Published by the Ohio Association of Two-Year Colleges, this journal is designed to provide a medium for sharing concepts, methods, and findings relevant to the classroom, and an open forum for the discussion and review of problems. Volume XIX consists of the fall 1993 and spring 1994 issues, providing the following articles: (1) "FOCUS: Ohio University-Zanesville. The Efficiencies of a Co-Located Campus," by Verna H. Burton; (2) "Implementing TQM (Total Quality Management) in Two-Year Colleges," by George Kreps; (3) "The Dynamics of Cooperative Learning in Developmental Education: A Classroom Application--Writing," by Jean Candee and others; (4) "Faculty Peer Mentoring," by Dorothy Harnish and Lynn A. Wild; (5) "Journal Writing Across-the-Curriculum," by Allen Zimmerman and Linda Houston; (6) "Facilitating Learning through Journals," by Katherine Clark; (7) "An Assignment Worthy of Assignment," by James Badal; (8) "FOCUS: The Ohio State University at Newark--Pride in Quality Instruction," by Julius S. Greenstein; (9) "Management Project Prepares Students for the Work Place," by Darwin K. Smith; (10) "Minority Student Opinion in Three Northwestern Ohio Two-Year Colleges: Who Are They and How Do They Feel about Their Current College Experience?" by Gwendolyn Jones and others; (11) "Dynamics of Diversity in the Teaching-Learning Process: A Faculty Development Model for Analysis and Action," by Linda S. Marchesani and Maurianne Adams; and (12) "Classroom Pizzazz," by Susan M. Leininger. Each issue contains articles by two or more educators representing conflicting positions on selected issues; this volume addresses the effectiveness of the transfer module and the effect of mandatory outcomes assessment on educational quality. Letters reacting to previously appearing articles are included. (BCY)
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Implementing TQM in Two-Year Colleges
The Dynamics of Cooperative Learning in Developmental Education

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The Process Approach and "Correctness" in Student Writing
Provides:
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- To foster cooperation and communication among Ohio's institutions of higher education;
- To provide the viewpoint of the state assisted two-year campuses to the Ohio Board of Regents and to the State Legislature;
- To identify and improve the status, prestige, and welfare of all state-assisted two-year campuses in Ohio;
- To cooperate with other Ohio agencies, colleges, and universities in research and activities that promote the effectiveness of higher education in Ohio;
- To increase the contribution of the state-assisted two-year colleges to the total educational process in the state of Ohio.

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OATYC President Elect's Message
Carol L. Nelson-Burns

Last December, the Ohio Board of Regents released its report, "Securing the Future of Higher Education in Ohio," which discussed the ramifications of the Managing the Future Task Force Report published in September, 1992. Both documents expressed a need for Ohio's educational institutions to become simultaneously more efficient and more effective while retaining accessibility and remaining affordable, goals often in conflict because they focus energies in opposing directions.

In addition, the meaning of "accessibility" has broadened from the 60's when the Board of Regents recommended locating "an institution of higher education within commuting distance of every Ohioan." Today, accessibility encompasses the requirement of providing "reasonable accommodation" and "least restrictive environment" as required by the Higher Education Act of 1973, particularly Section 504, and the more far reaching demands of the Americans with Disabilities Act (to be discussed by Drs. Marilyn Valentino and Janice McClure, along with Ms. Janet Stevens-Brown, at OATYC's annual conference). Accessibility also requires us to consider the needs of students who may decide to return to school later in life, a pattern evident in Ohio's colleges and universities. Judith Wootten's presentation explores the problems of requiring such often underprepared students to follow a curriculum designed for more "traditional" academic preparation. Another interpretation of accessibility involves the attempt to attract and retain minority students, many of whom are the first members of their families to pursue postsecondary education. Their perceptions are explored by Dr. Gwendolyn Jones at this year's conference.

The mandate given higher education by the documents named above is that we must clean our house, tighten our belt, be more responsive to our communities' needs or demands, do a better job of educating—and do it more cost effectively. It is tempting to respond to such a charge defensively or to justify what we do and how we do it. But the demands of these reports will not go quietly away; we must, therefore, deal with both their tone and their substance. Clearly, in this new era of scrutiny and accountability, Ohio's educators must take on a new role.

Faculty, administrators and staff at two-year colleges must understand the implications and ramifications of such public demands on our programs, and we ourselves must suggest creative ways to contain our costs while preserving our integrity. Dr. Maryellen Weiner (our conference keynote speaker) reminds us to retain our focus on scholarship, and presidents of two-year colleges in Ohio—Dr. James Countryman, Dr. Charlotte Lee and Dr. Larry McDoug—will share their visions and concerns about that future.

It is my sincere belief that, given our personal attributes and the tenets of the profession we have chosen, we can forge a better system. With our respect for knowledge, our passion for learning, our vision of potential and possibility, we can cooperate, collaborate, conceptualize, and construct our future, before others try to do it for us. Let us then examine outdated courses, curricula once current, methodology no longer effective, and programs that overlap without expanding. Let us create instead courses of study in keeping with the opportunities of new technologies, the needs of new constituents and the constraints of different economies. Perhaps then we may become more vital leaders of the coming change, not complacent with our status quo nor threatened by the challenges ahead. I believe we do have the tools for managing our own future. Let us go forward to that task with commitment and energy.


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INFORMATION FOR PROSPECTIVE CONTRIBUTORS

The Journal encourages submission of material for any of its sections by faculty, staff, administrators and/or trustees of any of Ohio's community, general and technical, junior, regional and technical campuses. The Journal is particularly receptive to articles of general professional importance in the areas of administration, instruction, and baccalaureate or technical studies for two-year institutions.

There are forty-four solicitors of editorial material listed (see page 38). Contact your campus solicitor or one nearest you to inquire about submitting a specific manuscript.

Manuscripts must be typed, double-spaced and of approximately 1,000-3,000 words in length. All submissions must be accompanied by a stamped, self-addressed envelope for return. Art work must be black and white. Photos glossy; tables and drawings on 8½ by 11 paper. The name and address of the contributor should be on the back of all art copy.

Editorial Policy

The Journal is not responsible for manuscripts or materials lost in mailing nor is it responsible for returning items not accompanied by a stamped, self-addressed envelope. The Journal reserves the right to edit manuscripts to meet its needs and objectives. Where major revisions are necessary, every effort will be made to clear the changes with the author.

Submission deadline for the next Journal is March 16, 1994.

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In the southeastern region of Ohio, close to the Muskingum River sits the serene and scenic campus of Ohio University-Zanesville. In this edition, Verna H. Burton guides us on a verbal tour of OUZ, a college where the "services provided . . . contribute to the quality of life of the region in distinctive ways."

"In Ohio, co-located campuses are a reality, whether or not they might have been planned that way," says Dr. Craig Laubenthal, dean of Ohio University-Zanesville. "Along with our neighbor, Muskingum Area Technical College, we have found a way to make our co-located campus an advantage to Zanesville and the entire southeastern Ohio area we serve. The two of us together provide a full-service higher education operation."

Dr. Lynn Willet, left, president of Muskingum Area Technical College, and Dr. Craig Laubenthal, dean of Ohio University-Zanesville, together lay the cornerstone for a new Campus Center, whose facilities they share.
This is particularly important in rural southeastern Ohio. In this part of the state, fewer curriculum choices are available to students because of the small number of higher education institutions. Factors typical of the Appalachian corridor - terrain, distance, scattered communities and a poor economy have been addressed and mitigated by the presence of OUZ and MATC.

The Zanesville Campus they share, along with Ohio's six other co-located campuses — sites shared by a university regional campus and an independently governed technical college — came under close scrutiny during the past year. The Statewide Managing for the Future Task Force, heeding Governor George V. Voinovich's mandate to examine ways Ohio's public higher education system could operate more efficiently, recommended that they be merged into community colleges.

There followed an extensive review. It brought to light how successfully the Zanesville Campus is functioning. Since 1975, OUZ and MATC have worked cooperatively to plan and share facilities, programs, services and personnel.

As a result, both institutions and their advisory and governing boards agree that it is important to maintain the strengths of the two different but equally important missions. A self-study report, requested by the Board of Regents, was produced by OUZ and MATC with the help of an out-of-state consultant. After analyzing class offerings, finances and joint community impact, it concluded that the two institutions are maximizing educational opportunities for the area. Merging into a community college is no longer under consideration.

Numerous Degree Offerings

What did the Board of Regents find in Zanesville?

OUZ was initially designed, upon its establishment in 1946, to provide freshman and sophomore-level educational opportunities and transfer programs that can lead to Associate in Arts and Associate in Science degrees.

Since that time, its programs have expanded dramatically, to meet local needs. OUZ has offered associate degree programs in Nursing and Radio/Television (now Electronic Media) for over 20 years, including associated continuing education experiences. The Ohio University School of Nursing in

The Zanesville Campus Library stocks books and other media for the needs of students attending both institutions it serves.
Athens also offers the bachelor of science degree in Nursing on the Zanesville campus.

Through OUZ's offering of the complete bachelor's degree in Elementary Education, nine area teachers have been produced over the past 20 years. Through the Consortium for Instructional Improvement begun by OUZ ten years ago, hundreds of school teachers and administrators have received professional development training and have been exposed to new concepts in education.

Students are able to use another OUZ bachelor's degree program, Specialized Studies, to customize a program which suits their specific personal and career training or retraining needs, including career advancement.

The OUZ presence in southeastern Ohio has meant substantial offerings of junior and senior courses as well as the complete bachelor's degree programs. In addition, 15 complete master's degrees have been offered in Zanesville, based on local needs assessments, on a time-specific and site-specific basis.

Dollar-saving Cooperation

OUZ and neighboring MATC have developed a number of efficiencies and student-oriented shared services which save more than $250,000 a year. The analysis of organizational efficiencies actually revealed 25 areas of shared services and facilities, and joint programming.

Last year alone, a joint fitness/wellness program and facility, child care and campus security were added. In addition, the remedial/developmental services were brought into a new cooperative relationship.

On the Zanesville Campus there is one library, one bookstore, one athletic program, one physical plant and maintenance staff, shared buildings and grounds, shared equipment, shared campus events, cost sharing, one food service, and joint production of numerous community service ice events. A cross-registration policy allows full-time students and employees to take one free course each quarter at the other institution.

There are no duplicated academic-programs. OUZ and MATC do offer
similar general education courses in such areas as English and math, but these sections are full timed to fit into particular programs, and sometimes tailored to meet the needs of specific curricula; similar courses are not considered as being duplicative.

Curriculum cooperation can be seen in an area such as Law Enforcement. Students begin at MATC, then can continue at OUZ in the bachelor of Criminal Justice 2 + 2 program.

The Book Store and Cafeteria, located in the Campus Center, are two of the services which are not duplicated on Zanesville Campus.

A mutually satisfactory articulation agreement has been successfully implemented between the two institutions. Usually without additional costs, MATC students can take university courses while they complete associate degrees. Conversely, students completing associate degrees find minimum difficulty in continuing their education at OUZ.

New Savings Sought Each Year

Annually, Dr. Laubenthal and the president of MATC, Dr. Lynn Willett, together look at all programs and functions to determine where additional savings can be realized and services to students and community improved.

Currently, the executive offices, business offices, general student services, faculty support, continuing education, public relations, reception and telephone, and instructional media are those functions that remain separate, although sharing and cooperation are notable. Generally it is felt that most of these sensitive areas must remain separate in support of the philosophy of maintaining the integrity of the two institutional missions.

It should be noted that even though these areas appear somewhat duplicative, the OUZ staff is very small because it receives considerable support from the main Athens Campus in the areas of admissions, financial aid, business services and registration (including student records). Some Athens Campus business services also partially support MATC.
In some cases, the positions involved would remain even if departmental mergers were implemented, due to the size of the combined enrollments and other considerations.

Current cooperative ventures between the two institutions have included a joint student committee on athletics, entertainment and associated events, articulation of the learning centers, joint programming for career and college days and other campus programs, cross registration, and joint production of community events.

The areas of student services, continuing education, public relations, and reception/telephone have been identified as possibilities for developing future efficiencies.

Future planning efforts in the area of academic programs will focus on transfer issues, better curricular communications, and more interaction between the two faculties.

Sometimes studies on possible new areas of sharing occur at the time of

Students take advantage of a wellness/fitness program, which is among the latest facilities to be shared by OUZ and MATC.
resignations or other dramatic changes on campus. These do not, however, always result in the merger of a function, if other factors speak more strongly to maintaining separateness.

A Model for the State

Because of its spirit of cooperation, evinced in so many shared resources, the Zanesville Campus has been called a model for the state.

OUZ also ranks high in a number of other attributes. Classes are taught by a qualified, dedicated faculty whose primary role is to help students meet their educational goals. Faculty members at OUZ have many advanced degrees and an average of ten years of college teaching experience. Classes are small, providing for an interchange of ideas between students and faculty.

An active Student Senate is the spearhead for a profusion of recreational and social activities which foster a camaraderie sometimes missing on a commuter campus such as OUZ.

Enrollment at OUZ is approximately 1,700 students, of which about 26 percent are graduate students. Most students reside in Muskingum, Guernsey, Morgan, Coshocton, Perry, Noble and Licking Counties. Typically, they live at home, but private housing is available, adjacent to the campus.

Currently a major renovation of buildings and grounds is in progress, which will add to the aesthetics of an already beautiful campus. Facilities consist of four buildings, including Elson Hall, the major classroom and office building; the Library in Herrold Hall; and Littick Hall, the physical education facility. The new shared Campus Center houses the bookstore and food service as well as a convention center, classrooms and offices.

As the self-study report summarized, the services provided by OUZ and MATC contribute to the quality of life of their region in distinctive ways, corresponding to their separate missions. Together, they play a critical role in the future of southeastern Ohio.

Verna H. Burton
Public Relations Coordinator
Ohio University-Zanesville
Zanesville, OH 43701

Implementing TQM in Two-Year Colleges

George Kreps

Total Quality Management offers both a process and a system to produce dynamic changes in the organization and operations of two-year colleges in the areas of academics, service and administration.

Two-year colleges face challenges similar to those facing manufacturing, businesses and service industries. We are reminded of these changes in the news from the business pages of our newspapers about down-sizing, restructuring, early retirements, just in time, quality circles and total quality management.

