process developed at Stanford University (Brown, 1975). In field-testing the new workshop, developers found it garnered enthusiastic response from new and experienced teachers and from occupational as well as liberal arts instructors. Most campuses that offer the ISW today invite all faculty to participate.

The ISW is a twenty-four-hour intensive experience, usually spread across four days, in which one or two faculty trained as facilitators work with five colleagues. At its heart is the minilesson cycle: one participant teaches a ten-minute lesson for the other participants who, as learners, give written and verbal feedback immediately following the completed lesson. Facilitators urge instructors to publish clear learning objectives and em-

phasize participatory learning. Over the course of the workshop, each instructor teaches three lessons and participates as learner and feedback giver for all the other participants' lessons. The lessons are not mock performances; participants are asked to offer actual new learning to the learners they face—their colleagues—so that the feedback they receive is in response to a real learning experience. Often, this leads participants outside of their specialty fields and into other topics, yet participants report that the feedback they receive has direct application to their regular classroom activities.

Varied Themes. In addition, the workshop structure provides an opportunity to introduce "themes," which, depending on the interests of the facilitators, participants, or local college, might range in topic from effective feedback skills, to learning styles and group development, to audiovisual aids. This provides one way in which the ISW can help integrate related activities of a college's faculty development program. For example, one college, having committed itself to a yearlong focus on its students' diversity, included theme sessions on the learning characteristics of the various cultures served. Several colleges award ISW participants with a copy of Cross and Angelo's (1988) *Classroom Assessment Techniques* handbook, in recognition of the concerns shared by the ISW and classroom research.

Theme sessions also alert faculty to some of the guiding principles of the workshop design itself. Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle helps explain how the activity works—from concrete experience (the minilesson), to reflective observation (the written and verbal feedback), to abstract conceptualization (redesign), to active experimentation (presenting the next lesson). Kolb's model also helps explain why feedback, even from such a small group, can vary greatly. I found understanding the cycle so compelling that I now administer Kolb's inventory to my freshman composition students; we then discuss its implications, and I post a grid showing the results. All semester, in a course in which the students' learning styles fall all over the map, the grid on the wall not only reminds me but also alerts them to the challenges I face in teaching such a diverse class. I refer to it often, encouraging students to help me learn how to help them better throughout the semester.

The Instructional Skills Workshop program has grown through what might be called a grass-roots effort. It has spread throughout British Columbia and across Canada. In 1986 California community colleges began to participate, and fifty campuses now offer workshops with their own facilitators. Facilitators have been trained to offer workshops in other states, including Florida (Miami-Dade Community College) and Arizona (Maricopa Community College District). The program has spread to state universities as well. There are even facilitators trained in the United Arab Emirates. Facilitators form a strong network and enjoy several opportunities each year to meet and share experiences, new knowledge, and mutual support.

Faculty Ownership. Why has the Instructional Skills Workshop program enjoyed so much success? I believe it is due primarily to the large emphasis on faculty ownership. After facilitators are trained, the workshop is offered by an institution's own faculty for their colleagues; within the workshop itself, colleagues help colleagues. Time is spent on developing a nonthreatening learning environment that encourages faculty to take risks and try new approaches, and the workshop does not presuppose a "right way" to teach or learn.

That nonthreatening environment is the key to the connection between the ISW and classroom activities. Participants can receive feedback on their teaching and practice new skills without any threat to the integrity and privacy of their classrooms, to their need to present themselves as competent there, or to their authority or autonomy. They can experience how powerfully differing learning styles can affect learning and how useful feedback from learners can be. The learner-centered classroom, faculty come to realize, depends on the teacher's willingness to learn from the learners themselves.

The workshop design is also flexible enough to respond to its participants. As Kerr (1980), the consultant who designed the workshop, noted, "the continuing evolution of the workshop has been the result of an accumulation of small insights and discoveries which have occurred both . . . during a workshop and as a result of quiet reflection completely removed from the workshop setting. . . . In many cases, their simplicity, their practicality, and their originality surprised their authors as they unfolded. But it is these very intuitive insights which have contributed to the continuing evolution and the continuing freshness of the Instructional Skills Program" (pp. 117–118). Morrison (1985) notes that both faculty and administrators express a high level of satisfaction with the results of the workshop.

Above all, the ISW promotes a sense of collegiality and community. Working in a small group, giving and receiving feedback, and articulating their methods, faculty develop skills that can spill over from the workshop experience into improving relationships with students and colleagues, influencing not only the classroom but other college activities, like committee work, as well. Building a community of committed faculty lies at the heart of the enterprise.

Articulating Teaching Knowledge: Classroom Research

Cross and Angelo (1988) describe five basic assumptions of classroom research: (1) improving teaching can improve learning; (2) teachers can improve their teaching by making their goals and objectives explicit and then receiving feedback on how well they achieve those goals and objectives; (3) "the research most likely to improve teaching and learning is that conducted by teachers on questions they themselves have formulated in

response to problems or issues in their own teaching" (p. 2); (4) classroom research can provide powerful motivation for growth and renewal by stimulating inquiry and posing intellectual challenges; (5) classroom research can be done by anyone dedicated to college teaching. The emphasis on improving teaching by clarifying goals and soliciting feedback connects classroom research with the interests of the ISW, but their basic methods differ greatly.

Conducting Classroom Assessment. Classroom research begins with classroom assessment. Cross and Angelo (1988) suggest a variety of techniques for instructors, and they encourage faculty to design their own techniques for asking students in individual classrooms how and how well their teaching is helping students learn. Developing the assessments themselves leads faculty to become more articulate about their expectations in the classroom. The "data" are collected in ways that emphasize group, rather than individual, assessment. Most classroom assessment techniques require some sort of writing, which promotes the basic tenet of the writing-across-the-curriculum movement: writing helps students learn. Here, in brief written responses, students let their instructor know whether or not they are learning, while their anonymity is protected and honest reports are encouraged. I have found that over a semester in which I utilize several classroom assessment techniques, students become increasingly articulate not only about the content of the course but also about what might enhance their learning, which can be useful in their other classes as well. Learning about how they learn best is a crucial element in developing their critical thinking skills.

Promoting Learning. Besides providing often powerful information about what does or does not occur in the classroom, asking students for feedback develops a collaboration between students and instructor to promote learning. The classroom researcher, while taking a "snapshot" of the class as a whole, draws students into a sense of shared responsibility for the success of the class and, by extension, for their own learning. This enriches the meaning of "collaborative learning," which most often describes an act among students. Classroom assessment asks students to collaborate with the instructor to guarantee success. And the process is context specific; it seeks to develop theories about how learning is occurring in a particular classroom at a particular time. Classroom assessment can develop into classroom research when instructors pursue larger questions over a period of time in several classrooms.

For classroom assessment and, by extension, classroom research to remain learner-centered activities, the instructor must do two things: first, report to the students the conclusions that the data suggest and, second, be willing to make at least some of the changes the students' responses indicate. The feedback the students give must be seen as part of a cycle of recognition and adjustment and not as an empty exercise that serves only the instructor's intellectual purposes. If an instructor asks for feedback, he

or she must be willing to respond to it, acknowledging what can be changed and explaining what cannot.

Receiving Training. Training in classroom assessment techniques can be relatively brief—Cross and Angelo's (1988) handbook is helpful—or can be extended into an examination of teaching and learning theories. Most campuses present an initiation workshop of one or two days, followed by regular meetings of pairs and groups of classroom researchers who share their experiences. The workshop and subsequent meetings assist faculty in framing their questions to students and interpreting the data they collect. Classroom assessment stimulates interest in learning about teaching, then encourages faculty to describe their own theories. As Katz and Henry (1988) explain, describing the purposes of their proposal for peer consultation, "professors need not only to know available pedagogical theories; they need also to make their own fresh educational articulations. Such articulations serve a double purpose: (1) they allow one to respond to the individualities of the ever-new students in one's classes, and (2) they make a contribution to developing more sophisticated theory about student and faculty learning. Teachers become practitioners and investigators at the same time" (p. 4).