Two-year colleges have been in the vanguard in adapting to changes in society and TQM can be an effective way to meet these challenges. The initial incentive for using TQM in two-year colleges came from business and industry. Fox Valley Technical College and Delaware County Community College are two examples where the colleges provided TQM training programs for industry and then began the process of using TQM for their own operations. The regional
accreditation associations are asking for increased assessment of student achievement and the incorporation of the assessment results into academic planning (Ewell, "Assessment and TQM: In Search of Convergence," 1991: 39-52). TQM enhances the assessment process in colleges. The demographic changes found in the age, marital status and races of people attending colleges today are forcing higher education to provide more and varied services. Changes in the type of jobs and the need for more post high school training place increased demands on the colleges, while at the same time there are decreased or static levels of public funding. All these combine to force more colleges to find better ways to serve people with the same level of resources as before.

William E. Hull in "The Quality Quest in Academia" (1992:225-240) gives this description of the situation facing colleges and a means to successfully meet these changes. "Academic life in America today exists in a world with too many schools and too few students, too many fixed costs and too few discretionary dollars, too many competitors and too few supporters. In such a world, survival does belong to the fittest, which will be those institutions imbued with a passion for quality that extends to every member of the community,faculty included. Some may prefer a more sedate, less demanding academic lifestyle but this will no longer fill our classrooms, build our buildings, and pay our salaries. Accepting a quality quest means, first and foremost, a willingness--yea, an eagerness! - to be truly competitive in the educational arena." TQM is a way for our colleges to continue their quest for quality service in spite of increased demands for service and static funding sources.

This article will develop several definitions of TQM for higher education. It then examines briefly TQM Programs at Fox Valley Technical College and Delaware County Community College, a plan for a five-year institutional implementation of TQM, a summary, and a brief list of TQM resources.

TQM can be defined in various ways. Jablonski, (1992) suggests that TQM fundamentals have been around awhile and he traces them to J.C. Penny's, "Penny Idea" in 1913. There were seven tenants on which J.C. Penny company was organized. They illustrate the fact that TQM has been used in US business under other names. The seven J.C. Penny tenants are:

1. To serve the public, as nearly as we can to its complete satisfaction.
2. To expect for the service we render a fair remuneration and not all the profit the traffic will bear.
3. To do all in our power to pack the customer's dollar full of value, quality, and satisfaction.
4. To continue to train ourselves and our associates so that the services we give will be more and more intelligently performed.
5. To improve constantly the human factor in our business.
6. To reward men and women in our organization through participation in what the business produces.
7. To test our every policy, method and act in this way: "Does it square with what is just and right?"

Jablonski, (1992:21) gives this current definition of Total Quality Management as "a cooperative form of doing business that relies on the talents and capabilities of both labor and management to continually improve quality and productivity using teams."

Sherr and Teeter editors of Total Quality Management in Higher Education, Jossey Press, 1991, assembled articles from a group of scholars and administrators on the subject of TQM in higher education. In their book, Edwin Coete, Oregon State University says that total quality management is defined as
a combination of quality control theory, systems, tools and organizational models developed over the last two years both in the United States and Japan by W. Edwards Deming, J.M. Juran, Phillip Crosby and others. TQM is a structured system for creating organization-wide participation in planning and implementing a continuous improvement process. That process should produce results that exceed the expectations of the customer. TQM is built on the assumption that 90 percent of problems are process problems, not employee problems.

A second version of TQM in higher education is provided by William Anderson, OSU/ATI, in a memo to faculty and staff. He says that TQM is a method of operation that focuses on customer satisfaction. TQM attempts to exceed the expectations of the customers, both external customers (prospective students, employers, the local community) and internal customers (current students, all OSU/ATI employees who serve each other in one way or another). TQM is an empowerment process, where ideas of all members of the campus community are valued, teams of affected individuals address problems, propose solutions and decision-making is delegated to those most clearly associated with everyday processes. TQM guarantees that an organization will listen to its customers, identify customer needs and incorporates those needs into every phase of its operations.

A third version of TQM comes from a statement by Stephen Uzelac in Zen Leadership: The Human Side of Total Quality Team Management, 1993. He says that TQM is based in part on assumptions from Maslow’s theory of motivation and McGregor’s Theory X and Theory Y of management. He says that the mission of quality improvement teams is to give people influence and empowerment over their work. The training process for TQM is based upon a philosophy which recognizes individual people as total human beings who desire to participate in decisions affecting their quality of life. McGregor presents an argument that most management actions flow directly from whatever theory of human behavior a manager holds. This theory holds that what ever a manager believes about people will control the manager’s actions.

### THEORY X - TRADITIONAL ASSUMPTIONS

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### THEORY Y - MODERN ASSUMPTIONS

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<td>ZEN LEADERSHIP</td>
<td>RESPONSIBLE</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PARTNERSHIP</td>
<td>TEAM PLAYER</td>
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<td></td>
<td>EMPOWERMENT</td>
<td>ENTHUSIASTIC</td>
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<td></td>
<td>MISSION</td>
<td>COMMON AGENDA</td>
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<tr>
<td>Trust:</td>
<td>HIGH</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cooperation:</td>
<td>ACTIVE</td>
<td>ACTIVE</td>
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</table>
Accordingly, a manager’s beliefs that reflect traditional assumptions or Theory X will result in a leadership style that is autocratic and that the manager’s role is to control people. On the other hand when a manager’s beliefs reflect Theory Y, the leadership will tend towards being supportive and the role will be help employees release their skills towards common work objectives. He describes the differences in management practices and employee behavior in the two models.

TQM is a process to help an organization make a transfer from using Theory X assumptions about human behavior to Theory Y assumptions about human behavior. TQM provides new patterns of administration and decision-making which enable employees to take more active ownership in the mission and programs of the institution.

Don Butto of Goodyear, in conversations with the author, says that TQM should really to titled “TQC” or total quality culture. He says this for two reasons. The first is that TQM is really about changing the culture of an organization. Secondly, it will therefore require time, effort an commitment by members at all levels of the organization. Theory X and Theory Y assumptions call attention to Butto’s idea that TQM is about culture change whether it is in corporations or in higher education. Another way to describe the mission of TQM is that it is changing the paradigm of organizational structure and behavior from the traditional model to the modern one.

MODEL FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A TOTAL QUALITY PROGRAM IN A TWO-YEAR COLLEGE

YEAR ONE
* Explore total quality management for the institution
* Train administrators, faculty, staff, board members in Phase One Total Quality Management
* Develop a vision statement
* Appoint a TQM coordinator
* Establish a pilot project team or teams

YEAR TWO
* Train faculty and staff in TQM in all areas
* Train staff in all operational areas
* Define the needs of customers, i.e., students, faculty, staff, administrators, general public
* Develop a step-by-step planning process for all teams

YEAR THREE
* Provide teambuilding training unit by unit
* Develop work unit problem solving activities
* Recognition and celebration of team results
* Implementation of TQM in the classroom

YEAR FOUR
* Provide for external audit of quality process
* Phase Two training for faculty, staff and administrators
* Use of TQM in academic division management
* Recognition and celebration of team results

YEAR FIVE
* Use of TQM in administrative council
* Training for self-managing groups
* Develop a vision statement for the next five years
* Recognition and celebration of team results
Fox Valley Technical College and Delaware County Community College have been involved with both teaching TQM courses and incorporating TQM into their administrative, academic and service systems since 1986. They have published articles and books about their TQM efforts and conduct training seminars on TQM in higher education. Sherr and Teeter (1991:91) list twenty-five institutions of which the following are two-year institutions: Delaware County Community College, Media, Pa.; Fox Valley Technical College, Appleton, Wisconsin; Hawkeye Institute of Technology, Waterloo, Iowa; Jackson Community College, Jackson, Michigan; Lamar Community College, Lamar, CO; Palm Beach Community College, Lake Worth, FL; St. Augustine Technical Center, St. Augustine, Florida. The author has heard that Columbus State Community College, Columbus, Ohio, is using TQM.

Spanbauer in *A Quality System for Education*, 1992, has indicated a model based on FVTC'S experience. The model can be used for most institutions of higher education. It is similar to the one listed by Coate at Oregon State University, (1991:27-38).

Coate at Oregon State University (1991:27-39) divides the total quality management process into two parts. First is the TQM Strategic Planning phase and the second is the TQM Team Process. Phase one involves a seven-stage process. Phase two is a ten-step process used by each team as it studies problems and implements solutions.

The use of TQM has produced significant results in colleges. For example, DCCC (*Total Quality Management in Higher Education*, 1991:13-25) used the TQM process with a team to reduce the number of lost telephone calls coming into their admissions office from 19% to 0%. A DCCC faculty chairperson has reorganized her secretarial staff into a team with the result that they handle a larger volume of work with fewer mistakes with the workload from 90 instructors.

### TQM STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Review University Strategic Plan</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Review unit, division, Dept. mission, goals, etc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Identify all customers (do surveys, etc.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Identify unit vision and breakthrough items (or super goals)</td>
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<td>5.</td>
<td>Identify critical processes for unit, division, department, and discuss evaluation criteria</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Train team leaders, facilitators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Form teams around each critical</td>
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### TQM TEAM PROCESS

- Interview customers
- Select issue and develop performance measures
- Diagram the process
- Diagram causes & effects
- Collect and analyze data on causes
- Develop solutions
- Benchmark
- Select and implement solutions
- Plan-Act-Do-Check process
- Measure results and refine measures
- TEAM SELECTIONS THE NEXT ISSUE
Coate (Oregon State University) (Total Quality Management in Higher Education, 1991: 27-38) cites the use of TQM by the physical plant department to reduce the time in the remodeling process by 10% and then by another 23%. He also observed that a nonmeasurable change occurred in the quality of the remodeling jobs. The employees were doing a better job and their morale increased.

Harris and Baggett in Quality Quest in the Academic Process(1992) provides a series of articles by Samford University faculty and administrators on ways they have implemented TQM in their classrooms and in their academic departments.

OSU/ATI has formed a team using TQM to examine the retention rate for students and make recommendations to improve the rate. The team studied the problem, conducted surveys and prepared its report to the Director. This report proposes specific ways to increase the retention rate by 1% per year. Team members will have the opportunity to implement their recommendations.

These examples are only the tip of the iceberg in terms of TQM being utilized in institutions of higher education. However, they do illustrate that TQM is working and producing results.

The author's own experience in advising, consulting and teaching TQM for the past three years supports the idea that TQM is effective for improving communication in the classroom, and that it is useful for improving the administrative process in two-year colleges and that there is demand from business and industry for training programs in TQM. The author has been teaching TQM classes in local industries. He has observed the TQM process at Honda Auto Manufacturing both in Ohio and Japan and at Goodyear in Akron. He has used TQM in his own social science classes and is currently serving as a facilitator for an OSU/ATI Team to improve the retention rate of students at the Institute.

TQM offers a process and a system to enable two-year colleges to better serve their customers, i.e., students, business and industry and the communities, while at the same time empowering faculty and staff to become more involved in defining problems and implementing decisions that affect the quality of academic programs. The advantages of a TQM system for two-year colleges are both quantitative and qualitative. The college becomes proactive rather than reactive. Financially, the college can improve services without significantly increasing costs. These improvements enable the college to be more competitive in our society by providing more services and improved services.

In summary these are points to consider in the implementation of TQM in two-year colleges.

1. Two-year colleges have been successfully implementing TQM in their administration, their academic programs and in continuing education and can serve as models. Two examples are Fox Valley Technical College, Appleton, Wisconsin; and Delaware County Community College, Media, PA.

2. TQM is useful to colleges as they comply with the mandate from the North Central Association and other accrediting associations to implement annual programs of institutional effectiveness and student assessment (Ewell: 1991: 39-52, "Assessment and TQM: In Search of Convergence").

3. Total Quality Management has been defined by Jablonski (1992) and Coate (1991) as a combination of quality control theory, systems, tools and organizational models developed over the past 40 years both in the United States and Japan by Deming, Juran, Crosby and others. . . it is a structured
system for creating organizational-wide participation in planning and implementing a continuous improvement process. That process should produce results that exceed the expectations of the customers. TQM is built on the assumption that 90 percent of work problems are process problems, not employee problems.

4. TQM theory and practice is based in part on assumptions derived from Maslow’s Theory of Motivation and Douglas McGregor’s Theory X and Theory Y.

5. Effective implementation of TQM in a two-year college will require at least five years. Staff and faculty at Delaware County Community College indicate there still are many opportunities for additional implementation about the first five-year plan was implemented.

6. Effective implementation of TQM needs the full support of the college administration during the initial five-year period and the patience to wait for results.

7. It is necessary to spend time and funds on training for administrators, faculty and staff in the use of TQM (Spanbauer: 1992: 21-22).

8. Costs include a coordinator or facilitator for TQM, contracting for initial training and providing time for faculty and staff to attend training.

9. Helpful TQM Resources include:

   Memory Jogger for Education: A pocket Guide of Tools for Continuous Improvement in Schools. This pocket sized booklet of 88 pages gives a basic description of TQM, Team Building and Problem Solving Techniques. These include flowcharts, check sheet, brainstorming, nominal group technique, Pareto Charts, Cause and Effect Diagrams, Run charts, stratification, histogram, scatter diagram, control chart and force field analysis.

   The second is The Team Handbook by Peter R. Sholtes. This loose leaf book expands on the techniques used in organizing teams and implementing TQM processes. (The author has used in classes with industryangers and found that it is the type of book they will refer to after completing the course).

   Next is Total Quality Management in Higher Education, editors Sheer and Teeter. The editors provide an introduction to the use of TQM in various institutions of higher education such as Oregon State University, Delaware County Community College and Virginia Polytechnic Institute and University.

   In A Quality System for Education, Stanley J. Spanbauer, President of Fox Valley Technical College describes TQM as it has developed at FVTC since 1985.

   Last is Quality Quest in the Academic Process, edited by Harris and Baggett. It contains series of articles written for the most part by faculty and administrators of Samford University, Birmingham, Alabama. It describes their implementation of TQM both in administration and in the classroom.

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The Dynamics of Cooperative Learning in Developmental Education: A Classroom Application--Writing

Jean Candee, Brenda Carmichael, Stanley Klosek, Jerry Pratt, Jean Seidel, Brenda Shepherd, and Philis Walker

Theory: Cooperative Learning

Recent years have witnessed a renewed interest in the theory of cooperative learning. It is most often described as an instructional strategy in which small groups work together toward common goals in a structured setting. The wording may differ from author to author, but the intent is the same. Students interact in a cooperative setting and participate in a discussion centered around dearly defined objectives. It is assumed that the group's interaction will enable individuals within the group to learn from one another. One approach even stipulates that the group does not proceed to the next set of objectives until all within that group know and understand the objective under study.

Classroom Application: the Methodology

Subscribing to the theory of cooperative learning, a group of five developmental education instructional assistants, a director of the tutoring program, and an English faculty member at Cuyahoga Community College decided to apply the theory. A developmental English section (098 Language Fundamentals II) was designated as the test group. Since this was not viewed as a strict research project, no control group was established. The class was scheduled for the Spring Quarter, 1993.

As the quarter began, it became clear that there was no clear vision on the nature of cooperative learning between the instructor and the instructional assistants. The decision was made to retreat from conducting the experiment immediately, and, instead, conduct a series of discussions on the nature of cooperative learning. The group met twice a week for a five-week period to discuss the theory and, specifically, the application of the theory to the last five weeks of the course which dealt with writing objectives. Each week, one instructional assistant as well as the instructor, was to play the role of the group leader teaching a writing objective in a cooperative mode with the other instructional members. The official college syllabus for the 098 course fixed the writing objectives of the course. It states that students are to write paragraphs using the following rhetorical patterns: example, process, comparison/contrast, definition, and the essay. The 098 course is defined as preparatory to the 099 course in which the essay is the primary mode of writing. The assumption tacit in this course arrangement is that knowing the structure of the paragraph will lead to an understanding of the structure of the essay. The role playing schematic follows:

Introduce Objective 7
Upon completion of this objective, the student will be able to write an example paragraph.

Required Resources:
Learning Activities - General:
For the following objective, read in *English Skills with Readings*, pages 115-125. Choose one writing assignment from pages 120-125 and write an example paragraph. There may be several revisions before achieving this objective.

Specific Learning Activities:
15 minutes - Meet group and discuss brainstorming and freewriting.
15 minutes - Have each member of the group freewrite on a topic of his/her choosing. Pick from among the topics on pp. 120-125 in *English Skills with Readings*, Langan, John. Point out that the brainstorming (finding a topic) was done by Langan.
15 minutes - Have each student share his freewriting attempt with the group.
10 minutes - Give assignment for next class. Hand out model paragraphs and instruct them to do a rough draft of an example paragraph based on their freewriting exercise. Emphasize that this rough draft should have a clear topic sentence, development, and a conclusion.

Model Example Paragraphs

**A lack of control causes driving accidents.** For example, a recent car accident made me aware that being careful and calm were the best precautions in preventing car accidents. On February 10, 1989, an accident occurred which made this evident. I overslept and was late in picking up the children. Because of my haste and nervousness, I was not careful. The effect was clear. I lost control; the result was an accident. I felt this could have been prevented if I had stayed calm and careful. Another time a friend of mine, named Tim, had an accident on the way home. This accident happened because the lit tip of his cigarette fell between his legs. In an effort to extinguish the burning, he lost control and hit the car in front of him. Afterwards, he and I talked and we both realized that the accident was a result of not being in control. Staying calm and being more careful, therefore, is the key to being a good driver.

**I know a lot of people who are dishonest.** My little sister, for example, is dishonest. Last week, when she went into the local convenience store, she stole some Snickers and Twinkies. She came home afterwards and slipped a knife into my piggy bank and extracted most of the money I had saved over the last month. My ex-boyfriend, who is a deputy sheriff, is another good example of a dishonest person. He frequently stops drivers, and, if they have drugs, he confiscates the drugs and resells them at a profit. Ad writers, too, can be dishonest. An ad in the *Times* recently stated that, for $19.95, one could buy a crystal ball that would tell one's future. My mother, who is a sucker for this kind of ad, bought it. Obviously, it did not work even though she continues to look into it and swear she sees her dead brother. As one can see, I know a lot of people who are dishonest.

What was important in this role playing assignment for each of the instructional assistants, as well as the instructor, was that it would replicate the agenda the students would have on the day the cooperative learning sessions would begin. To avoid a rigidity in the time line, allowance was made for
individual group differences. The class size at the time the experiment was conducted was down to twenty students. This meant that the group could be divided among the five instructional assistants and the instructor - roughly three students to a group leader. A normal 098 English section contains twenty-seven students and meets Monday through Friday for one hour. Thus, in this circumstance, the group size would go up to four.

**Daily Procedure**

On Monday of each week, the three students would meet with their group leader. They would be given the writing objectives (as shown before in the role playing schematic), with only the rhetorical mode differing each week. After an introduction by the group leader which set the agenda for the week, the group would discuss Item 1 of the agenda for 15 minutes: brainstorming and freewriting together. During that fifteen minute discussion, or immediately after it, each student would select a topic of interest to him/her and freewrite for an additional fifteen minutes on a carbonless form. The form simulated a loose-leaf notebook paper and allowed for the production of as many as five copies of the freewriting attempt. At the end of the freewrite exercise, the students would tear off their initial attempts and share the copies with other students. Each student would then read his freewrite aloud while the others listened. After all of the students read their freewrites, the group leader would lead the group in a discussion of the merits of each attempt. Developing topic sentences, adequate detail, and conclusions were the focus of the discussions. The instructional assistants and the faculty member who formed the core group (group leaders) felt that this kind of open sharing of attempts would demonstrate to the students that there were many ways to approach the development of a topic. The carbonless forms also provided a visual of each attempt. The group leaders agreed to stress the positive aspects of each student's attempt at developing a topic for writing.

**Group Leader Observations**

1. The first six weeks of the eleven week course were not taught using the cooperative approach. It was taught in a lecture mode. Thus students identified with the instructor in charge. As a result, when the cooperative phase began, students felt compelled to separate from the group and go to the instructor for explanations. This detracted from the cooperative thrust needed for measuring the success of the learning strategy. It was handled in this way. The student's immediate need was satisfied. Then he was instructed to return to the group since his input was necessary for success.

2. Absences caused students to miss instruction. This acted as a disrupter to the group dynamic. The problem resolved itself, however. It happened that the instructor's students were no shows. Everyone agreed to send the absentee students to the instructor who then brought them up-to-date and returned them to the group the next day. Thus, the group dynamic continued and the absentee student received his instruction. Having someone free to handle absences, therefore, should be incorporated into the cooperative learning setting.

3. Cooperative editing of writing attempts proved successful. Students, after listening to each of their attempts at writing, began to ask questions on grammar and style. Students asked such questions as: Why did you put that information
there?; Could this be taken out?; Could this be said more clearly? The carbonless form developed for use by students helped. Each student had a visual and tactile sample of a student's writing to relate to.

4. One group leader suggested that, in an urban and commuter setting, some time should be devoted to help students adapt to an academic setting and academic values, particularly with reference to attendance. Developmental students are often unaware of the relationship between attendance values in school and on the job. They are often unaware of the appropriate behavior necessary to succeed academically.

Student Comments

1. I have learned to write effective papers.
2. I have a better understanding of setting up my papers.
3. I am becoming a better writer by taking time to look over my mistakes.
4. I gained skills in how to write different kinds of paragraphs.
5. I know more about the paragraph than I did before.
6. This approach will help when we move up to a high level of English.
7. I enjoyed that we had special help from other students and other teachers.
8. Because of the experience, I can put my thoughts together better.
9. I learned about essays, punctuation, nouns, verbs, and other points of grammar.
10. I regret that the time was so short.

Conclusions

What began as an attempt to evaluate the concept of cooperative learning with students, emerged as a cooperative learning experience for instructional staff as well. In fact, this article is the final product of that cooperative experience. It has been written in a joint manner down to the final edit. That being said, in arriving at a concept of cooperative learning for students, the instructional staff (group leaders) had to agree among itself on the format of instruction. This format comprised, not only the content of the writing objectives, but the development of forms to be used with the groups to expedite the discussions. The role playing of the teaching assignments by each group leader also led to a more uniform verbalization of each day's cooperative experience. This insured a "sameness" of instruction, yet allowing for individual differences among groups leaders. In effect, the experience gained from this cooperative thrust by faculty and students was useful. In general, all agreed that the experience should be continued with a greater stress put on measuring the quality of future attempts.

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For the personal and professional development of faculty, colleges frequently rely on mentoring to mold a new generation of practitioners. The guidance and support of a seasoned instructor can provide the novice with a foundation of effective strategies, useful knowledge, and proven applications that would otherwise be learned through trial and error. In addition to the personal growth of the individuals involved, faculty mentoring profits the institution by strengthening instructional effectiveness. (Reprinted with the permission of the AACC Journal, excerpted from the August/September edition)

A mentor may be a role model, sponsor, guide, teacher, adviser, coach, or confidant. Whatever the role, the relationship dynamic traditionally involves an experienced senior person guiding an inexperienced junior one. However, peers can also be effective mentors. In peer mentoring, those in the mentor relationship are equals. Both have something of value to contribute to and to gain from each other in what is defined as a mutually helpful situation. For faculty, the peer mentoring model is closer to what often occurs spontaneously through informal interaction. Therein lies peer mentoring's potential as an effective instructional and professional development activity for faculty at all stages of their careers.

Instructional and professional development activities strive to change and improve the functioning of faculty, particularly in instructional effectiveness. Naturally occurring interactions among faculty and peers facilitate the creation and dissemination of instructional innovations (Keele and DeLaMare-Schaefer, 1984). Therefore, when this informal interaction is supported and directed through a structured peer mentoring process, peer mentoring becomes a powerful intervention strategy for the improvement of instruction.

This article examines the use of peer mentoring as a faculty development approach through case studies of structured peer mentor projects at a rural community college.

The Setting

The community college that provides the setting for the case studies is a rural institution with 5,000 students and 180 full-time faculty. As part of a federal Title III grant, the college created and staffed a Faculty Resource Center for Academic Excellence (FRAE) to support instructional improvement projects in peer mentoring, team teaching, test development, videotape instruction, interactive videodisc, computer-assisted instruction, and learning across the curriculum. Within these areas faculty were free to design a variety of instructional applications. The grant provided stipends or release time for faculty participants as well as supplies and technical expertise. Faculty in peer mentoring projects received a 20 percent load reduction each semester for one year to complete their project activities.
Peer mentoring projects were included in the Title III grant as a way of recognizing effective faculty and utilizing their strengths. The projects also took advantage of the positive colleague relationships that already existed at the institution. Project goals addressed faculty desires to improve teaching effectiveness in the classroom or laboratory, to share discipline-related information or teaching methods with colleagues, or to expand content area knowledge or skills into new areas of learning. A total of 12 peer mentor projects were completed over the five years of the grant. Unlike conventional mentor relationships, there were not always significant differences in age, experience, rank, or career stage between the faculty in mentor projects. Participants achieved a level of mutual expertise, equality, and empathy frequently absent from traditional mentoring relationships.

Research Methods

Each peer mentor project had individual project objectives, activities, and methods for evaluating goal accomplishment and project outcomes. Pre- and post-self-assessment measures of faculty participant knowledge related to project objectives were collected, and the participants submitted a final report on project outcomes.

As part of their data collection, the FRCAE staff conducted structured, videotaped interviews to capture and communicate better participants' diverse experiences and to determine what difference the peer mentor project made to faculty and their teaching.

A videotaped interview approach allowed the interviewer to pursue faculty responses; ask for elaboration, clarification, or redefinition; and probe based on faculty verbal and nonverbal cues. Interview questions focused on faculty perceptions of that project's success. Each interview was transcribed verbatim. Using an iterative process of data analysis (Miles and Hubemman, 1984), the interviews were summarized, categorized, and analyzed for recurrent themes. The analyses, which are both descriptive and inferential, provide information on the unique features of each peer mentor project and identify areas where further exploration is needed. Information from these data sources was used to compile the following case studies.

Case One: Mentoring within a Division

The director of the Nursing Department, hoping to strengthen the RN program by updating clinical skills of full-time laboratory faculty, initiated a peer mentoring project. Chosen for the project were a nursing faculty member with 10 years of teaching and current experience in clinical settings, and two nursing laboratory faculty who had been providing on-campus lab instruction for a combined total of 27 years but whose knowledge of the latest hospital equipment and procedures was seriously out of date. To improve the effectiveness of clinical instruction for students, the teaching faculty member was asked to work as a mentor with the two laboratory faculty by facilitating their return to the hospital to learn current patient care procedures and equipment. The team worked together to incorporate the updated knowledge into instructional outcomes and materials for student laboratory exercises. The mentored faculty were reluctant to return to the hospital because it involved risk taking and seemed to be an acknowledgement of professional inadequacies.

Mentoree: "Once I found out I would be going into the hospital I was scared, scared because I hadn't been in there in four years.

Mentor: When we talked about it, they could really see it was a beneficial
thing, although it was very threatening in a way to actually go and take care of real patients when you're not used to doing that.

The mentor was also not entirely comfortable in her role. She was concerned about resistance from the two mentorees and was unclear about the project's relationship to the college's faculty evaluation process. In the college's unionized environment, faculty were not supposed to evaluate each other.

Mentor: I had difficulty clarifying what my role was working with other faculty members, as far as being a mentor. I know it was threatening to them because they verbalized that....I never saw myself as a mentor who would evaluate them in any way. I just was interested in creating a situation where they could get this exposure (in the hospital)....It was really just to update them and consequently update the nursing lab.

These concerns were resolved, and all project participants were able to identify many positive outcomes of the peer mentoring activity. In addition to the time spent together in hospitals, the team spent many hours revising and updating student learning objectives for laboratory practice to reflect current clinical procedures.

Mentor: The relationship of those who had participated in it is better than it was before because we know each other a lot better from doing this. And we found out a lot of things about each other.... What it did for me as a faculty member, I got more involved in the college lab than I ever thought I would be. I got exposed to the whole nursing program and could see all those skills taught from the beginning freshman course. Also, I was able to talk with other faculty and improve the continuity between what we're teaching at different levels.

Mentor: It is interesting to note in this case the faculty members' growth at both a personal and professional level, as well as the improvement in the quality of laboratory instructional materials and content. The faculty members' commitment to providing students with the highest quality nursing education helped to overcome individual concerns about performance, professional roles, and the risks associated with change.

Case Two: Mentoring across Divisions

Faculty concerns about increasing the academic success of underprepared students stimulated this project. Participants included a social science professor with 20 years of teaching experience at the college and a recently hired learning skills specialist who served as mentor. The two were not acquainted with each other before the project. They were "matched" through the FRCAE staff, who saw the possibility of using a formal mentor relationship to allow an experienced teacher to expand his instructional methods by working with a learning specialist holding to integrate learning skills across curriculum.

Both faculty members wanted to work more effectively with students who had weak reading and writing skills and were enrolled in social science courses. Their goal was to work together to review course content in a history course.
taught by the mentoree and to develop new teaching materials and methods to help at-risk students improve their course grades.

For both participants, the project required overcoming barriers of unfamiliarity with each other's discipline fields and dealing with contrasting teaching styles and views about student learning needs.