Classroom research may serve to bridge the gap between teaching and scholarship, both by encouraging faculty to examine teaching theories and by helping them to develop their own. While the workloads of community college instructors have hampered rather than encouraged extended scholarly work, classroom research may lead more individuals to consider the classroom as the most important text for study and analysis. Boyer (1990) asserts that "teaching as a form of scholarship is particularly appropriate for community colleges. . . . If the concept of 'teacher-researcher' proves to be a field of research in which community college professionals engage, then this approach to research may well emerge as the most important facet of their scholarship" (p. 61).

Creating a Community of Learners: Small-Group Instructional Feedback

Classroom assessment techniques gather individual responses, usually in writing, to be organized and interpreted by the instructor for a picture of the class as a whole. Small-group instructional feedback (SGIF) requires that students collaborate and reach consensus about their responses and that the instructor collaborate with a colleague who solicits and facilitates students' responses. This creates a new vision of the classroom, one suggested by Palmer (1987):

> The root fallacy in the pedagogy of most of our institutions is that the individual is the agent of knowing and therefore the focus for teaching and learning. We all know that if we draw the lines of instruction in most

> classrooms, they run singularly from teacher to individual student. These lines are there for the convenience of the instructor, not for their corporate reality. They do not reveal a complex web of relationships between teacher and students and subject that would look like a true community.
>
> Given this focus on the individual in the classroom, competition between individuals for knowledge becomes inevitable. The competitive individualism of the classroom is not simply the function of a social ethic; it reflects a pedagogy that stresses the individual as the prime agent of knowing. But to say the obvious, knowing and learning are communal acts. They require many eyes and ears, many observations and experiences. They require a continual cycle of discussion, disagreement, and consensus over what has been seen and what it all means. This is the essence of the "community of scholars," and it should be the essence of the classroom as well (p. 25).

SGIF is the simplest of the activities proposed in this chapter. It should occur around midsemester, perhaps even as early as the fourth week, to allow time for the instructor to adjust the instructional activities in response to the feedback. A faculty member "contracts" with a colleague to come to a particular class. After introducing this facilitator, the instructor leaves the classroom. The facilitator breaks the class into small groups to discuss and reach consensus on three questions: What works in this class for you? What doesn't work? What improvements do you suggest? After about fifteen minutes of discussion, the groups are asked to report, and responses are recorded on the board. Other groups are asked to confirm or disagree with the statements, and again consensus is attempted. The facilitator encourages the students to be as concrete as possible and to propose specific solutions to the observed or experienced problems. A student records the information from the board, which the facilitator types up and shares with the instructor later. This guarantees the students' anonymity. The classroom portion of the process takes approximately forty minutes.

The follow-up meeting between the two colleagues can take several forms. Any training in SGIF should focus on the facilitator's role and on this exchange, reviewing the characteristics of effective feedback (Renner, 1983; Bergquist and Phillips, 1975). The facilitator can present the information and clarify any confusing language or, if asked, can serve as a peer "coach" or "consultant," suggesting alternative techniques. Thus, in the process of SGIF, instructors can learn from both their colleagues and their students. SGIF is a developmental activity and should not take the place of more systematically gathered student responses for the purposes of evaluation.

While the purpose of SGIF is to collect feedback for the instructor, the process also makes students feel firmly situated at the heart of the teaching

enterprise. Hearing about the learning experiences of others confirms their individual experiences or causes them to reconsider or reevaluate their previous assumptions about what happens in the classroom. They are empowered by their membership in this group of learners that has something important to tell its ostensible leader, the instructor. They recognize that they are the central concern of the classroom.

Conclusion

In writing about his thirty years as an English professor, Booth (1988) admits, "Teaching is impossible to master, inexhaustibly varied, unpredictable from hour to hour, from minute to minute within the hour: tears when you don't expect them, laughter when you might predict tears; cooperation and resistance in baffling mixture; disconcerting depths of ignorance and sudden unexpected revelations of knowledge or wisdom. And the results are almost always ambiguous. No, it is never boring" (p. 219). And according to the Commission on the Future of Community Colleges (1988), "in the days ahead, teaching will not become easier. As students become more diverse, the demands also will increase. Old patterns will no longer suffice" (p. 11).

Still, faculty can develop the skills necessary to create new patterns to address the needs of these new students, beginning by placing the learners at the center of their concept of the classroom. Those concerned with faculty development must acknowledge how the issues that affect our perception of the new student—the need to recognize differences while building community, the need to support collaboration rather than competition—also affect the choice of faculty development programs. Shifting our notion of teaching from individual performance and commitment to curriculum or texts to recognizing the inseparable nature of teaching and learning, of teacher and learner, requires restoring the learner to the center of our attention. Supporting faculty development programs that address these concerns and encourage the skills needed to create learner-centered classrooms can help us meet the challenges of the future.

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Student-centered teaching involves more than caring and honorable intentions and must meet the standards of developmental aims and interactive methods.

Using a Developmental Model of Maturity to Enhance Student-Centered Teaching

Don G. Creamer

It may be argued that all teaching is student centered. We care about our students, we prepare ourselves to inform them, we design our strategies to reveal our knowledge to them, we encourage their interest in our subjects, and sometimes we even guide their careers to coincide with our own. Don't these predispositions, intentions, and actions demonstrate that our teaching is student centered?

It may also be argued that teacher attributes such as these are necessary but not sufficient conditions for student-centered teaching. Like other complex forms of human interaction, student-centered teaching involves more than benevolent attitudes, honorable motives, and caring behavior. Student-centered teaching involves specific action to foster developmental wholeness. Sometimes this wholeness is referred to simply as the student's becoming well rounded or fully functioning.

The value of adopting a teaching style that promotes developmental wholeness is underscored by the fact that almost all colleges and universities acknowledge a commitment to student development in some form. Student development is often referred to as the aim of education (Kohlberg and Mayer, 1972) or as a unifying theme of education (Chickering and Associates, 1981). In whatever form these ideas appear in college catalogues and mission statements, they charge educators to adopt methods of instruction that are most likely to help the institution achieve its goals for student development. Such goals are more attainable when teaching is student centered.

The value of using a developmentally oriented teaching style to achieve student-centeredness may also be appreciated in the context of the rapidly increasing diversity among students in higher education. Teachers naturally struggle with the choice of instructional strategies suitable for heterogeneous groups of students. How can one teacher master the use of a sufficient number of strategies to fit every human characteristic or need?

In the face of such vast diversity, faculty may find it helpful to remember that all human beings share certain developmental passages and that these commonalities can serve as an anchor for the choice of teaching strategy. All people share similar processes for cognitive and intellectual growth; growth processes in moral and ethical reasoning are nearly universal among all people; and changes in frames of reference for making meaning of experiences occur for most people in similar patterns of hierarchical growth. In addition, all people share predictable preoccupations, called developmental tasks, at about the same time in their lives. All of us struggle with issues pertaining to our identity, our self-esteem, and our values. These struggles seem to occur especially during periods of developmental transition, and these transitions are often associated with enrollment in higher education. It is true that reactions to teaching and learning environments often vary by gender and cultural identity (Light, 1990); yet our maturational patterns remain similar. These may be referred to as developmental domains, and they can serve as focal points of instructional design even among learners with diverse characteristics.

I submit that learning is enhanced when teaching is aimed at a larger target than just the transmission of knowledge. I suggest that intentions to hit this larger target, coupled with fitting behaviors or actions of the teacher, are the essential components of student-centeredness in teaching. For example, educating graduate students to serve as practitioners, leaders, or teachers is enhanced when the student's personal and professional development is consciously addressed in all teaching and advising activities. This perspective reminds both the teacher and the learner that the purpose of their interaction is student development, not teacher achievement. Thus, teaching is student centered when its aims include developmental goals and its methods include interactive roles for teacher and learner.