Mentor: I had written a proposal and had my own ideas about how it would be, and I found out very soon into the project that it wasn't necessarily going to be that way, even though we were both attempting to go along with the proposal. His own style came into play, how he did things. I think we had a nice working relationship but I also felt that some of the things I might have done I didn't do because he was probably not ready for it.

While the actual results of working collaboratively to improve student performance were mixed (the success and completion rates of developmental students in the history course were improved but not to the extent desired), the participants identified a number of other positive outcomes of this project.

Mentoree: Maybe the most successful thing in the whole business and worth the whole project was that the mentor and I got to know what each other does and what each other's department does. So it made me more aware, and through me some of my colleagues were made more aware, of the learning skills people have to offer students. We subsequently recommended people in other courses to work with [the mentor] and her colleagues...I think clearly it made [the mentor] aware of what goes on in the "traditional classroom"...what kind of materials were there, what kind of teaching goes on...maybe that was the most successful thing about this whole venture:

Mentor: The [student] results were mixed, which was not a surprise. Some students used our services more than others, but those who did were very pleased with it. There were a couple that dropped out anyway, which I think we expected....We ended up developing a lot of study guides for the students, and those were available to everyone. All students in the class in the end when we asked them, said that was something that was really helpful to them.

Faculty were most pleased with the project outcomes that resulted in better understanding of each other's academic areas and the resources available to assist underprepared students. Rather than working in isolation, they were able to collaboratively approach a common instructional problem and address it through jointly developed materials and methods.

Case Three: Interdisciplinary Mentoring for Instructional Improvement

This peer mentoring project was the most complex and ambitious of any attempted. It began with a division chair proposing to serve as a mentor to faculty outside of his division in order to conduct research in the peer mentoring process. His goal was to help several faculty improve their teaching skills and, through this experience, to develop guidelines for a collegewide peer mentoring program. He requested to work with faculty from outside his own discipline so that greater emphasis could be given to instructional methods, without interference of content issues. He also hoped that faculty would be less threatened by working with someone from outside their division who did not know them as well and did not encounter them on a daily basis.

Two division chairs identified faculty members they thought might benefit from this mentor project. One was a 22-year veteran teacher, and the other was in his second year of teaching at the college. The three faculty participants did not know each other well and had not worked together before. FRCAU staff facilitated the matching process and negotiated mutual objectives and activities.
to be accomplished in the project. It was agreed to keep project results separate from the college's formal faculty evaluation process to facilitate openness and risk taking by the mentored faculty.

After preliminary meetings to discuss the project, the mentor worked individually with the mentorees, using the following strategies: discussion and modeling of teaching methods, classroom observation and feedback, and targeting areas of weakness and the means to improve them. He visited each mentoree's classroom to assess classroom delivery and student interaction but was unable to get either mentoree to visit his own classes to observe his approach.

The mentor found both pros and cons in working outside of his own division:

Mentor: One of the problems with interdisciplinary mentoring is the lack of frequent contact. There tends to be much more interaction within departments. Even though being from a different area has its drawbacks, there are some advantages. I don't think the mentorees were intimidated by me simply because they knew I wasn't questioning their knowledge of the subject. I could give them feedback as a student that has some classroom sophistication.

The mentor abandoned his original plan of testing mentorees and students to document project success because he believed it would undermine the required trust level. He worked individually with the mentorees to review and define problems associated with instruction in their disciplines. One of the mentorees continues to meet with the mentor since the project's completion. Although the mentor had to abandon or modify many preconceptions he had at the project's beginning, each of the participants was able to identify benefits of peer mentoring.

Mentor: I have learned many things about problems in instruction in other disciplines, and it will help me. I would strongly recommend that all new faculty hook up with a mentor and develop successful methods before there is a problem. It is not easy working with people that have problems and are under the tenure gun, or with established senior faculty who has been allowed to perpetuate bad habits. The expectation that my role was that of a "miracle worker" was on my mind. I would prefer if I were involved in the future with mentoring to have a new faculty member to work with within my discipline.

Mentoree: It's good to find out that problems that I'm having in class are problems that other people are having—you stop feeling so much like the Lone Ranger—and also that they are problems that have been around for a long while. So, maybe another way of looking at [the project's] success is that it has helped to bring into the public arena, to make explicit or articulate, problems and issues that can slide underneath the surface and stay there.

The mentoring process enabled all faculty participants to learn something about themselves and about more effective teaching. The mentor recognized that there are limits to what can be changed in faculty attitudes and behaviors in the classroom. Despite the natural resistance in a situation where faculty are feeling pressure to improve performance, the mentorees had the opportunity to discuss problems on an individual basis with a faculty peer and to receive support and assistance in improving instruction. This project also identified the need for different interventions and expectations for new, untenured faculty in contrast to tenured, experienced faculty in the improvement of instruction.
Lessons Learned

The three case studies pose a number of issues regarding peer mentoring as a professional development strategy for faculty. Analysis of the dynamics and results of each case raises questions about structuring and implementing a peer mentor process, conditions that impede or facilitate mentoring, and the outcomes and limits of such interventions.

How should peer mentor projects be initiated? In the projects described here, the instructional designer from the Faculty Resource Center frequently served as "match maker" or catalyst for project participants. Based on discussions with individual faculty members about their professional development interests and needs, she put together appropriate mentor pairs or teams. Division chairs, deans, or program heads also may serve as catalysts. However, in designing mentoring projects, faculty need to be willing and involved participants from the beginning. Merriam (1983) observes that "the forced matching of mentors and proteges ignores a characteristic crucial to the more intense mentor relationships—that the two people involved are attracted to each other and wish to work together" (p. 171). Mentor teams in which participants did not volunteer had greater difficulty initially. However, these projects still proved to be beneficial if participants worked together toward mutually determined goals that each recognized as valuable.

How should peer mentor projects be structured? The peer mentor projects presented in this article had clearly stated goals and expected results, a schedule of activities to be completed, methods of evaluation, timetables, and institutional support committed to the project. It is important that all participants understand and agree with the purpose of the project, how it will benefit them and their students, and what activities will be necessary to accomplish it. Professional development staff can facilitate these discussions to identify and resolve participants' concerns and can serve as liaisons between faculty and administration when necessary.

Institutional commitment is also essential. This support may be in the form of additional compensation or partial release time from teaching responsibilities for faculty who will commit significant time to the mentoring activities. It may also include support for a professional development center and/or staff to help structure and facilitate the processes. The extent of financial support needed will depend upon the scope of the mentoring activities and the time required by faculty to complete the projects. The strength of peer mentoring is that it uses existing, in-house resources and expertise that can be tailored to the unique needs and norms of an institution.

What results or benefits can be expected from peer mentoring? Case study evidence suggests that changes occur at many levels and in many areas of teaching. The following outcomes of using peer mentoring in professional development have been identified from the 12 projects completed through the FRCAE:

- Improvement of teaching effectiveness in the classroom or lab for new or inexperienced faculty; veteran, stagnated faculty; and adjunct faculty
- Sharing of discipline-related information, teaching methods, and materials with colleagues in the same division or across divisions
- Expansion, upgrading, or updating of current content-area knowledge or skills by faculty to improve program quality
- Strengthening of existing and creation of new colleague relationships or support networks among faculty and instructional support staff to facilitate discussion about teaching
• Use of approaches from different disciplines for solving common instructional problems to increase student success
• More effective use by faculty of college instructional support services and staff to benefit students
• Interdisciplinary collaboration among faculty from different divisions
• Increase in faculty members' instructional development skills and professional growth
• Acquisition and dissemination of new/improved teaching methods and materials developed and used by other faculty
• Enhanced teaching quality and improved student learning/success
• Individualization of professional development activities to address diverse faculty needs and interests
• Revised and updated instructional materials used by faculty

Both mentor and mentoree grow as a result of new insights into their own behaviors. Teaching practices change when an instructor works closely with another professional who approaches problems differently and can suggest or even model alternatives. Structured, individualized opportunities for peer discussion on teaching philosophy and methodologies, assumptions about learning styles and teaching effectiveness, and the many decisions that confront teaching faculty daily can lead to instructional and curricular improvement.

Change requires a catalyst, and peer mentoring can be the catalyst to individual and curricular change. Beyond original project objectives, peer mentoring can improve the climate and the effectiveness of a college through renewed interest in instruction and increased dialogue among senior faculty, greater collegiality between and among departments and faculty members, and support for newly hired and adjunct faculty.

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PRACTICUM

Journal Writing Across-the-Curriculum

Allen Zimmerman and Linda Houston

Many college campuses are responding to the need to continually improve the communication and thinking skills of graduates by implementing a "writing-across-the-curriculum" program. Allen Zimmerman and Linda Houston share their program and ideas with us. Then Katherine Clark and James Badal explain other assignment suggestions for our consideration.

This program is based on the concept that all teachers should both require students to use a variety of writing techniques and help teach writing. The program emphasizes writing as a process and puts it at the center of the curriculum. One technique to encourage writing often included in writing-across-the-curriculum programs is the use of journals.

Journal and Journal Writing

Journal writing is in the category of expressive (free) writing with the purpose of finding out what the writer thinks, feels, and knows. As such it is characterized as informal, writer-based, exploratory, digressive, searching, speculative, resembling speech (talky), and uncorrected. It can be compared to a diary which is private and personal and a course notebook which is a record of public thoughts and presentations as follows:

Diary ("I", subjective) — Journal ("I/it") — class notebook
("it, objective")

Obviously, journal writing is quite different from the formal writing typically required in technical courses which is transactional writing, undertaken for the purpose of communicating to a selected audience. This type of writing is characterized as clear, focused, organized, documented, concise, correct, and conventional.

Clearly, students need to master formal writing as applicable to a particular course and subject area. The intent of journal writing is not to replace formal writing; in fact, one important use of journals is to provide a mechanism for exploring, focusing, clarifying, and revising ideas in the early stages of the formal composing process. However, journal writing is a powerful learning mechanism in its own right and can be an important part of the "mix" of writing techniques used to enhance communication skills in any course.

Using Journals in the Classroom

During the first class meeting, the faculty member should explore with students the concept and purpose of the journal and journal (free) writing using overheads which either highlight the principles or contain samples of student entries and a handout (see Figure 1) which states specific guidelines and requirements. Students are required to make two types of journal entries, in-
class with assigned topics and out-of-class with topics of their choice.

In-class journal entries may be assigned at the start of class to orient the
students to the topic to be discussed, at the end of class to help students
summarize and personalize concepts and principles explored during class,
and/or during the class to provide material for students to use in follow-up
small group discussion and activities. Not assigning specific topics for out-of-
class entries allows students to individualize their journals and free write
according to their interests and needs.

At the conclusion of each class meeting, the instructor can ask students to
turn in one journal entry to read, handwrite a dialogue-oriented response on
each, and return them to the students at the next class meeting. If a serious
problem or concern was expressed in the entry, the teacher can indicate a
willingness to meet with the student individually.

The instructor should record whether or not the students have handed in
the required journal entries and factor this into the participation part of the
course grade; however, the individual journal entries are not graded. At the end
of the quarter, the instructor collects the journals, checks the number of entries,
and reads the introduction, many of the entries, and the evaluation of the
journals worth (conclusion). A grade is based on criteria listed on the handout
(Figure 1). The instructor returns the journals to the students during an
individual meeting and discussion session.

Conclusion

Journals can be effective tools for improving writing and thinking in a
variety of technical courses. Students are able to understand the purpose of
journals, recognize the value of journal writing in their educational process, and
develop their expressive (free) writing abilities. It is also apparent, however,
that success in the use of journals requires considerable and long term
dedication and commitment on the part of both the instructor and students.

SUGGESTIONS FOR USING JOURNALS
(student handout)

(Adapted from materials provided by Toby Fulwiler during a writing
workshop held at the University of Vermont in 1986)

WHAT IS A JOURNAL?

A place to explore personal expressive (free) writing; to practice
writing and thinking; to record your educational experience, including this
class, other classes, and the whole college experience.

A journal differs from a diary in that it should not be merely a personal
recording of the day's events. It differs from your class notebook in that it
should not be merely an objective recording of academic data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diary</th>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>Class Notebook</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(&quot;I&quot; subjective)</td>
<td>(&quot;I/it&quot;)</td>
<td>(&quot;it&quot; objective)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

WHAT TO WRITE
—personal reactions to class, students, teachers, friends, and others
—informal notes, jottings, clippings, scraps of information
—explorations of ideas, theories, concepts, problems, paper topics
—discussions of problem situations encountered and problem solving processes
and techniques used
—reviews of articles, movies, books, T.V., recordings—descriptions of events,
places, people, objects
—records of thought, feelings, moods, experiences—whatever you want to
explore or remember

WHEN TO WRITE
Write in your journal at least four times a week in addition to any classroom
related entries. (Note: This is the minimum requirement.) It is important to
develop the habit of using your journal even when you are not in an academic
environment. Good ideas, questions, etc., don’t always wait for convenient times
for you to record them. Write:
—when you have problems to solve, decisions to make, confusions to clarify, and,
—when you need to practice or try something out

HOW TO WRITE
You should write however you feel like writing. The point is to think on
paper without worrying about spelling, punctuation, or grammar. The quantity
of what you write is as important as the quality. Use language that expresses
your personal voice—language that comes natural to you. Take risks, write
freely, "talk about it."

SPECIFIC SUGGESTIONS
1. Purchase a small 5” x 8” looseleaf notebook.
2. Divide your notebook into two sections: ACADEMIC (Required: all
classroom related entries plus at least four weekly entries on topics of your
choice) and PERSONAL (Optional: private reflections that you do not have to
hand in)
3. Title and date each entry (also include time and location).
4. Write long entries as often as possible to help develop ideas fully.
5. Make lots of entries; quantity is the best measure of a good journal.
6. Use a pen (pencils smear).
7. Write original entries only on the right page side. Use the left page side
to record later reflections on or additions to the right page original entry.
(Left-handers may want to use the reverse of this procedure.)

INTERACTION
I shall ask to see one or more of your academic journal entries each class
session (to be handed in at the end of class). I will read these entries and make
written comments. Entries from the personal section (if you have one) do not
have to be handed in; however, feel free to share entries from this section with
me at any time you desire. All information contained in the journal entries is
kept confidential.
None of my dialogue with you will affect how much your journal is
"worth." A good journal will be full of lots of long entries and reflect active,
regular use. It will show your willingness to cooperate in the "spirit" of the
journal activity.