This perspective is not new, of course. It may be as old as teaching itself. Yet as teachers have coped with the problems of mass education, as they must in many community colleges, it has been easy to resort to "covering the subject matter" as a primary aim of instruction. Despite publicly held views in support of institutional commitment to the aims of general education and student development, for example, evidence exists that many teachers do not include such goals in their courses and do not work toward their achievement by students (Alkins, 1990). When this happens, no amount of tinkering with methods will yield a student-

centered approach to teaching. At the root of all teaching, there must be developmental intentions that surpass the goal of informing about facts.

My purpose in this chapter is to describe an approach to teaching that is student centered by virtue of its developmental focus. This approach is called "developmental teaching" and uses a theoretical model of maturity to depict its learning objectives. Both in- and out-of-class applications will be cited, and examples of objectives with a developmental focus will be provided.

Strategies Suggested in the Literature

Malcolm Knowles (1970, 1975) recognizes the developmental perspective as he elucidates the idea of andragogy. The perspective is particularly clear in his descriptions of crucial assumptions about adult learners. He maintains that the maturing adult (1) moves from a dependent self-concept to a self-directed view, (2) acquires experience over time that is a useful resource in learning, (3) is stimulated to learn through the developmental tasks faced in varying social roles, and (4) prefers problem-centered content over subject-centered content since immediate application of learning is sought (Knowles, 1970). Notice the developmental character of these assumptions. Naturally, andragogical methods call for robust interactions between teacher and learner.

A particularly attractive strategy for promoting developmental aims in teaching is called synergogy. This approach is described by Mouton and Blake (1984) and refers to "working together for shared teaching" (pp. xi–xii). Tactics of synergogy appear to be based on assumptions similar to those used by Knowles but are extended to three basic principles: first, the direction and form of learning are influenced by structured learning designs and instruments; second, synergogy depends on teamwork rather than on individual initiative; and third, synergogy may yield more than the sum of its parts (Mouton and Blake, 1984). There are four learning designs in the synergogical approach, each crafted to yield a particular outcome in students. The first two strategies are crafted to promote knowledge in learners and are called the team effectiveness design and the team-member teaching design. The third design helps the learner to acquire skills and is called the performance judging design. The fourth tactic is called the clarifying attitudes design and is, of course, intended to elucidate attitudes.

Yet another approach, described by Hand (1984), is simply called student development. Hand argues that student development is merely the logical extension of instructor development, faculty development, and organizational development, and its inclusion makes efforts to improve teaching and learning more complete. Through student development strategies, Hand would instruct the student to "become a sophisticated consumer of education" (p. 243) and would "prepare the person to be an

active participant in the world for a lifetime" (p. 245). In this approach, there are processes to be mastered, content to be learned, and intellectual skills to be acquired. Hand argues, however, that learning does not occur vicariously but must be lived. He posits that learning is complete only after it has been applied. Clearly, the focus of Hand's approach to teaching is on the student's development, but the details of relevant teaching strategies are left vague.

Developmental Teaching

Developmental teaching is distinguished by its goals for student growth along certain intellectual and personal dimensions and by its interactive methods. Developmental goals are derived from an eclectic model of maturity, depicted in Table 8.1. The model contains two developmental domains—intellectual and self—and six growth dimensions: knowledge, character, skills, values, identity, and interests. Each aspect of the model is defined in Table 8.1. This model is well grounded in theory, resting on earlier work by Sanford (1966), Erikson (1968), Heath (1968), and Whiteley and Associates (1982). It has been selected because it is comprehensive, including most growth dimensions widely accepted in higher education, and because its language is straightforward, containing little jargon not generally understood by educators.

Interactive methods associated with developmental teaching include any catalytic strategy that provokes active responses from students and that leads to intellectual dialogue between teacher and learner or between learner and learner. Such strategies as research projects, oral presentations,

Table 8.1. Developmental Teaching Model of Maturity

Developmental Domains		*Growth Dimensions*
Intellectual	Knowledge:	Familiarity with the body of truth, information, and principles that humans have acquired
	Character:	Principled reasoning, ethical functioning
Self	Skills:	Developed aptitudes or abilities
	Values:	Belief system, life-style
	Identity:	A sense of assurance about the distinguishing features of personality that reflect one's fundamental nature
	Interests:	Feelings related to activities that arouse attention and readiness to participate

literature reviews, panel discussions, written reports, independent study projects, dilemma resolution tasks, case studies, community service, journal writing, interviewing, and debating are examples of interactive methods. Use of self-assessment procedures as indicators of pre- and postinstruction status may be especially valuable with interactive methods.

Developmental teaching may be seen as an approach that is consistent with the pragmatist philosophy of education. It holds, for example, that education is enrichment of life and preparation for work. It also holds that the primary responsibility for learning rests with the student. If the student is to assume responsibility for learning, it follows that the student must be an active participant in the teaching and learning process, actively shaping processes and activities that permit careful inquiry, thoughtful discourse, and meaningful reflection on all ideas germane to the course. The pragmatist philosophy underscores an old adage that the job of teachers is to teach and the job of students is to learn. It is not that simple, of course, but the adage does remind us that teachers cannot be held fully responsible for whether students learn. Students must accept responsibility for their own learning, and this issue is a cornerstone of the developmental teaching approach.

Along with placing responsibility for learning at the correct doorstep goes the obligation of teachers to empower students to act in their own best interests in order to achieve the goals of the course. It would represent a form of dysfunctional teaching to verbalize students' responsibility for learning but, simultaneously, restrain their actions by employing teaching strategies that give the instructor the total responsibility for teaching and for learning. Dysfunctional teaching often occurs in the classroom when a lecture-only method is used to teach a topic such as student self-insight. In a course on self-insight, students must gather data about the self on their own if this process is to lead to self-discovery. Dysfunction also occurs when student affairs administrators, counselors, or advisers offer only hypothetical, instead of real-life, role-taking opportunities to students who are working on their leadership skills. Students must be afforded meaningful occasions to lead others if they are to learn how to lead.

Setting Goals. The first step in developmental teaching is to set appropriate goals for the course. These should include goals that relate both to course content and to student development. Content goals should identify all the subject matter to be learned. Developmental goals should identify the growth dimensions to be addressed. Teaching goals commonly include the growth dimensions of knowledge and skills; the other dimensions listed in Table 8.1 should also be addressed. The use of a model of maturity to set course or activity goals reminds teachers to include active involvement of the student with the subject matter to be learned. This might mean that the student is required to demonstrate reasoning about the subject matter, to examine values and beliefs relative to the subject

matter, and to explain views of himself or herself as affected by it. The model of maturity provides a guide for setting course goals for developmental wholeness in each course taught.

A specific example will illustrate this step. The following is an actual set of goals used by an instructor of American history in a two-year college. The nonitalicized items are content goals prepared by the instructor for this course. The italicized items are developmental goals that I added to the original work to illustrate an application of the model of maturity.

At the satisfactory completion of this course, the student will be able to:

1. Demonstrate an awareness of the major political, social, and economic issues of the United States between the Age of Exploration and the year 1928.
2. *Prepare an oral argument about the major political, social, and economic issues of the period.*
3. Confirm an understanding of the interrelatedness of these issues and the human values of the period.
4. *Contrast current personal values about major political, social, and economic issues with those of the period.*
5. Exhibit a talent for research in a specific area and for the use of primary and secondary sources as a basis for individual judgment and evaluation.
6. *Discuss ethical issues associated with historical research.*

The original goals are interesting and appropriate for a course in American history, but as good as they were in their original form, they did not explicitly address developmental wholeness. When the model of maturity is applied, it leads teachers to specify expectations for the student's active involvement with the subject matter. Notice that each goal extension requires the student to demonstrate self-insight. Each addition strongly implies active exchanges with others to arrive at crucial decisions that must be defended publicly. These actions by students lead to meaningful reflections about self in a context of disciplined inquiry. Notice also that these additions require student acceptance of responsibility for his or her learning. No one except the student can reflect on his or her self-insight.

Not all course goals or objectives currently in use are so easily adapted to a developmental model. One example I reviewed had 138 objectives for a single three-hour course! Something more than adaptation of the goals to a developmental model is needed in such a case. Still, even in this extreme case, the benefits of using a model of maturity as a guide to enhancing student-centeredness can be seen. Use of the model would suggest much greater synthesis of content and much greater focus on the teaching and learning objectives.