FINAL EVALUATION
At the end of the course, please (1) put page numbers in your journal, (2)
make a table of contents for the entries, (3) write an introduction to the journal,
and (4) an evaluation of its worth to you at the end.
Hand in the journal (remove the personal section if you so desire) for the
Facilitating Learning through Journals

Katherine Clark

"Writing in the journal has helped me overcome my fear of writing the research paper." —Janello

I am a journal fanatic and have been for the past 7 years. Lately I have heard some full- and part-time faculty members condemning journals as dismal failures and a waste of time. They state that students aren’t interested in them and will not write. I, too, have the occasional student who won’t do the work. My students are required in my 102 class to do Research Journals, and to write Team Journals. Though they acknowledge that the Research Journals are helpful, for the most part they aren’t thrilled at writing them. But writing in the Team Journals is actually something that my students (perhaps grudgingly at first) have come to look forward to.

At the beginning of the quarter, I placed five journals in the library and assigned a minimum of five students per journal. The groups were selected based on their grades in 101, so that each group had a mixture of differently skilled writers. Just as I discovered with students in previous classes who kept journals, I have been unable to tell who the A writers are. Everyone’s writing seems to improve when writing in journals. Each week, students are given a topic to comment on. Student comments on the first topic alone justified the use of the Team Journal in a 102 class. I asked students what their fears were in writing the research paper. Students commented honestly, sometimes for pages. Team members responded with assurances, answers to problems raised, and more questions. I knew immediately what my students’ previous experiences
were and used the comments and questions in the journal for class discussion. The journal has worked like this all this quarter, providing me with information on where my students are in the writing process, and allowing me to intervene earlier.

Each week, the team leader (which changes weekly) is the first to write on the topic. Everyone else in the group must respond to at least one other person's entry. What I have discovered is that students love to comment on each other's entries and to see what people have to say to their entry. Members usually comment on everyone's entry, not just on one. An though the stipulation was to write for 3/4 of a page, many students surpass that, regularly writing 23 pages. This includes students who aren't originally thrilled about writing.

Many students in 102 have writing anxiety, and writing a research paper stretches that to the limit. The Team Journal has turned out to be more than an academic exercise for these people. It has turned into a support system where members feel safe sharing their fears and asking for help from each other and from me. Some members, totally on their own, have exchanged phone numbers in the journal. Just as part-time teachers can feel isolated from each other without set meetings and structure, students too can feel anonymous going to school with 25,000 other students. In my class, because of the Team Journals, students who participate become part of a small community. They see me as a facilitator rather than disciplinarian. And they see their classmates as helpers and responders rather than competitors. Writing in the Team Journal builds a bond that supersedes the journal and enters the classroom. I encourage collaboration in the classroom, and journals help facilitate this. I've had them share their thesis statements with each other for comment, as well as examples of possible leads and conclusions, and a list of 10 possible titles for their papers. Students this quarter (perhaps helped along by Team Journal) have had the least difficulty in determining their final thesis statements.

I respond each week to students' writings. I read everything, comment on the individual pieces, and write my own entry which students are free to respond to. For the busy teacher, this does not take as much time as it initially sounds. To read five journals and write a response generally takes me only 45 minutes to an hour once a week.

Team Journals do count. They are part of the 10% I give to journals. Next quarter, because of their importance, I will make them a higher percentage of the grade.

Librarians tell me that my students are constantly in the library. The librarians themselves are excited about this process. Last quarter, I placed a folder on reserve which contained, among other things, class notes, and copies of excellent research journals as well as interviews conducted by my students. Only the occasional student looked at this, and it was placed with the other materials on reserve. This quarter, though, traffic from my class to read and comment in the journals (sometimes my students go in twice a week so as to read their colleague's comments) is so heavy that my journals now sit on a desk for rapid retrieval. In addition, since students enter the library to write 10 weeks of the quarter, they are subtly encouraged to extend their time there and do some extra research.

I am in the process of figuring out ways to bring Team Journals into the classroom. One student suggested that along with writing to each other in the Team Journal, students could also have a quarter-long paper exchange with Team Group members, so that student comments could relate directly to the paper. What the Team Journals do is discipline people to write on a regular basis;
force them to take a position on something and defend it; and prod them to interact with their classmates, causing them to carefully read and consider what others have said. When students are not only lectured to, but forced to reflect on what they have learned in class so as to be able to write a journal entry, they are are involved in the learning process.

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An Assignment Worthy of Assignment
James Badal

When I first began teaching research papers, I wrestled with two major problems. First of all, no matter how hard I tried, students insisted on seeing the researching and writing of a term paper purely as an English class activity having no importance to the rest of their academic careers and certainly no relevance to the "real world." Secondly, the entire operation, from selecting the subject to producing the final paper, is so long that most students could not get an overview of it and are, consequently, unable to see how logical and ordered the process is. To combat both of these problems, I send my English 102 class to the movies.

Figuratively speaking, of course! Through preliminary reading, each student selects a film made by either Ingmar Bergman, Frederico Fellini, Stanley Kubrick, Akira Kurosawa, Roman Polanski or Francois Truffaut. Each is to determine the quality of the film he or she has selected by reading the reviews, a judgement which must ultimately be supported in a brief paper of about 500 words.

It in assignment which introduces students to the entire research process in miniature. The list of reviews is easily located in the Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature; the number of reviews per film averages about a dozen, most of them less than a page in length. Granted, films by Bergman and his colleagues remain rather esoteric stuff—hardly the Star Wars-Rambo-Home Alone sort of thing with which most students would feel comfortable. I find, however, that most are genuinely interested in the assignment, and most already know that critics determine quality through discussion of specific aspects of the film, such as acting, cinematography and script.

I present the assignment to the class as a business report. I ask them to assume that they work for a video store with limited discretionary funds available and that their boss has asked for a quality check on these movies to determine whether they should be purchased for the store's stock. The thesis sentence must make a value judgement about the film firmly based on their reading of the critics (which the paper, of course, supports), and the conclusion must make a final recommendation as to whether or not the film should be purchased.

Because most of the reviews are so short, students can hopefully learn some important lessons about dealing with research materials.

(1) Material can be repetitive. Students sometimes naively assume at each
selection will magically supply pieces of information not duplicated in other sources, and they are sometimes amused, sometimes shocked to see each review repeating the same background information on the director and the film.

(2) Not all sources are of equal worth. Writers for magazines such as Time, New Yorker and Newsweek usually turn out reasonably literate critical assessments. Nothing, however, shatters the if-it's-in-print-it-must-be-good illusion more quickly than dealing with three paragraphs of inconclusive gibberish ground out by a hack to meet a deadline.

(3) Writers really do write for specific audiences. Even the poorer readers immediately note the differences between reviews appearing in general interest magazines aimed at the average reader and the far more technical pieces written for the specialized audiences who read Film Comment and Film Quarterly.

(4) Writers sometimes make mistakes. In film reviews, they tend to be rather minor, but students love to catch critics in small goofs, such as getting the details of the plot wrong.

(5) Writers can be biased. The myth of universal objectivity quickly disappears in the face of a critic obviously allowing personal considerations to color assessments of a film. “This guy’s more interested in attacking Bergman than reviewing the film,” declared one student researcher.

(6) Pulling information from a source can be difficult when an author’s purpose differs from a researcher's. Occasionally a film critic will use a review as springboard to discuss something else—sometimes broader issues raised by the film, sometimes pet peeves.

Students acquire a real sense of accomplishment when they can make such discoveries, though, interestingly, they are initially hesitant to judge, let alone criticize, their sources. To help them along, I assign an analysis of sources to be handed in with the paper—a brief appendix in which each student must indicate how helpful or unhelpful the reviews were.

Since I am familiar with the critical reception of each film at the time of release, as well as the specific issues most commentators discussed, I can spot those students who have made inaccurate judgements or have missed pertinent information in their sources. Given the number of negative commentaries, it is simply impossible to decide Stanley Kubrick’s The Shinning is “a great movie.” Similarly, a student who deals with Kubrick’s A Clockwork Orange without discussing the unique language in Anthony Burgess’s novel and its effectiveness on the screen has ignored a major critical issue.

I have found this assignment to be very successful. The exercise does not need to be limited to films; it can work equally well with plays, Broadway musicals, books, even record albums. Many students emerge from this brief assignment with newly developed assurance in their ability to understand, manage and control the research process. They can, therefore, go on to tackle the more epic dimensions of the ten-page paper with much greater confidence.

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FORUM

ISSUE: In Practice Has the Transfer Module as Adopted by Ohio Colleges Been Effective?

Students Are Not Breaking Down Doors

Larry McDougle

In an effort to address the long-standing problem of the state’s transferability of course credit from one college to another, especially from two-year to the four-year colleges, the Ohio Board of Regents established mandatory agreements between the colleges of Ohio called the “Transfer Module.” Once each college’s module was approved by the OBR, each college was responsible for putting its own module in place. Larry McDougle and Catherine Rahmes address the effectiveness of this OBR effort.

This is not an easy question to respond to because we have not yet had a great deal of history with the Transfer Module. Although we have a proposal pending before the Ohio Board of Regents to become a state community college, Northwest Tech is still a technical college, and as such, students entering our institution are more concerned with the technical degree than they are with transferability. Because we are a technical institution, our transfer module has a more limited number of courses.

We do survey our students, and questionnaire results indicate that approximately 20% of our students enter with the idea of continuing their education at a four-year institution. Defiance College (a private liberal arts institution) and Bowling Green State University are the two institutions which attract the largest number of our transfer students. For example, last year Defiance College admitted fourteen new students who are graduates of Northwest Technical College wishing to continue on to the baccalaureate degree. My sense is that most of our students will continue their education at private liberal arts schools where transferability appears to be less of a problem than it is at the larger state-supported institutions.

My conversation with colleagues at area technical schools would indicate that students are not breaking down the doors to get in to the transfer module. In fact, two of the institutions indicated that they had no students working through the module, and a third institution indicated that they had had no students complete the module to date.

I have not heard any war stories with regard to negative aspects of the transfer module. It clearly appears that those students who are using the module have found it to be effective. In principle, the transfer module appears to have accomplished one of the objectives desired by the legislature, namely the elimination of course work. I am a strong proponent that we do everything
possible within our state system to ensure the ease of transferability from one institution to another. Students have neither the time nor the money to needlessly earn college credits that will not apply toward a college degree.

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The Transfer Module at Cincinnati Technical College

Catherine Rahmes

Cincinnati Technical College was one of the first colleges in Ohio to have its transfer module approved. It has been published in the College catalog for the past two years. When the Transfer Module was first approved, it was advertised to students internally through several student publications but has not been advertised externally. Area newspapers did cover the creation of transfer modules in Ohio.

Outside of some several interest calls, the establishment of the Transfer Module has made little difference in the operation of CTC. Even though over 25% of CTC graduates eventually continue their education at a four-year college, no one has used the Transfer Module to do so. Currently, only one student is enrolled in the Transfer Module and she is not pursuing an associate degree.

One goal of CTC is to provide students with courses and programs that have maximum transferability. Students at Cincinnati Technical College tend to be from and remain in the Cincinnati area. Consequently, we have developed many articulation agreements with area colleges and universities which grant students junior status when they transfer. The concept of the Transfer Module has probably aided our endeavors but so far, it has not become the transfer panacea that it was originally thought to be.

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REACTION

Reaction to David J. Johnson's Article

Maybe We Don't Teach Grammar Anymore,
But It's a Good Thing (Spring 1993)

Steven M. Day

The Journal encourages letters and articles in response to its contents, policies and OATYC activities.

I believe David J. Johnson has a misconception about the rules of English grammar as they have traditionally been set forth in, for example, Fernald (1963). Although it may be true, as Johnson puts it, that "this traditional grammar is a poor guide to the way English really works," I would argue that it serves as a very good guide to the way in which we ought to work on English. Nor do I agree that it is in any way a question of morality whether one follows the rules of grammar or not, although some English teachers may have once tried to make it so. Rather, it is a question of clear thinking.

In high school, I would have said that the sentence, "She is a person who I would die for!" is a sentence with two problems. The problems, we are told in many modern English grammar textbooks, have traditionally been blown way out of proportion. The distinction between who and whom is one that "doesn't always reflect usage, even the usage of well-educated people," and that one should, as a rule, not end a sentence with a preposition is simply "nonsense." (Roberts, 1958). I would be the first to admit that English is not a logical language. It is a language rife with ambiguities and inconsistencies, and it is a language which defies any systematic explanation as to its proper use. It is precisely in navigating these ambiguities and inconsistencies, however, that a set of rules can be valuable. Of course, if you accept it that all rules of grammar should reflect usage, and that no rule should have an exception, then all rules of English grammar become nonsense. Still, "She is a person for whom I would die!" might be a better sentence than "She is a person who I would die for!" It's nice to know how to say it both ways even if one finally decides on something else entirely: "I would die for her!"

Johnson writes, "Think, for instance of some of the rules we have been saddled with." One rule I recall is that one should not use more words than will do the job. This is not a grammatical rule, but it is not a rule without exception either. Nor is it a rule that reflects usage, and so it seems today that it might well be called nonsense. Still, the rule is useful. With this rule in mind, I would rewrite the sentence above, removing "for instance": Think of some of the rules we have been saddled with. No meaning is lost, and the sentence is shortened, thus improved. And yes, I recall having been taught that one should not end a sentence with a preposition, or perhaps I was only taught that someone used to say that. Anyway, I learned that I could often rewrite a sentence so that it would not end with a preposition. Thus I would rewrite again: Think of some of the rules with which we have been saddled. Perhaps Johnson would prefer to say more:
Think of some of the rules with which we have been needlessly bothered, bored, baffled and saddled. Try saying that with the preposition at the end! Another rule I recall, though again not one of grammar, is that if you are going to quote someone, then quote him or her accurately. Contrary to what Johnson reports, Jean-Luc Picard never said, “To boldly go where no man has gone before,” although I do not deny that Picard splits the infinitive “to go” each time the Next Generation series airs. I also agree with Johnson that “to boldly go” sounds better than “to go boldly,” but I am not sure this isn’t simply because I have heard Captain Kirk say it that way so many times. However, having noticed the split infinitive, I also notice that Picard is saying something about the manner in which he and his shipmates are to go somewhere. Are they really to go boldly? Or is their mission, perhaps, to go peacefully and without fear where no one has gone before? It is not important which is better. The point is that by noticing the split infinitive, we are led to rethink the sentence in potentially meaningful ways. Ultimately we may decide to break the “rule” and split the infinitive. The rule is not a saddle, but rather part of a framework which can guide us well in our thinking in and about English. I would rewrite the sentence with which I began this paragraph: Think of some of the rules which have guided us so effectively.