Other cases of course objectives not easily adapted to a developmental model may be found in many technical and occupational certificate or degree programs. One course I reviewed in keyboarding focused almost exclusively on skill refinement. In a series of dental hygiene courses, the beginning courses were heavily committed to procedures used by dental technicians. It is more difficult, of course, to design strategies that advance growth in attitudes, values, and beliefs in courses that are devoted almost exclusively to skill and procedural learning than it is in courses committed more generally to cognitive growth and development. Personal interests, however, offer a good connecting point for the two types of learning goals. The broadening of interests is a fundamental developmental goal of education and is key for self-esteem, which, in turn, serves to support identity formation. Here are some examples of how skill and procedural goals in courses can be extended into developmental areas: (1) ask students, divided into work teams, to critique instructor methods and student participation in learning a specified skill or procedure; (2) have students maintain a written log with weekly observations and self-critical reflections on their progress (or lack of progress) in learning a specified skill or procedure; and (3) ask students, in oral exchanges with the instructor, to reflect on their responsibilities in using their technical skills in a democratic society.

Notice that these course goals require personal involvement with the subject matter through a reporting activity. In this way, the instructor ensures the students' conscious consideration of possible effects on the self from the learning acquired in the course.

Can the model of maturity be used to foster student-centered teaching outside the classroom? Yes, of course, it can. It is not surprising, however, that teaching outside the classroom offers fewer controls over the process. Grades are not typically given for participation in academic advising, planning student events, or leading student groups. Student participation in such activities represents almost totally voluntary behavior, and they notoriously demonstrate uneven records of achievement in these environments. Goals for these activities typically are group goals; rarely do they specify what each individual is expected to do. Even though many, if not most, out-of-class activities are student initiated, they frequently would not come to fruition through student behavior alone. Administrators often have both stated and unstated goals for the out-of-class conduct of students. These goals are tended by professional student affairs workers or by classroom teachers with part-time assignments or voluntary commitments to student-led out-of-class activities.

Let us consider an example of an out-of-class learning activity devoted to promoting student leadership abilities. Preparing students for a productive life in a democratic society often is a goal of higher education; thus, most colleges offer some structured programs for leadership education. Often, selected professionals in student affairs direct leadership "training" through

a series of intensive workshops. While any student may participate, resources permitting, the workshops more likely than not are offered for students who are preparing themselves for leadership roles in clubs and organizations. Here are some typical content goals for such an activity, followed by italicized examples of developmental goals:

At the completion of these workshops, the student will be able to:

1. Quote institutional policies and procedures relevant to student clubs and organizations.
2. *Defend the reasoning of institutional policies and procedures for student clubs and organizations in an interview with a college administrator.*
3. Administer the affairs of a particular organization.
4. *Prepare a written critique of the organization's purposes in relationship to the institution's mission.*
5. Carry out the routine functions of a particular organization.
6. *Direct discussions among members of the organization to reveal individual values and expected gains from participation.*
7. Report the accomplishments of a particular organization to appropriate institutional authorities.
8. *Show tangible evidence of how participation in the organization has contributed to self-understanding.*

Most of these developmental goals address growth in self-insight regarding responsibility to a larger social unit such as the college. To accomplish these goals, students would have to reveal the consequences of their encounters with others who look to them to "lead." All of the purposes for the leadership workshops require action by the learner, but the developmental goals require that the action be based on meaningful interactions with others who share common learning endeavors.

Choosing Teaching and Learning Strategies. The next step in developmental teaching is to ensure that the teaching strategies are interactive. Interactive strategies suggest that teacher and student, or student and student, will mutually influence each other. It suggests that the strategies will address both teaching and learning and that they define what both the teacher and the student will do to accomplish the goals for the course or the activity. Interactive teaching and learning is composed of three major components: dialogue with others about ideas, self-reflection about ideas, and translation of ideas into action.

Dialogue, defined as an intellectual exchange of ideas, is the most fundamental ingredient of interactive teaching and learning strategies. Two major purposes of intellectual exchanges of ideas are to expose the reasoning behind a point of view or opinion and to practice verbal communication. Dialogue means speaking; thus, in-class and out-of-class struc-

tured learning experiences must allow for oral student justification of reasoning and for its defense when challenged. Dialogue may well occur during lecture-discussion sessions in class or in highly structured out-of-class activities, but for it to be effective, it must permit all students the opportunity and the obligation to describe their thinking aloud.

Class or group size is an issue in the use of interactive teaching and learning strategies. When class or group size exceeds the number of students who can effectively be engaged in dialogue with the instructor using lecture-discussion methods or with the group facilitator using structured group methods, then other methods must be incorporated into the event to reduce group size or maximize individual participation by students. The use of structured student work teams, such as those described by Mouton and Blake (1984), where several individuals combine their efforts in order to accomplish specific learning goals, may reduce the problem of diminished opportunity for dialogue in large groups.

Self-reflection refers to a process of contemplation about ideas and their effect on one's self. While dialogue demands an active involvement with others about one's thinking, self-reflection requires active involvement with the self, and it focuses on answers to important questions. How meaningful to me are the ideas under consideration? How did I arrive at my views on these ideas? How adequate are my views? How strongly do I feel about my views? Am I willing to act on my views? Such reflection requires time, but when instructors provide this time, a student's passing interest in a subject may develop into real learning. Requiring short, reflective papers at the end of each class that require the student to state the main point of the session and to ask at least one relevant unanswered question about it provides one type of opportunity for self-reflection.

Translation of new ideas into action is the third component of interactive teaching and learning. This process calls for the translation of dialogue and self-reflection into some form of application that reveals the student's unique understanding about the ideas under consideration. Often this process results in the student writing about new concepts, but there are other forms of expression equally suitable to this requirement. In out-of-class learning, it may mean leading a discussion with others about the student's new thinking or conducting a program that will teach others what the student has learned. Such opportunities may arise for students who work on judicial committees or honor courts where judgments about people require careful application of rules or laws.

Conclusion

Student-centered teaching requires more from an instructor than simply caring about students. It involves creating environments that offer real potential for student growth. These environments are altered by the

adoption of a developmental orientation to teaching and learning. A developmental orientation focuses both teachers and students on the self as well as the subject, on values as well as information, and on attitudes as well as skill. This orientation requires a high standard of performance for both teacher and learner. Finally, it requires that each interact with the other about ideas and values.

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BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Diversity in the classroom demands leadership from community college instructors. Critical teaching strategies and practices focus attention on the needs of women and members of racial and ethnic minorities.

Confronting Diversity in the Community College Classroom: Six Maxims for Good Teaching

Rosemary Gillett-Karam

In an ongoing study of award-winning teachers in North American community colleges, patterns of teaching excellence emerge that reflect the collective experience of what exemplary teachers do to promote successful learning in the classroom. Six maxims of teaching excellence summarize the efforts of these teachers: they are *engaging* the students' desire to learn, *increasing* their opportunities for success, *eliminating* obstacles to learning, *empowering* students through high expectations, *offering* positive guidance and direction, and *motivating* students toward independence.

In this chapter, these maxims are used to focus attention on the needs of the underserved populations in community colleges. The term *underserved* is used purposefully here, for it acknowledges that teaching is a service offered by the leader in the classroom. This idea, in turn, helps to remind us of the fact that all leaders must be held accountable to and for the needs of their followers (in this case, students) (Greenleaf, 1973). Although there are many who would argue with the use of this term and would rather refer to the "underprepared" or "at-risk" student, these terms seem to focus on the "minority" social and economic status of certain students. I prefer the term *underserved* primarily because it emphasizes institutional problems and the overwhelming need to address and correct these problems in a rapidly changing world. In this chapter, the term *minority* will be used to refer to non-Anglo populations—namely, African, Asian, Hispanic, and Native American.