Johnson differentiates between writing and speaking. In fact, it may be that we must differentiate between conversation, speaking, and writing. The rules of writing are the most rigorous, and to suggest that a rule of grammar of written English is no good unless it reflects conversational usage would be ludicrous. Whose conversational usage is it to reflect? Of course, if one writes for an audience with whom one normally converses, then one might just as well write in conversational form. Not. Because the nature of conversation is that when a statement is not understood, it may be immediately questioned, then revised, then perhaps questioned again. When giving a speech, or lecturing to a class, or being interviewed for a job, this questioning is far less likely to occur than in casual conversation. When something is written in its final version, there may be no chance at all for this kind of questioning and explaining. There is no reason why someone should write the way she speaks in ordinary conversation. On the contrary, one should learn to speak formally and to write according to some standard and widely accepted grammatical rules for written English. Sure, the rules may be broken from time to time, but in writing, they should be broken with purpose. In ordinary conversation there is nothing wrong with speaking freely and without rules, or speaking according to rules specific to one’s own ethnic or age group. But there may be a time when even the most provincial of our students might wish to communicate with someone from the outside (like a job interviewer).

I almost hate to report it, but there is yet another place where Johnson might hear it said that “they don’t teach grammar anymore.” I lived in Tanzania for three years, where English is widely spoken by educated people and is, with Kiswahili, one of two official languages. Tanzanians often remarked that Americans don’t know English. When I would defend myself and say that I, for one, did indeed know English, they would say, “Well, yes, but you don’t study grammar in America.” The world speaks English according to some standard rules of grammar. I think we should enable our students to do the same. Then,
when someone tells them they didn’t study grammar, they can reply coolly, and
with tongue in cheek, "That is a claim up with which I am quite fed!"

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The Process Approach and "Correctness"
in Student Writing

John Jewell

Although not a response, the Editorial Board felt John Jewell’s article on "Correctness"
fit so well with the previous discourse that it should be placed after it.

Let me begin with a word of self-defense that might deflect the volley that I
expect from my peers in English departments across the state: I wholeheartedly,
unequivocally agree with the current cry that effective instruction in how to
write, in whatever discipline, needs to emphasize not simply the finished
product but also the process that leads to that product—the brainstorming,
orGANizing, drafting, and revising that we all engage in.

In looking over the process-oriented composition textbooks that have
collected on my desk recently, though, I noticed one introductory comment that
exposes a growing problem in our movement away from the old product-based
instruction. In her preface to a generally sound text, Holt’s Writing with Style:
Rhetoric, Reader, Handbook, Laraine Fergenson remarks that "the correct
expression of . . . ideas demands a firm grounding in the basics of writing, such
as sentence structure, punctuation, word usage, and, yes, even spelling.” She
then adds, perhaps too hopefully, that “we have never forgotten that the process
should lead to a product that comes up to certain standards of clarity and
correctness.” I fear, though, that we have indeed forgotten this point in our rush
to embrace all that is good in the process movement.

The various errors that most of us label “mechanical” or “usage” problems
do not automatically disappear when one implements process-based instruction.
A student who doesn’t recognize the existence or function of an adjective clause
will, regardless of the method of instruction, intermittently misplace that
construction. Yet, instructors across the disciplines are now almost afraid to
address these minor issues of correctness because doing so is somehow equated,
incorrectly, with outdated, product-based teaching.

Compared to making a point or developing an idea, these issues really are
minor, and in the past many instructors have confused the greater and lesser ills
and have placed undeserved emphasis on mechanical errors. Nonetheless,
mechanical errors are no less important now than they have been in the past,
either, and an instructor need not feel bashful or guilty about addressing them.
Today, sentence skills work is too often hidden in some dark corner of the
syllabus under a euphemistic title because such instruction is no longer trendy
and few instructors want to risk being labeled old fashioned. The historical problem with sentence skills instruction, though, has been the dreadful and largely ineffective methodology—lecturing and drilling over skills in isolation—rather than instruction per se. The truth is that our current students hear the language far more than they see it, and their ears don’t always serve them well. Thus, they need instruction in sentence skills now more than ever, but they’re less likely to receive it.

Sentence skills work might occur in workshops, in the writing center, in peer tutoring sessions, or in some other novel, meaningful, and integrated fashion, but it needs to occur somewhere. Too many students have a woeful lack of understanding of the most basic elements of an English sentence, and their composition is therefore handicapped from the outset. They need to be shown that the revision process must include attention to minor points of "correctness"; furthermore, they need to know enough about basic sentence patterns to comprehend what we mean by "incorrect" versus "correct." Even minor construction problems aren’t so minor that they can be altogether ignored, as is often the current situation. And a glance at the recent rhetorics substantiates this assertion. Students are of course warned in stern language that correctness really does matter. Much that appears in the texts, though, suggests that it really doesn’t. Sentence skills work is typically relegated to the handbook section of the text—an appendix intended for reference rather than for instruction. Many students, though, simply don’t have enough prior knowledge of syntax to benefit from the use of a handbook. At some point, bona fide instruction, not just reference, needs to take place; it needs to be a part of the curriculum even in the process-based composition classroom. Two points argue overwhelmingly for such instruction.

The first point is a pragmatic and perhaps even self-serving one: accountability. The tax-paying public wants to see some results, and in the public’s hands a minor mechanical error in student writing is too often grounds for a major indictment of the teaching profession. In a job application letter, for instance, a fragment or a spelling error will get at least as much attention as a weakly developed paragraph, and it is even more likely to elicit the "Can’t they teach these kids anything?" comment. Every successful writer must of course make a point and develop an idea, and every composition instructor recognizes these as the basics of effective writing. But these qualities won’t impress the public if the piece is rife with minor syntactical errors. Even if correctness in usage were entirely divorced from meaning, composition instructors would have to demand it simply because the reading public, the tax-paying public, demands it.

The second argument for correctness is more pedagogically sound. Students need to be shown that correctness is not arbitrary but instead integral to making oneself understood. Ferguson explains in the handbook section of her text, for instance, that a man-eating fish is far different from a man eating fish. In the minds (and essays) of many student writers, however, the distinction gets lost. To communicate is to hold something (the language, an idea) in common with the reader. We make ourselves understood only when we use words and word orders in the common fashion. The language is a code agreed upon by writer and reader: the writer encodes the idea, and the reader decodes it. This process works, though, only when writer and reader agree upon the code.

Student writers must understand that they can successfully move their ideas only when their diction and syntax match those of the reader, and the
reader’s sense of what is correct is largely directed by years of reading published (and therefore “correct”) prose. Even those readers who have never heard of participial phrases expect to see them placed beside the nouns they modify; every book, every magazine, every newspaper they have ever read has taught them to expect such a relationship. Writers who fail to fulfill that expectation are bound to confuse their readers. Anything else is unusual, uncommon; it breaks the rules of English usage. When we speak of the rules of usage, we are simply distinguishing the normal, usual, and common construction from the exceptional one. When students follow the rules, they’ll write prose that others will understand. Before they can follow the rules, however, they must learn them, and a lifetime of simply hearing the language, a lifetime of haphazard and informal instruction, isn’t always enough. Such unstructured, audible training just doesn’t equip the student writer to deal, for instance, with a comma splice versus a semicolon for separating independent clauses. The handbook in the back of the student’s textbook won’t always help, either. Like a dictionary for a poor speller, the handbook section of a rhetoric is useful only when the writer is aware that a problem exists. The student who has never been taught to recognize a coordinate conjunction is not likely to consult a handbook to check faulty parallelism. Widespread ignorance of the basics of a sentence places composition students in an impossible dilemma: they don’t know what they don’t know.

In the minds of many composition instructors, sentence skills work is guilty by association; it is so often equated with product-based composition training that it is now neglected in the process-oriented classroom. Minor issues of correctness need to be addressed, though, and addressing them is neither old fashioned nor counter to the process approach; it is instead necessary. Rather than ignore correctness and assume that a student with a handbook in tow will eventually land upon conventional syntax, we need to incorporate sentence skills instruction into the process approach. Then, student writing will look good to the reading public that judges the effectiveness of classroom instruction. More important, the writing will conform to the rules of conventional English syntax, will fulfill the reader’s expectations, and will efficiently move an idea from writer to reader.

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The Editorial Board of the OAT/C Journal is soliciting written responses (three or four paragraphs) to the question: Will mandatory outcomes assessment improve the quality of two-year education? The response should address one of the many possible perspectives. Here is your chance to participate, and the Board encourages you to do so. As determined by the Board, the best responses will be published in the next edition’s “Forum” section, deadline: March, 16, 1994.
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Doing More, Doing It Better, Doing It with Less...

Carol L. Nelson-Burns

These words, recently articulated at a faculty forum, paraphrase the mandate delivered by the Ohio Board of Regents to our statewide postsecondary educational institutions. While the words conceptualize the fiscal constraints facing our colleges, they also hint at more serious deficits before us, no matter whether we are part of a co-located branch campus, a regional campus of a four-year baccalaureate institution, a community or technical college, or a technical college converting to a comprehensive community college status. The relevance of the message must speak to each of us; we must do something differently.

It has been approximately a quarter century since Ohio began implementing the two-year college system that has provided geographic, academic, and financial access to students throughout our state who wanted more than a high school diploma would give them. These colleges offered opportunities to students from chaotic inner cities and isolated rural areas, from river towns and industrial cities undergoing massive changes in employment options and social structure at the very time the huge population of “baby boomers” reached postsecuring age.

The community college system was born of philosophical agendas, political platforms, and social commitments of the turbulent 60's. While many other factors may be argued to have contributed to the systematic creation of the fifty-three two-year college network that exists in 1994, energies and expectations united in a “partnership” between college and community. But the economic, political, and social make-up of Ohio has changed markedly in the several decades since the institutionalization of community-based, open-door, publicly funded education. And as our society became more troubled, and simultaneously more advanced, more was asked of us. We have responded by trying to accommodate more and more divergent missions.

Higher education (and, through less specifically identified, its educators and administrators) is now being scrutinized by the community and made accountable for our spending of time and other resources, for program duplication, for articulation disagreements, for numbers of marketable degrees granted. Few are complimenting us for doing the difficult job of having tried to accept and assist all of: “remediating,” developing job skills, offering instruction in the workplace, designing innovative programs, creating support systems and integrating diverse people into a multi-cultured but forever changed job market. But maybe that attempt to be the panacea to our communities’ economic, social and political ills is the very source of our present dilemma. While some are urgently trying to adopt a “consumer friendly” package for our educational product, perhaps instead we need to revisit the broad goals we so willingly embraced.

Certainly our communities can benefit from our persistent efforts to educate a wide range of students with diverse, often intense, and sometimes conflicting needs, but will anybody gain from fragmented efforts to be all things to all people? Should we perhaps manage our resources differently, restricting our missions to narrower commitments? Now, as our communities examine rather than endorse us, we need more than ever before to come together, to become a voice for education: can this organization provide the mechanism whereby educators with like pressures and similar frustrations can network, dialog, interact, and ultimately decide upon a unified and concerted course of action that will allow us to retain responsibility for and control of the direction of our institutions and our profession?

The Ohio Association of Two-Year Colleges was conceived as a vehicle by which educators at two-year campuses might come together to both hear and express mutual concerns, to design measures for interest to and in support of two-year institutions. Let us revitalize that organization so that it can speak to the contemporary challenges confronting our two-year institutions. Please, contact your campus liaison to offer suggestions, to obtain information about upcoming meetings, to participate in forums, to contribute to the journal or newsletter, and to conduct the important business which we cannot allow others to presume to do for us.

Each of us may then contribute our own philosophical commitments to education within the role each has in educating others, acting to strengthen the curriculum in the course we teach, the course of study we administer, the services we manage, the degrees we offer. Perhaps then, instead of trying to do more with less, we may find a more meaningful commitment to our students and our communities in fulfilling the most important of the directives - doing it better!

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Submission deadline for the next *Journal* is September 16, 1994.

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FOCUS: The Ohio State University at Newark—Pride in Quality Instruction

Julius S. Greenstein

Surrounded by some of the finest residential areas and located on beautiful rolling, wooded hills, The Ohio State University at Newark features four very sizable academic buildings and within their walls a working graduate-degreed faculty who take pride in providing quality instruction and research. Julius Greenstein hosts your tour of the campus.

If you made a personal visit to The Ohio State University at Newark (OSU-N) these days, you'd find yourself on the west side of the city of Newark, Licking County’s seat. Within a radius of a mile or two of the campus are some of the finest residential areas, located on beautiful rolling wooded hills.

The campus is quite pretty and pastoral, improved recently by the installation of a large pond spanned by a picturesque bridge adjacent to a new amphitheater. Located on about 175 acres of former farm land, the campus features four very sizeable academic buildings, a model child-care center, and an attractive student apartment complex able to accommodate over 150 resident students.

It wasn't always like this. The Ohio State University “Newark Branch” began operation in the city in 1957 with only evening classes at the old high school on West Main Street. Beginning with a faculty of eight and a student body of eighty student, the “Branch” took off with an uncertain future.
Back in those days, the University was reluctant to place the first of its proposed extended campuses in Newark because of its close proximity to Columbus. But the Newark Board of Education and the Newark Chamber of Commerce, re-inforced by a strong coalition of prominent citizens, had the political clout to make it happen.

To get things started, the University called on Max Douglas, a locally well-known Newark High School basketball coach and biology teacher, to serve as part-time Director. It fell on his shoulders to muster local resources, acquire needed equipment, meet university standards, hire the necessary faculty and staff, and engage the media in promoting the new enterprise.

By the time the first full-time Dean and Director, Dr. Robert A. Barnes, was appointed in 1965, the “Branch” had grown to serve over 500 students and had moved its classes to the new Newark High School campus. The local community leadership was active in raising scholarship funds for deserving students, in the meantime, and was giving serious thought to acquiring land for a permanent site for the Newark Campus.

Two prominent leaders, Mr. Howard LeFevre and Mr. J. Gilbert Reese, were especially instrumental in selecting a site for the new campus and in launching a highly successful fund-raising campaign that netted over $1 million toward the purchase of the land and the construction of the first building, Founders Hall. That 3 million dollar building opened in the autumn of 1968 to a student body of over 700.

Three years later, a companion institution, Central Ohio Technical College (COTC), was founded and was accommodated into Founders Hall under a unique and simple cost-sharing arrangement that has worked successfully to the present time. Dr. Barnes was asked to assume the additional responsibilities as...

Groundbreaking of the present OSU-COTC Newark Campus
President of COTC, and, under his leadership, the two autonomous institutions matured and expanded together with each passing year.