Observation and research concerning faculty attitudes and behaviors

toward minority students suggest that teachers may demonstrate "good practices" (1) by encouraging student-faculty contact, cooperation among students, and active learning; (2) by giving prompt feedback and emphasizing time on task; and (3) by communicating high expectations and respecting diverse talents and ways of learning (Chickering and Gamson, 1987). Few instructors, however, change their teaching methods to match the needs of these students—primarily because instructors tend to emulate the traditional ways in which they were taught during their own undergraduate and graduate training. Many of these practices, however, produce unconscious attitudes and behaviors that are covertly discriminatory. More important, although a wealth of materials exists for good teaching practices, there are few training courses for college instructors, regardless of their discipline. Various researchers in teaching and learning have indicated a need for such training. Training programs must teach teachers to teach, and exemplary teachers must serve as models for other teachers in these training experiences.

Only when teachers recognize the reality of the current teaching situation will they be willing to modify their teaching behaviors. In other words, the instructor must become aware of the circumstances of the college environment and must become a leader in the classroom, using the same process for establishing class direction, plans, and strategies that the chief executive officer uses for the entire campus. Thus, the exemplary college instructor plans for change, understands the environment or climate of campus and classroom, and implements a framework that allows modification of his or her teaching style based both on student readiness and on the actual evaluated success or failure of the teacher's ability to motivate and influence students.

The sections that follow discuss each of the six maxims of good teaching in order to provide strategies for the classroom of the future—that is, the classroom of diversity—in the community college. These discussions emphasize the principles of classroom practice and research that are characteristic of award-winning community college teachers throughout North America.

Engaging the Desire to Learn

Good teachers recognize and are aware of the student's desire to learn. They diagnose, communicate, and foster interpersonal relationships in their classrooms. They are aware of the research on cultural diversity and integrate that research with their ability to "draw out" the hidden potential and self-knowledge of their students. In this way, they act as leaders who inspire the courage of their followers—that is, they foster the students' courage to find what they need to know within themselves.

Several inflammatory discussions are resurfacing around the "nature"

of racial or ethnic students and their "turning their backs on education" (Keller, 1988–89, p. 43). Keller reports the views of various researchers and journalists who attempt to address the question of black students' values concerning education:

> College attendance rates and graduation rates for blacks actually declined in the 1980s, and most preferential treatment has not prevented the decline. William Blakey says, "Education is not as high a priority within the black community as it used to be." Reginald Wilson says, "A unique animosity toward blacks and a lingering racism is still active." Or is there some crippling historical burden, some peculiar set of attitudes toward formal learning, or a singular lack of confidence about the possibilities of intellectual and scientific achievement, lodged in the emotional core of an enlarging number of young blacks? William Raspberry says, "The real problem, I suspect, is the course of low expectations." Clifton Wharton believes that blacks are "crying out for a massive infusion of self-esteem." And Jeff Howard and Ray Hammond suggest, "The performance gap is largely a behavioral problem. It is the result of a remediable tendency to avoid intellectual engagement and competition" (p. 44).

These assessments may have some foundation, but if this is a matter of a "sudden educational erosion among blacks," as Keller (1988–89, p. 44) points out, then educators must recognize their own responsibilities in the crisis. Nettles (1988) reminds us that American colleges enrolled 76,554 fewer black undergraduates in 1985 than in 1976—a decline of 8.9 percent. Keller and Nettles remind us of the crises in higher education; hence, we must reevaluate our practices and direct change that is appropriate to these environmental and societal needs. Teachers should respond to Keller's accusation that the "lumping together of all minorities is intellectually questionable" (p. 45) and should address the issues of educational need based on the experiences of individual students and their individual needs. Blacks and Native Americans are significantly less represented in higher education, whether as students or faculty, but all racial and ethnic groups and women are underrepresented in positions of leadership in higher education. Teachers must be committed to increasing educational opportunities for all students.

Increasing Opportunities for Success

Helping to clarify learning goals and empowering students to achieve active learning that is contingent on effective performance are critical instructional strategies. The need to respect diverse talents and learning styles requires a theory of learning that recognizes those individual styles.

Learning style refers to how students process and retain information, how they prefer to interact with their instructors and other learners, and what their preferred learning environment is. Instruction strategies should involve teachers as coaches and motivators (Baker, Roueche, and Gillett-Karam, 1990) and students as active learners. The focus of instruction here should be on providing greater opportunities for student achievement.

The relationship of gender, racial, and ethnic differences to learning styles creates controversy. Is it legitimate to associate learning style with gender, race, or ethnicity? If not, then why are there differences? Although various studies recommend that teachers should become more aware of different cultural backgrounds and their effect on communication and learning, there is active disagreement on whether cultural background should be singled out for attention. The danger lies in stereotyping; the dilemma lies in recognizing diversity without creating a stereotype. Claxton and Murrell (1987) and Anderson (1988) indicate a relationship among culture, conceptual systems, and learning styles. Perceptual and cognitive differences have been demonstrated between different minority groups and the "dominant" culture, since American educational values have evolved from the male-oriented, European traditions.

Many researchers turn this issue into the nature-versus-nurture debate, maintaining that gender or race may influence a person's preferred learning style because that style is either valued or reinforced by the subject's group or by the majority culture. The perception that women are collaborative learners, not competitive ones, may be attributable to the fact that the dominant culture reinforces these tendencies in women and discourages them in men. Hale-Benson (1986) portrays black children as more relational than analytical in their learning styles; others would say that these differences disappear when students are acculturated to the predominant analytic style of most schools.

Resistance to accommodating culturally based learning styles stems from the assumption that what is different from the norm is deviant or less valuable. Learning styles, however, seem to be a question of preference, and good teachers allow students opportunities to exercise their own style while helping them to develop in other areas as well. A conceptual framework for a continuum of learning styles, such as that presented in *Teaching as Leading* (Baker, Roueche, and Gillett-Karam, 1990), allows instructors to examine how students learn and to assess their own impact on student learning style. Preferences as to personality, information processing, social interaction, and instructional style can be met; teaching should be situationally perceptive so that instructors can modify their style based on student need. Classroom research about teaching and learning, in which instructors have students take the Kolb (1984) learning style inventory and the Baker, Roueche, and Gillett-Karam (1990) Teaching as Leading Inventory, profits everyone.

Eliminating Obstacles to Learning

Working to eliminate or at least reduce obstacles to learning is another strategic function of the teacher as leader; here, faculty must be aware of the major barriers that confront the teaching and learning environment and work to eliminate or reduce them. Exemplary teachers concentrate on finding solutions; defining the problems is not a sufficient goal.

Richardson and Bender (1987) address the issues of minority participation in *Fostering Minority Access and Achievement in Higher Education*; their principal interest lies in the relationships between declining enrollments and the transfer function. Obviously, if women and members of ethnic and racial minorities are to succeed in our society and to provide leadership and role models for future generations, then encouraging transfer from the community college to the university becomes paramount. The future looks bleak if things continue in the present mode. The data demonstrate that we are experiencing little, if any, increase in numbers of these groups in positions of leadership in community colleges.

Quality colleges and teachers work to reduce obstacles to learning by examining the status quo; by offering options to existing problems, such as language or reading skills deficiencies and cultures whose norms do not "value" education in the same way as does the "dominant" culture; and by addressing the issues of underrepresentation and underutilization of racial and ethnic minorities in the classroom, among the faculty and administration, and in other positions of leadership in the community college. Examples at Miami-Dade Community College and at Borough of Manhattan Community College provide options, not accusations; they provide and document successes, rather than failures, in overcoming and addressing obstacles related to minority and gender issues.

Empowering Through High Expectations

Questions such as the following may help to redirect the attention of teachers in the multicultural classroom (Green, 1989): What are teachers' expectations of minority students? Do seemingly innocuous remarks by teachers appear sexist or racist to students? Do teachers call on minority students as frequently as on majority students? Do teachers solicit the input of minority students as "spokespersons" or as individuals?

Research indicates that teachers form expectations of students on the basis of prior achievement, physical attractiveness, sex, language, socioeconomic status, and race or ethnicity (Good, 1981; Brophy and Good, 1984). Moreover, instructors may assume that minority students are grouped at the lower end of the ability continuum and thus have lower expectations of them—this leads to a self-fulfilling prophecy. Research shows differences in the way teachers interact with low achievers and high

achievers. To the extent that minority students are actually underprepared or are simply stereotyped as low achievers, they may be treated differently from other students—called on less frequently, given less time to respond to questions, interrupted or criticized more often, and given insincere or generalized praise (Green, 1989). The assumptions instructors make about abilities and attitudes can and do differ for majority and minority students.

Minority students pick up on nonverbal cues, are intimidated by a predominantly white environment and dominant culture, and may view the instructor as an authority figure who is not to be questioned. Cultural differences and norms may be demonstrated through the way students use and interpret eye contact: for some cultures, direct and sustained eye contact represents interest and engagement, for other cultures, it may represent disrespect; for still others, it may imply personal or sexual interest (Byers and Byers, 1972). For the minority student, such differences may inhibit their participation, and faculty misinterpretation may exacerbate this problem. Pemberton (1988) demonstrates that when the instructor believes that he or she is showing interest in the student, the student may believe that his or her life is being treated as the data source for a sociological study of racial characteristics.

Instructors model expected behavior. High expectations are themselves self-fulfilling prophecies; this is the so-called Pygmalion effect, and it has been demonstrated over and over again in social settings that have seemed desperate and unyielding. Surely, the achievements of Marva Collins demonstrate this fact, but so do the achievements of other "hopeless" cases; they remind us of the excitement of discovering the love of learning. The most powerful expression of such a case is Wright's (1945) discussion of how the use of his mentor's loaned library card had opened him up to books and the world outside his own experience as a "black boy" from the South:

> It had been my accidental reading of fiction and literary criticism that had evoked in me vague glimpses of life's possibilities. Of course, I had never seen or met the men who wrote the books I read, and the kind of world in which they lived was as alien to me as the moon. But what enabled me to overcome my chronic distrust was that these books—written by men like Dreiser, Masters, Mencken, Anderson, and Lewis—seemed defensively critical of the straitened American environment. These writers seemed to feel that America could be shaped nearer to the hearts of those who lived in it. And it was out of these novels and stories and articles, out of the emotional impact of imaginative constructions of heroic or tragic deeds, that I felt touching my face a tinge of warmth from an unseen light; and in my leaving [the South] I was groping toward that invisible light, always trying to keep my face so set and turned that I would not lose the hope of its faint promise, using it as my justification for action (p. 227).

Offering Positive Guidance and Direction

One of the primary functions of the effective teacher is to clarify the path that leads to goal attainment for his or her students. Most often, this is demonstrated through clear, concise course structure and through clearly communicated expectations about the course itself (Easton, Forrest, Goldman, and Ludwig, 1984). It is also demonstrated through the teacher's willingness to take a highly directive role as facilitator of student learning (Schneider, Klemp, and Kastendiek, 1981).

The teacher offers a positive learning environment not only by clarifying the process of course and course work but also by coaching and directing students' progress. In the classroom, the teacher as leader explains, coaches, tutors, and supports students' efforts as preliminary steps before affirming students' responsibilities and independence. But for underrepresented students, the teacher must also work outside the classroom and become involved in the recruiting and retention of students. In other words, the job of the good coach-teacher includes "scouting for new recruits," coaching and guiding those recruits through training and practice, preparing the recruits for the game's exigencies, providing feedback to remedy mistakes and working to change failure into success—in short, providing all the necessary tools for excellence and quality performance. For example, at the Medical Center Campus at Miami-Dade Community College, weekend and summer programs for minority youth are being developed that focus on preparation for the health professions. Students are oriented toward college-level work while still in high school. Teachers participating in this program not only coach and guide new recruits but also provide a hospitable environment and demonstrate the path to goal attainment for minority students in the health professions.

Motivating Toward Independence

Without heating up the controversy over curriculum, one can safely say that there is consensus around the overall purposes of a liberal education: an appreciation of the humanities, sciences, and the arts; the promotion of ethical conduct; and an understanding of knowledge that is implementable in theory and practice are essential for undergraduate curriculum. But the controversy does begin to heat up around the interpretation, implementation, and relative importance of different curricula.

By focusing on the curriculum as a vehicle for motivating students and making them self-contained, independent learners, the teaching-learning process is enhanced. The curriculum should not be static; new knowledge and the changing conditions and requirements of society must have an impact on curriculum on the college campus. Sometimes new information may render existing theories totally invalid or may point out the incom-

pleteness of existing facts. In the last three decades, the college campus itself has drastically changed and has been dramatically challenged by the entrance of women, minority students, and older students. New areas of knowledge, new disciplines, and new educational issues have resulted. Not only did the introduction of women's studies, African-American studies, ethnic studies, and area studies point out the omission in the curriculum of the experiences and contributions of large segments of society but they also challenged incomplete and unidimensional thinking. These shifts in curricula are not without their detractors, while others would suggest that not to recognize the critical need for such curriculum in American higher education is "killing the spirit" of the learner (Smith, 1990).

The current debate over curriculum centers on the question of whether to include culturally pluralistic and global resources. Those in favor of such inclusion aim to ensure that all students understand the richness of the history, art, and literature of women and minority racial or ethnic groups. This debate talks about "transformation" of the curriculum as it is now known; differences in values and philosophies electrify the controversy. Some decry the "add-on" theory in which mere mention is made of cultural, racial, ethnic, or gender-related issues or contributions. Rather, the inclusion of the works and perspectives of women and minorities is meant to transform the curriculum and the entire teaching and learning process; it is meant to be a long-term process. Schuster and Van Dyne (1984) suggest that the current curriculum does not expose the "invisible paradigms which are the internalized assumptions, the network of unspoken agreements, the implicit contracts, that all the participants in the process of higher education have agreed to, usually unconsciously, in order to bring about learning" (p. 417).

Others would suggest that transforming the curriculum makes it too political (and less neutral); they claim that proponents of a transformed curriculum seek to distort it with politically motivated agendas. Gates (as quoted in Green, 1989) responds that transforming the curriculum is "no more political than the process that designates the existing canon. . . . That people can maintain a straight face while they protest the eruption of politics into something that has always been political from the very beginning says something about how remarkably successful official literary histories have been at disguising all linkages between the canon, the literary past we remember, and those interests that maintain it" (p. 148).

The obvious framework for such curriculum is one involving a more inclusionary process. Real world examples and issues are included in the curriculum. This reframing deemphasizes political debate and capitalizes instead on dialogue that incorporates new visions while protecting the existing curriculum. How to do it? McIntosh (1989), Green (1989), and Schuster and Van Dyne (1984) suggest directly confronting the exclusive curriculum through a series of phases that will transform it by integrating multicultural values and contributions. Some practical suggestions move

the notion of the "add-on phase" to a more inclusionary policy that incorporates the "specialized" course, such as ethnic studies or women's studies, of which Smith (1990) says, "There are certainly positive aspects of counter education run by women for women. There are strong moral imperatives. . . . There is passionate conviction . . . that women teachers take a far more personal interest in their students. . . . They are the last utopians; they have revived the dream of a better, more humane society, not to be achieved this time by science or reason or objectivity, but by the keener sensibilities and nobler character of women" (pp. 289, 292).

Eventually, we can expect a "breakthrough" as a transformed curriculum is put into place that incorporates new knowledge and scholarship, new methodologies and new ways of teaching and learning, and that encourages new ways of thinking. Moving from strategies that transform the curriculum to strategies that increase representation of faculty and administrators on community college campuses seems to be a natural step.