When I came on board in 1980 as Dean & Director of OSU-N and President of COTC, I found an Ohio State student body of over 1100 and two additional academic buildings. Since then we've continued to grow, adding more students (the combined OSU-N/COTC headcount is over 3600), more buildings, and the necessary additional faculty and staff to serve both student and community needs.

The Ohio State University at Newark draws its 1700+ students today principally from a six county area surrounding Licking County. Like other regional campuses throughout Ohio, it provides entry to essentially all of the majors offered by the central campus of its university, and it is the largest of Ohio State's four regional campuses in terms of headcount. For many years it has offered a four-year undergraduate program and graduate degree in Early and Middle Childhood Education. More recently Ohio State has moved to teacher education certification at the graduate level only, and the Newark Campus offers that program as well.

The regular faculty of Ohio State at Newark are all members of their academic departments in the University and the tenured members are tenured in the University. As such, they meet all of the rigid academic standards of this comprehensive research, Land Grant university for teaching excellence, scholarship, and public service. Like other extended campuses in Ohio, we take great pride in the quality of instruction, the individual attention we are able to give the students, the small college atmosphere, and our ability to pay attention to community needs. We enjoy excellent relations with our community friends who have been exceedingly generous in providing scholarships, grants and other margins of excellence through a local Newark Campus Development Fund which is well endowed. Other support comes through The Ohio State University Development Foundation.

Faculty and staff involvement in community affairs contributes greatly to the social, political, economic and cultural life of the area. The OSU-N campus offers a major cultural arts program annually; has an active theatre department and is host to the Licking County Players, both offering outstanding performances; features monthly art shows in the gallery; and has a number of concerts given by its music students and faculty. Various faculty and staff are active with area schools, local government, area social agencies and governing boards as well as political bodies.

The three directors: left to right: Dr. Robert Barnes, Max K. Douglas, and Dr. Julius Greenstein.
That's as it should be with regional campuses and that's not unique to OSU-Newark. The brief history and success of this regional campus has been repeated many times elsewhere throughout the state of Ohio. The stories vary, as do the casts of characters, depending on the time and location, and on which state university is referenced, but there is a great similarity of missions and delivery systems among the 24 regional campuses of Ohio.

They all provide superb educational opportunities and services to a dramatically changing profile of students seeking a better life.

So what is unique or different about Ohio State at Newark? Well, we mentioned earlier that Ohio State at Newark shares its campus with a technical college. As such, the Newark Campus is one of only seven "co-located" campuses in Ohio. Four of these are associated with The Ohio State University, two with Ohio University, and one with Kent State University. All other technical colleges in Ohio have become community colleges or are in the process of that transformation. (The Ohio Board of Regents recently has endorsed and promoted the change.) Very soon there will no longer be any free-standing technical colleges in Ohio.

And, among the seven co-located campuses, only the Newark Campus has a single chief administrator shared between the university and the technical college. In addition, the two institutions share a single officer of Business Affairs and a single officer of Student Affairs. In other words, three of the five senior administrators on this shared campus are literally shared between the two institutions. They may be on one payroll or the other, but their time and services are shared based on a simple formula which takes into account annual fluctuations in headcount and FTE.

This sharing of personnel extends to many administrative and professional staff as well as to classified staff. These managers, coordinators, and support staff are also on one payroll or the other, but their loyalties are strong toward both institutions they serve. These "cost-shared" individuals represent the glue that holds these two institutions together harmoniously.

Another unique and related aspect of this cost-shared phenomenon is the appearance of the campus. Nowhere on the Newark Campus can you identify a building or a facility that is identified as OSU-N or COTC property. Occasionally, you may see a laboratory or functional space dedicate only to one of the two institutions, but that is rare. Much more typical are the shared facilities and signage, and the feeling as you walk around that you are on one campus, not two.

Outside their classrooms and laboratories, the students of OSU-N and COTC are essentially one student body, having a single Student Senate, a single Student Activities Board. They play together on all athletic teams in our club sports program. Most of the student clubs and organizations are open to both.

Nevertheless, there is a healthy rivalry between the two institutions, a strong sense of individual identity and mission, and the pride of association with either the University or the College.

Given the history of the campus, with Ohio State establishing its commanding image in Newark first, many townspeople after all these years still refer to the campus as the "Branch," a practice that understandably irritates and frustrates fiercely loyal COTC students, staff, and faculty. We keep working at that public relations problem.

So much for history. What does the future hold for OSU at Newark?

Much of the future development of OSU at Newark rests with forces, influences, and decisions that are external to the campus. Although OSU at Newark enjoys considerable autonomy within the University framework, what
it offers in the way of coursework and degree programs must meet with central administration approval. The same holds true, of course, with respect to the Ohio Board of Regents and, ultimately, the state legislature.

Yet, the trends are clear. More and more students are older and placebound. More and more students want more transferability, more access to a greater variety of educational opportunities without having to travel to other campuses to complete their programs of study and career objectives. More and more traditional high school students are recognizing that they cannot make it in the next century without significant post-secondary education. The same is true of people already in the work force who know that they need more and frequent upgrading of their educational levels to stay competitive.

Hence, it's rather safe to predict that by the turn of the century, OSU at Newark will be much busier with evening and weekend programs, will be offering selected baccalaureate degrees and more graduate offerings, and will be moving inexorably away from "Branch" status and more towards that of a comprehensive undergraduate institution with several Masters programs as well. All this we hope to accomplish in spite of resistance from some quarters at the University as well as from the Regents. The pressures for this fundamental change will come from the communities now being served.

New technologies and changes in attitude toward traditional learning will cause other developments in distance learning, greater acceptance of life experiences, credit by examination, and access to professional certification/ accreditation.

The campus will become more of a round-the-clock learning center, with more flexible schedules driven by customer needs. At the same time, more and more programs will be offered at sites off-campus, in the workplace, at home.
through computer networks, and wherever people find it convenient to access its educational resources.

As a result, the conventional terms "class," "course," "headcount" and "FTE" may take on new meanings as students will matriculate in a very different fashion than is customary today. Likewise, faculty will no longer have the luxury of confining their teaching methods to conventional lectures and laboratories. Their teaching assignments and workloads will be governed, measured, and evaluated very differently in the next century because how they deliver their expertise will be given by student demands and technological systems that are still emerging.

I feel confident that Ohio State at Newark will grow and prosper in this new environment with enlightened community support and visionary academic leadership, providing that the state recognizes its responsibility to adequately fund such a dynamic educational learning center.

Julius S. Greenstein
Dean and Director
The Ohio State University at Newark
President
Central Ohio Technical College
Newark, OH 43055

Management Project Prepares Students for the Work Place

Darwin K. Smith

As educator in a health technology program, we are concerned not only with assuring that our students acquire the requisite knowledge to practice their chosen fields but that they develop the skills they will need to make the transition from school to the work place. The Associate of Applied Science Degree in Occupational Therapy Assisting (OTA) offered by Kent State University's East Liverpool Campus tries to reinforce this view. The premise of occupational therapy is that people achieve self-actualization and independence through "doing." While analogies may be drawn between the roles and responsibilities of a student and those of an employee, graduates may have a difficult time making that shift unless they are given an opportunity to practice the specific tasks associated with employment. While poor performance in the classroom may result in only a personal failure for the student, in the work place it may have far greater consequences. Individual inadequacies may affect the productivity and overall success of co-workers, departments and even entire organizations.

As part of their course work, OTA students are required to take a two credit course in occupational therapy management skills in the second year of the program. In addition to didactic material covering such topics as program development, recruitment, supervision, ethics, licensure, budgetary concerns and utilization review, each student is required to complete a major management project. Students select a project in collaboration with their instructor, based on their own particular strengths and needs. Each project will have a team of students working on it, with one student being the primary supervisor. One of
the projects available to the students involves planning and implementing a Health Careers Job Fair. The purpose of the project is to have the students experience first hand what is involved in planning and being responsible for an entire event or activity. Specifically, they also begin to develop and practice valuable skills they will use in applying for and retaining employment. The project reinforces the basic premise of occupational therapy that learning a new skill or behavior takes planning, assimilation and accommodation of new information, hands-on participation, repetition, trial and error, evaluation and modification. The project is also designed to enhance the educational experience of all of the students enrolled in the OTA Program through their attendance at and participation in the actual Job Fair.

As Certified Occupational Therapy Assistants (COTA’s) our graduates will work under the supervision of Registered Occupational Therapists (OTR’s) and be part of a health care team. Our students must learn to accept responsibility and be prepared to delegate duties to aides, volunteers and student interns. The Job Fair gives the students an opportunity to begin developing and practicing these skills. For purposes of the project, the course instructor serves the role of the OTR, overseeing the committee. The project supervisor must take responsibility for delegating tasks to people on the committee. Being a good manager requires that you not only possess good organizational and leadership skills yourself, but you must also have the ability to select qualified assistants. Sub-committees must be created to handle notification of Job Fair exhibitors, provision of refreshments, set-up of the physical space for the Job Fair, publicity and the success of the event depends on the coordination of all of these elements.

Occupational Therapy (OT) staff frequently plan and provide inter and intra-departmental in-services. COTA’s are often involved in planning these meetings. COTA’s have to be able to set objectives, meet the needs of their audience, manage the time allotted, notify the participants, prepare handouts and provide for accessibility. Being able to set priorities and develop time tables is crucial to the success of the Job Fair. The Job Fair has to please two audiences, the exhibitors and the people attending the event. Announcements and press releases must be prepared ahead of time. Notices are sent out to potential exhibitors months before the event to allow them sufficient time to make the necessary arrangements to attend. The letters target facilities/agencies which have expressed an interest in recruiting our students. The mailing list is compiled from the Fieldwork sites used by the Health Technology programs at Kent and from job listings we receive directly from potential employers of our graduates. The notices include all relevant information (who, what, where, when, why and cost). Exhibitors are asked to return their reservation forms one month prior to the event so that we may incorporate the names of the exhibitors into our publicity for the event. A press release is prepared and circulated to area newspapers announcing the event. Although the Job Fair is specifically intended to benefit those students enrolled in health related programs at Kent, practicing professionals are also welcome. Kent also invites students from neighboring programs. The Job Fair also serves as a means of increasing the public’s awareness of the opportunities available in health care. High School counselors, as well as counselors from the Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation, are encouraged to attend so that they can better advise their students and clients. Prior to the day of the event, posters are placed throughout the halls in Kent advertising the Job Fair and announcements are made in the health technology classes. The success of the event is dependent on having enough exhibitors to attract the students and enough students to make it worthwhile for the exhibitors.
The event must be held in a location which is accessible and large enough to accommodate the participants. Signs must be prepared to direct students and exhibitors to parking and to the exhibit hall. The exhibit hall must be arranged in an attractive and functional manner. The right number of tables and chairs must be arranged for each exhibitor and those who have requested one, must be located near an electrical outlet. The area must be accessible for easy set up by the vendors and so that the participants can maneuver through the displays. Floor plans are made up prior to the event to assist exhibitors in locating their assigned area and to direct students to facilities they are particularly interested in. The floor plan also indicates the location of the information booth, telephone, restrooms and refreshment areas.

COTA's are frequently involved in ordering and maintaining department supplies. This requires that they be able to inventory existing supplies to meet current needs and project future ones. In selecting vendors and products, COTA's must consider the quality of the merchandise as well as the supplier's reputation for delivery and service. COTA's must know what the materials will be used for and how and by whom the materials will be used (e.g. by staff, patients or students). COTA's must consider whether other materials are required in order to utilize those being ordered and also the compatibility of materials ordered from different vendors. All of this must be done within the constraints of the department budget. For the Job Fair, a sub-committee must make arrangements with a caterer for morning refreshment and lunch. A caterer must be selected who has a reputation for providing quality food at a reasonable price and one who can be relied on to deliver the food on time and present it in an attractive manner. In order for the caterer to do a good job, the sub-committee must provide accurate and timely information concerning the quantity of food needed and any specific dietary requirements of the participants. The sub-committee and caterer must mutually agree as to whose responsibility it will be to provide paper items and who will set up, serve and clean up the area. The sub-committee will need to know the method of presentation. Will the food require warming trays and, if so, who will provide them? While the caterer is primarily responsible for providing the food, the sub-committee must have a backup plan should the caterer fail to fulfill its obligations.

The Career Placement Department at Kent assists in preparing the students for the Job Fair. Workshops are offered prior to the event to review resume writing, proper dress and interviewing skill. All students who attend the event are expected to provide exhibitors with a resume, to come dressed professionally and to ask intelligent, appropriate questions of the recruiters.

The Job Fair and the participation of the OTA students in the planning of the event all serve to increase the public awareness of occupational therapy. Area merchants are approached and encouraged to donate small gifts or coupons which are raffled off throughout the day. Shopkeepers are reminded that health care is one of the fastest growing professions in the country and that the health technology programs offered at Kent attract new students to East Liverpool from the tri-state area. These students provide local merchants with a larger, more diverse pool of potential customers.

At the close of the day, evaluation forms are distributed to the exhibitors and collected. The comments and suggestions are then reviewed and incorporated into the next year's planning. The sign-in sheet is reviewed to determine the number of participants who actually attended. The participants are asked to indicate on the sheet where they are from (i.e. Kent, the community, other area health related programs, etc). This information can be used to plan
next year's marketing strategies. The concept of evaluation and program revision is an important skill which COTA's use as part of all patient treatment.

Following the event, each student on the committee writes a paper outlining the specific management skills they used to complete the project. They also evaluate the success of the event and critique their own performance. The students are graded on their ability to incorporate appropriate management terms, the accuracy of their perceptions, grammar, spelling and the format of the paper. Writing skills are stressed throughout the OTA Program as this is critical for chart and departmental documentation once graduates begin clinical practice.

In addition to receiving a grade for the course, there are real life consequences for the students' performance on the project. Failure to anticipate and prepare for potential problems may result in the event not attracting a sufficient number of exhibitors and participants. The success or failure of this year's Job Fair reflects not only on the individuals responsible for the event, but on the quality of the OTA Program in general. The impressions we leave with the exhibitors and participants influence our ability to attract exhibitors the following year. Our ability to secure and retain fieldwork sites and to recruit students may also be affected.

The contacts our students make with potential employers at the Job Fair are in most cases their first opportunity to receive feedback about their marketability. The students get to practice their interviewing skills and get experience fielding questions asked by potential employers. Afterwards, they are able to reflect on additional questions they would have liked to have had answered. Our students report that they continue to receive phone calls and direct mailings from many of the exhibitors throughout the year.