Faculty Diversity

A diverse faculty is essential to a pluralistic campus. Faculty create the curriculum and determine the quality of the experience in every classroom. Currently, between 10 and 12 percent of faculty at community colleges across the nation are members of minority racial or ethnic groups. Between 1977 and 1985, black faculty on college campuses declined from 4.4 to 4.2 percent of the total faculty; this figure includes blacks who are at historically black colleges and universities. In predominantly white institutions, blacks comprise 1.8 percent of the faculty. Hispanic and Native American faculty moved from 1.5 to 1.7 percent (1,000 more), and Asian faculty rose from 2.7 to 4.1 percent (7,000 more). Between 1981 and 1987, doctorates to minorities increased from 2,728 to 2,890, and concentrations of these degrees were in education. Minority faculty are less likely to have tenure: 71 percent of white faculty are tenured; 62 percent of blacks; 66 percent of Hispanics; and 65 percent of Asians. Women are also less likely to have tenure, and there are substantial differences in salaries between those of white faculty and those of racial and ethnic minorities and women. The numbers of minorities choosing academic careers declined from 1975 to 1985. In 1985, only about 12 percent of all administrators were members of racial or ethnic minorities, and this figure includes all individuals who administer special minority programs in predominantly white institutions. Data demonstrate that these numbers have been relatively stable over the last ten years. Moreover, few of this small percentage of minorities are presidents, vice presidents, or deans; rather, they tend to be "assistant to" or connected to minority or affirmative action programs, opportunity programs, bilingual education, and student services. Often, the special minority programs are funded with soft money (Mingle, 1987; Carter and Wilson, 1989; Linthicum, 1989; and Green, 1989).

Strategies for recruiting and retaining racial or ethnic minority and women faculty must be tied to strategies for recruiting and retaining students from these groups, but increasing the flow through the pipeline is a long-term effort. Many look outside the traditional sources of new faculty to business, industry, and government and explore innovative approaches—such as faculty exchanges with historically black colleges and universities. Approaches that tie the search process to written policy standards and that insist on results and accountability, such as those at the Foothill–De Anza Community College District and the Miami-Dade Community College District, suggest that planning is a critical factor for recruitment and retention. Programs that seek out minority faculty from graduate schools or from historically black or Hispanic colleges and programs that mentor faculty, such as those at Sante Fe Community College or the Los Rios Community College District, are positive examples of what can be done to encourage diversity. Finally, over the long term, it must be the vision of our nation's community college leaders that guides us all to a college culture that values diversity.

Conclusion

Several of the award-winning faculty from throughout North America speak eloquently to the maxims of good teaching. It is by listening to their voices that other teachers can become leaders in the classroom, accountable to all the students who form the basis of our diverse society.

> I am being more and more challenged by the extreme diversity of our students. Committed to my goal of ensuring that learning takes place, I personalize the learning experience by connecting subject matter to life and cultural experiences.
>
> —Pat Phillips
> Metropolitan Community College
> Nebraska

> I view teaching as an opportunity to unlock within students a desire to learn what they never knew existed—to find a questioning attitude, an interest in and excitement about a subject, and a challenging method of discovery.
>
> —Beverly A. Taylor
> Central Arizona College
> Arizona

> I teach biology to the bright young man bound for medical school, to the refugee struggling to learn both biology and English, to the reentry student timidly embarking on a new career, to the young woman who

will be the first college graduate in her family. The greatest reward is when a student returns to say, "You made a difference."

—Georgiandra (Gay) Ostarello
Diablo Valley College
California

A good teacher empowers students to be successful in life by motivating academic and interpersonal exchange, creating contagious inquisitiveness, and fostering a passionate love of learning; a caring teacher inspires faith in her students that she is there to help make dreams become reality.

—Nadine A. Gandia
Miami-Dade Community College
Florida

I want to teach confidence so that my students can overcome the FUD factor—the fear, uncertainty, and doubt that anyone may bring to learning.

—Tim Sylvester
College of DuPage
Illinois

The responsibilities of the teacher are to express high expectations for and confidence in students, be sensitive to and learn what motivates the individual student, be competent in the subject matter, and encourage all students to strive for excellence.

—Joe Lostracco
Austin Community College
Texas

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Examples abound of innovative approaches to faculty development and renewal in community colleges.

Faculty Development and Renewal: Sources and Information

Diane Hirshberg

This volume presents the case for attending to the development and renewal needs of community college faculty. It also underscores the need for implementing new mechanisms to recruit and train potential faculty members in light of the approaching faculty shortage. This chapter provides an overview of the current literature in the ERIC data base on innovative approaches to faculty development and renewal in the community college.

Developing Faculty from Within

While community colleges may choose to engage in traditional faculty recruitment methods, such as, for instance, looking for promising graduate students or secondary school teachers, they can also become proactive and creative in meeting the impending faculty shortage head on. Andrews and Marzano (1990–91) propose that community colleges address the need for new instructional staff by recruiting talented minority students into the teaching profession via an incentive program that offers scholarship assistance to students during their enrollment at the community college and beyond, through a master's degree. In return, the student is obliged to serve a designated period of time as a faculty member at the community college.

Another approach to developing faculty from within is demonstrated by the Future Faculty Development Program (FFDP) at Southwestern College (Hahn, 1990). Paraprofessional positions in student services, learning resources, or instruction are made available to students currently enrolled at the college and to former students who have matriculated at a

four-year transfer institution. The FFDP is intended to develop some of these students into a pool of qualified candidates for full-time faculty positions, with particular emphasis on increasing the number of ethnic minority faculty to reflect the adult population of California. The program provides a unique opportunity for current students and recent alumni to develop those talents, skills, and qualifications necessary to prepare for a career in community college teaching or counseling and offers them the opportunity to become employed by the district as work-study students, interns, and teaching assistants under the mentorship of supervising faculty and staff.

Encouraging Professional Development for Current Faculty

Keeping faculty current in their fields and knowledgeable about the latest pedagogical techniques are critical parts of ensuring high-quality education in a community college. Maintaining faculty interest in and enthusiasm for instruction is also vital for educational excellence.

What makes a good faculty development program? Hoerner, Clowes, Lichtman, and Allkins (1991) found that colleges with exemplary professional development programs share the following characteristics: (1) the institution has strong leadership that emphasizes growth and development; (2) full-time faculty perceive a supportive environment with professional development as an outcome of such caring; (3) part-time faculty see themselves as significant although lesser members of the institution; (4) both institution and individual benefit from professional development; (5) professional development activities are diverse and oriented to individual needs; and (6) limitations and barriers to professional development are recognized and overcome.

There are many projects and programs in place around the nation that are intended to keep faculty current and engaged. These fall roughly into three areas: those meant to help instructors improve instructional techniques, those intended to keep them current in their field, and those designed to promote faculty renewal. Some faculty development programs incorporate two or three of these goals.

Instructional Improvement. The improvement of the quality of community college teaching is a topic of concern nationwide. Many campuses have developed unique programs for their faculty, including summer workshops, mentoring programs, and yearlong seminars. At Sinclair Community College (SCC), a committee was established to develop and implement a system to provide part-time faculty with mentors who would assist in their becoming qualified and highly effective part-time instructors. In addition, the committee established general policies relating to the employment, orientation, evaluation, and development of part-time faculty at SCC. The mentor program sought to improve instructional support

and thereby promote the retention of part-time faculty, while also improving the coordination of instruction and professional relations between full- and part-time faculty. The program gave full-time faculty, in turn, an opportunity to develop administrative and instructional support skills. A guidebook was put together that describes the mentoring program and provides documentation and resources for use in the program (Hosey, Carranza, White, and Kaur, 1990).

At Middlesex Community College, Activating Learning in the Classroom (ALC) is a yearlong instructional and professional development program designed to foster active learning. Eight professors representing each college division volunteer to redesign a course that they plan to teach within the year. The program begins at the close of the spring semester with five full days of seminars and continues with weekly seminars in the fall. During the seminars, professors analyze their own styles of teaching, the thinking of their students, and the materials in their courses. As the seminars progress, the participants transform their insights about teaching and learning into a course guide for their students. Each guide consists of an introduction to the course, a course description, an explanation of the professor's goals and objectives, and a detailed syllabus. The guides also include questions on the course readings and questions that relate course content to interdisciplinary and multicultural issues and to the students' experiences. In addition, the guides include maps, calendars, text previews, cartoons, and directions for labs, journals, and papers. The guides serve three functions. First, they implement the ideas and information garnered in the ALC seminars. Second, they celebrate the particular creativity of each member of the faculty. Third, they provide a concrete product that administrators can identify as the result of an instructional and professional development program. When asked to evaluate the ALC programs, each participating faculty member gave the program the highest ranking (Jones and Duffy, 1991).

In recognition that many faculty members are hired on the basis of their industrial credentials rather than their teaching experience, Hocking Technical College (HTC) has instituted the Quality Instruction Program (QIP), which provides new instructors with training in the attitudes, pedagogy, and skills necessary for successful teaching. QIP has been designed to use program offerings as models of good teaching. A four-day, in-service seminar requires active participant involvement in reviewing and revising course outlines, identifying desired course outcomes, planning lessons, and developing minilessons. Monthly meetings allow participants to meet with peers to discuss difficulties and successes. Classroom observations and conferences between participants and teacher educators are also part of the current program (Moran and others, 1990).

Paradigm Case Analysis (PCA) is another unique approach to increasing instructor effectiveness (Peregrym and others, 1991). In this approach, narratives of critical teaching incidents and experiences from proficient

instructors are presented and then analyzed in group discussions. Critical incidents may include those in which the instructor's intervention made a significant difference in the learning outcome or an incident that the instructor feels captures the quintessence of teaching. Collecting the cases for discussion can be achieved through advertising in the college newspaper or by approaching instructors on an individual basis. Once identified, proficient instructors describe their critical incidents on a questionnaire form. The form provides information as to what constitutes a critical incident and what to include in their narrative description. Once paradigm cases are assembled, groups of up to twelve instructors meet in a workshop setting to analyze the cases and to validate them in comparison with the literature on expert teaching. Instructors can thus learn from their colleagues' successes and innovative approaches in assisting their students.

The Community College of Philadelphia conducted a faculty development program called the Summer Content Institute in the summer of 1988. Faculty members from seven departments chose to take part because each wanted to revise a course that would be taught in the fall and to integrate into this course instructional strategies to enrich critical reading and writing. The institute was conducted as a seminar, meeting three days a week, four hours a day, for seven weeks. During these sessions, the participants were presented with selected instructional strategies to improve the reading and writing skills of their students. They became acquainted with the relevant research and were guided in reconsidering the goals of their courses. After reviewing the course curricula they had revised, the faculty received guidance as they tried out some of the activities they had developed. All of this took a good deal of time and effort, and the organizers of the institute concluded that the activities that preceded and followed the series of meetings were also important to the success of the project as a whole (Tobia and Howard, 1990).

Subject-Area Knowledge. Community college faculty must continually improve and update not only their instructional techniques but also their knowledge of the field or fields in which they teach. Especially in technical fields, the information base is always changing, and what is considered state-of-the-art equipment and knowledge is continuously being updated. As part of its faculty development efforts, Brevard Community College (BCC) offers a four- to six-week Return to Industry (RTI) summer program for faculty interested in updating and expanding their skills and knowledge base in order to remain current with changing technology. The RTI program is open to faculty in all disciplines and is applicable to the graduate course-work requirements included in the teaching contract at BCC. Interested faculty propose their own objectives, suggest industry sites, and identify the benefits of the experience to their program. Since the program is offered in the summer on noncontract time, faculty receive a modest stipend. During the nine years of RTI's existence,

fifty-four BCC faculty members have received training, and over forty business firms and government agencies have participated. In addition to benefiting from the upgrading of skills and technical knowledge in their field, teachers participating in the program report a renewed enthusiasm for teaching and an ability to integrate their on-site experiences into classroom lectures. Participating businesses and agencies welcome having an additional skilled "employee" at no cost to the company, and they appreciate the benefits of having a relationship with the teachers who instruct the future employee pool and who can refer the best graduates to the company (Layne and Forester, 1991).

Faculty Renewal. Faculty participation in scholarship is an important component of faculty renewal. Bowyer (1991) conducted a study to determine what community college presidents have done to promote and reward faculty scholarship. The presidents surveyed were asked about specific activities that demonstrate their faculty's involvement in scholarly activities and whether and in what ways the presidents encouraged faculty to participate in such activities. They were also asked whether the college's faculty evaluation system included a review of faculty scholarship. Bowyer found an array of faculty scholarly activities, including Phoenix College (Arizona) faculty's development of a computerized interactive video project in biology and a computer-assisted instruction program integrating English and library classes; Burlington Community College (New Jersey) faculty's establishment of liaison relationships with high school faculty; and the development of a consumer protection book by a Clackamas Community College (Oregon) faculty member. Moreover, fifty-five of the presidents surveyed reported that they encouraged, recognized, and rewarded faculty scholarship. Examples of incentives were the outstanding instructor awards given locally and in the Mississippi state legislature on Higher Education Day and the Northern Virginia Community College Educational Foundation's annual presentation of $1,000 awards to three faculty for outstanding teaching and scholarship. Thirty-five of the presidents indicated that their faculty evaluation system incorporates review of faculty scholarship.

Multiple demands and pressures on teachers have increased instructor burnout, a state characterized by boredom, depression, envy, and physical and emotional fatigue. Kaikai and Kaikai (1990) present suggestions for faculty on alleviating burnout, including a job diversification approach similar to one used in industry to combat boredom and monotony. In addition, they recommend that instructors request and accept assignments to teach different courses at several levels in their major discipline and that they enhance their knowledge sufficiently to be able to teach introductory courses in their disciplinary minors. Team teaching, especially when the team members come from different disciplines, offers challenges and rewards. Participation in tutorial programs and relevant community ser-

vice and volunteer activities are suggested as ways of enhancing teaching skills. Kaikai and Kaikai also suggest that faculty members invite other professionals, resource people, and practitioners in the field to participate in classroom panel discussions and that they use new delivery systems to vary and augment class presentations. College administrators can also assist instructors in overcoming burnout by recognizing and rewarding teaching excellence. The administration can also sponsor activities that enhance teaching, provide mentorship for faculty who exhibit signs of burnout, and promote a sense of community among faculty.

Kelly (1990) explores the lack of vitality among community college midcareer faculty, arguing that this may be an even more severe problem at two-year colleges than at four year institutions due to heavy faculty workloads and the presence in community college classrooms of increasing numbers of poorly prepared students. Additional causes of the problem often lie in the campus culture, the department climate, the negative influence of colleagues, the tenure system, and the institutional reward structure. Both business and other institutions of higher education provide examples from which community colleges can learn, including individualized growth plans, career planning, faculty exchanges, faculty internships, sabbaticals, job variety, faculty development programs, posttenure evaluations, and incentives and rewards for ongoing professional development.

Conclusion

Increasing numbers of students are looking to community colleges to provide either their first step in the pursuit of a higher education or the technical know-how to help them succeed in the workplace. Community college instructors must be enthusiastic about their work and able to impart the most current knowledge in the most effective manner possible if they are to meet their students' needs. Faculty development programs that renew faculty interest and provide opportunities to strengthen teaching skills and curriculum are critical in enabling community college instructors to meet this challenge successfully.

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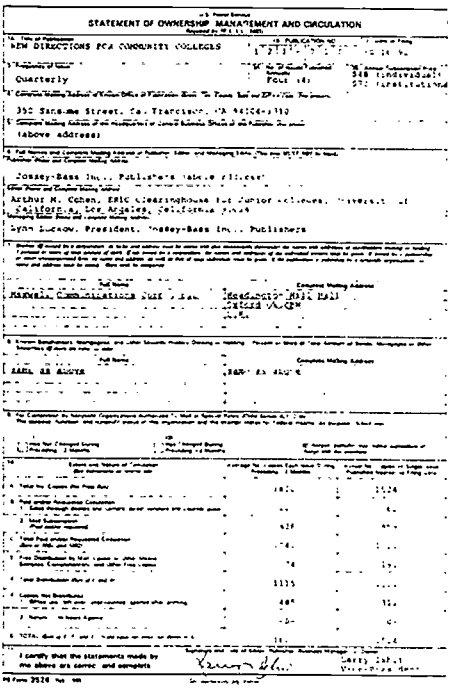

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