The students derive a great deal of satisfaction out of planning a successful event and many come away with one or more job offers. The exhibitors particularly enjoy the event because it gives them an opportunity to see our students practicing many of the skills which will make them valuable future employees.

Darwin K. Smith
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Minority Student Opinion in Three Northwestern Ohio Two-Year Colleges: Who Are They and How Do They Feel about Their Current College Experience?

Gwendolyn Jones, et al.

This study involved three, two-year colleges located in northeastern, Ohio, attended by a majority of white students. The study included students enrolled in the Spring 1993, quarter or semester terms only. We wanted to determine how minority students in these institutions regarded their college experience. It was a very rewarding inquiry, and we learned much regarding the backgrounds and
opinions of the minority students in these institutions. Data were obtained from a thirty-seven item questionnaire. Twenty-two items used a Likert-like scale (statistical scale used to measure attitudes and beliefs). The students were asked to select responses which best communicated their feelings about each statement. The five choices were (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) neutral, (4) disagree, and (5) strongly disagree. In some cases, students were simply given choices regarding a situation and asked to respond. The responses from the minority students at all three of the institutions included in this study were overwhelmingly positive.

The Three Two-Year Colleges Surveyed: The Context of the Study

Data were collected from the following two-year colleges: Cuyahoga Community College, Western Campus; Lakeland Community College; and The Community and Technical College of The University of Akron. Lakeland Community College and the Western Campus of Cuyahoga Community College are both on quarter schedules and are located in suburban communities. The Community and Technical College of The University of Akron is an urban institution and is on a semester schedule. The Community and Technical College at the University of Akron is also an integral part of a four-year state university. All three institutions have a majority of white students attending.

The results of this study could have widespread implications for other two-year colleges throughout the state of Ohio as well as elsewhere. The results provide important data about values, beliefs, expectations and attitudes of minority students that could be a significant factor for recruitment and retention of these students.

Cuyahoga Community College

The Cuyahoga Community College has three campuses. The campus included in this study was the Western Campus in Parma Heights, Ohio, to the west of Cleveland. According to the 1990 United States Census, the city of Parma, Ohio, has a population of 87,976 residents, and a median annual household income of $33,281.00. In the Fall 1995, the Western Campus of “Tri-C” (as it is frequently called in the Cleveland area) had 13,169 students, 38% percent males and 62% females. The minority student enrollment at the Western Campus of Tri-C in the Fall 1993 was: 321 African Americans, 268 Hispanics, 217 Asian Americans, and 74 Native Americans.

Lakeland Community College

Lakeland Community College, is located in the suburban city of Mentor, Ohio, which is east of Cleveland. In the Fall 1993, it had reported minority student enrollment of 385. The report did not break down the minority student enrollment by cultural background but simply identified the 385 students who described themselves as being from a minority cultural background. The city of Mentor had a population of 47,358 residents in 1990 with a median annual household income of $42,095.00. The total Fall 1993 enrollment of Lakeland Community College was 8,907 students. Both Tri-C and Lakeland draw students from many communities in a wide area to the west, east, and south of their home communities in the Cleveland metropolitan region.
The University of Akron, Community and Technical College

The C and T college, as it is called locally, had a Fall 1992 enrollment of 3,789 students, 1,876 males (49.5%) and 1,913 females (50.5%). A total of 545 students identified themselves as having come from minority cultural backgrounds. The report did not breakdown the minority student enrollment by cultural background. The University of Akron had a Fall 1992 enrollment of 27,079 and a total undergraduate enrollment of 22,755.

A Summary of Minority Student Responses to the Questionnaire

A total of 309 minority students responded to the survey. Cuyahoga Community College had 150 students responding, a 15.3% return rate. This number was higher (but the percentage of return was lower) than that at the other two colleges because surveys were not mailed in the same manner at those colleges. The University of Akron's C and T College and Lakeland College mailed surveys only to minority students enrolled in particular programs, such as Business Management Technology, Sales and Marketing, Computer Technology programs or Associate Studies. Tri-C, however, mailed surveys to all minority students who were enrolled in any course at the Western Campus. Students could have been in a program of study at Eastern or Metropolitan Tri-C Campuses so long as they were enrolled in at least one course at the Western Campus. Lakeland had a total of 91 responses, a 17.9% return rate; and The University of Akron's C and T college had 68 responses, a 17.1% return rate.

![Figure 1. Racial Profile of Students From the Three Colleges](image-url)
Sixty-four percent of the students responding were female, and 36% were male. Historically, this trend is in opposition to traditional college enrollment. Figure 1 shows their demographic profile by racial background. Less than one-third of the respondents were traditional students. Nearly half were single with the majority being non-traditional students. Singles were 47%, Married 36%, Divorced 11%, and 6% claimed to be Other. Responses to “others” included sex partners, cohabitants, and widows/widowers. Over half of the respondents indicated that they had one or more children.

In addition, the majority of the students responding indicated that they worked either full or part-time, 71% compared to 29% who did not work (see Figure 2). Similarly, only 38% indicated that they received financial aid, and 62% indicated that they did not. Nearly twice as many students indicated that they would enroll in an Evening-Weekend Program as compared to those who said they would not do so. A large majority of the students indicated that they would take another course from these institutions, 89% compared to only 11% who would not.
The majority of the students surveyed fell below an annual income level of $15,000 and only 12% make over $35,000. The University of Akron's respondents had an average income level significantly lower than those of Lakeland and Tri-C. The mean income for the Akron respondents was approximately $13,500 compared to $19,000 for Lakeland and $23,000 for Tri-C.

The explanation for the mean income differences between Akron and Lakeland or Tri-C could be Akron is being an urban university while the other two are located in suburban areas. The student body at many colleges may reflect the surroundings in which students reside. As reported earlier, the census data for the three communities in which these colleges are located reported higher mean household income for the two communities in which the two suburban campuses are located.

Data Summary of High School or Pre-College Years

Minority students at the three campuses studied responded to a questionnaire regarding the academic programs they followed in high school. Thirty-four percent said they had been enrolled in college preparatory programs; forty percent were in general courses; ten percent were in honors programs; and seven percent were in technical education. Five percent had completed G.E.D. programs, while twelve percent indicated they had pursued other programs after leaving high school (see Figure 3).

![Figure 3. Respondent's High School Programs](image)
The results of this survey showed that more students had been enrolled in college preparatory or honors classes than anticipated initially. We believed the largest percentage of students would have been enrolled in general or technical courses. This finding is significant since some educators do not hesitate to discuss minority students as though they are not really prepared for college and thus unable to compete academically with other students. For example, a recent college panel of college presidents were asked if they thought teachers should do more to help retain minority students. The first point of discussion was that educators should reach out to students, especially to "underprepared minority students."

In addition, it was interesting to see that students indicated that their GPAs were not low as might have been anticipated by some educators. Forty-eight percent of the students indicated that they had maintained a 3.00 or above GPA, while 30% indicated that they had maintained between 2.50 and 2.99. This finding further suggests that these students are capable of performing well academically, based upon their pre-college experiences, or that grade inflation is rampant.

Interestingly, many of the students surveyed indicated they had been encouraged by an educator to pursue a college education. This finding was interesting because some minority educators may believe that non-minority educators do not encourage advanced education for minority students.

Finally, over half the total respondents from all three campuses indicated

![Figure 4. Respondents' High School Grade Performance](image)

Figure 4. Respondents' High School Grade Performance
they had a previous college experience, which suggests they have a basis on which to compare the quality of education received in their current institutions.

Students indicated many reasons for selecting a two-year college, but most responded with the following reasons: to prepare for a four-year college degree or to transfer to a four-year institution (36%); to enhance employment possibilities (17%); to attain affordability of a college degree (14%); to build self-esteem (4%); to secure a technical education (4%).

The Professors/Teachers at the Current Two-Year College

Despite studies that have been conducted showing that minority students in predominantly white institutions have negative experiences, the majority of the respondents felt extremely positive about their experiences with their current two-year colleges. Because students were so very positive about their current institutions, the perplexing question remains: why do they drop out of colleges at such alarming rates?

When students were asked about the fairness and concerns that their professors showed for them, the results were astonishingly positive. Seventy-three percent of the students responded favorably to this question. Responses suggest that students perceive the professors as meeting their academic needs.

Students also felt that professors were committed to a quality education for them. Only a small number disagreed with this question. Fifty-two percent agreed; 21% strongly agreed. The significance of this response is that a majority of students

*Figure 5. Respondents' View of Instructors Commitment to Quality Education*
felt that their professors are providing the best possible education for all students (see Figure 5).

Over 80% of the students surveyed felt that their professors acknowledge their contributions to classroom discussion. Professors in these three school systems were seen as valuing the opinions of their minority students. Only three percent of the students surveyed indicated that their professors did not allow them the freedom to participate in classroom discussion. Overall, students felt comfortable enough in their classroom situations to contribute to discussions.

We obtained surprising results when students were asked if minority professors were perceived to be fairer in their overall treatment (grading, attitude, encouragement) in the classroom. Even though half of all respondents felt neutral on the question, many indicated that they had not previously had a minority professor/instructor. This finding supports the preconceived underrepresentation of minority professors (African Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, and Hispanics) in classrooms. It was not clear whether the students expected these professors to be fairer.

It seemed that minority students were able to be fair and neutral in their assessment of minority teachers when asked if they felt more comfortable in a classroom where the instructor or professor is of African American, Native American, Asian, or Hispanic cultural origin. Forty-one percent were neutral, while a third of all students surveyed did not feel more comfortable in classrooms when the professor was from a minority group. Since students indicated that they had not previously been exposed to a professor/instructor from a minority group, this response may indicate their adherence to traditional teaching techniques by majority instructors. It is suspected, but not tested in this study, that if the student and instructor are from two different minorities, chances for discomfort may increase.

Part-time instructors received a very high level of acceptance. Overwhelmingly, students felt that the contributions of part-time instructors are valuable and that they are committed to quality education. The majority of students also felt that part-time instruction allowed them to freely participate in classroom discussion, and many felt that these instructors were concerned about their academic performance.

The Two-Year College Administrative Staff

Administrators in all three institutions ought to feel pride, because the minority students surveyed had extremely high regard for their efforts also. Over 70% felt that administrators were committed to a quality education and demonstrated this commitment in their policies and decision making practices. Further, over half of all respondents felt that administrators valued them as students. Twenty-four percent felt neutral, perhaps because they did not know administrators on a personal basis.

It is interesting to note that nearly one-third of all students felt “neutral” when asked if administrators resolved problems promptly. This response might indicate either a dearth of problems on the part of the students or a reluctance to approach administrators with their problems.

Students also reported that other staff and administrators such as admissions office personnel, counselors, and secretaries were professional and helpful.
Relations with Majority Students

Much of the current literature written about minority social affiliations and their success rate on college campuses suggests that many students attend historically black colleges for this reason. Surprisingly, overwhelmingly positive results were obtained when survey respondents were asked whether majority students were friendly, cooperative, and helpful.

Sixty-six percent of all students surveyed believed that majority students were indeed cooperative and friendly. This finding suggests that social interactions between majority and minority students were perceived as favorable at the three institutions.

In addition, many of the students felt unconcerned about how majority students viewed them. Over one third of the respondents were neutral on this question, and almost an equal number reported that they were not concerned about how majority students perceived them. This response could suggest that these minority students were comfortable with “self-identify” and did not need to have extensive social interactions, as other research indicates.

Their Preparedness for College

The overwhelming majority of the students surveyed felt that they are able to keep up with their course work. This finding may suggest that these students have confidence in their ability to do the course work.

Well over half of all students surveyed felt that the education they were receiving would prepare them for a job. This response could indicate that students have favorable opinions on the quality of education they receive in their current educational experience.

Plans after Graduation

Fifty-eight percent of the students surveyed indicated they would continue their education at a four-year college. This finding suggests that many students start at the community college with the intent to further their education at a four-year college. Students may also feel that they will receive more personal interaction with students and faculty in a two-year institution compared to a four-year college.

Forty-nine percent indicated that they would not seek another two-year degree at their current institution. This response seems to reinforce the conclusion that many will continue at a four-year college or that many will conclude their educations with a two-year degree.

Over a third of the respondents did not think that they would be advanced or promoted in their current company. It is not clear whether the students feel a lack of support from their present employer or whether they are not currently working in their profession and thus would not want to be promoted.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Several conclusions and recommendations follow from these findings:

1. It is important to note that the majority of the students surveyed perceived their academic experience to be a quality one. These two-year colleges should continue to foster an atmosphere of excellence in education as well as one that is open to all students.

2. The majority of the students did not receive financial aid but rather worked while attending college. Administrators and instructors should consider
implementing techniques and programming to address the specific needs of these employed students.

3. The minority students who responded to this survey felt comfortable with both majority students and professors. These students also seemed not be concerned with how majority students perceived them. They felt that majority students are helpful and friendly. These institutions should continue to promote cultural diversity on campus in both the student and faculty population.

4. Interestingly enough, many of the minority students indicated they did not feel more comfortable in a minority professor's classroom for discussion. In addition, many indicated that they were "neutral" in their perception of fairness of minority professors/instructors. This finding suggests that there is a need for increased exposure to different cultures and ethnicities among the faculty at these institutions, or some could interpret this as the students' desire to be fair and objective. College officials should institute strategic level goals and objectives to embrace a greater participation among different minority groups on both faculty and staff levels to increase acceptance and comfort level for all students.

5. The responses to this survey indicate a wide range of demographic diversity in various areas are present on these campuses, such as age, income level, marital status, and number of children in a household. For example, less than one third of the respondents were traditional students. Age ranged from a low of 18-20 (13%); to a medium age of 30-35 (17%); to a high age range of 46 to over 50 (10%). Also, the majority of the students surveyed fell below an annual income level of 15,000 with only 12% making over $35,000. Nearly half were single, and the majority of respondents were non-traditional students. Respondents reported that 47% were single, 36% were married, 11% were divorced, and only 6% were in the "other" category. In addition, over half the respondents indicated that they had one or more children. Fifty-four percent reported that they had 0-1 child, 33% had 2-3 children, 10% had 4-5 children, 1% indicated that they had 6-7 children, and 2% indicated that they had over 8 children. These institutions must recognize and adjust policies and procedures to address these demographic differences in order to retain their student enrollments and to reduce the high minority student dropout rate in these institutions.

The fact that many of the respondents indicated a favorable perception of their institutions may suggest that institutions can go beyond the individual students and their academic concerns to embrace a more holistic conception of their students.

6. The only single area in which there were statistical differences found among the three Ohio colleges was income. The University of Akron's C and T College had the lowest respondent income level of the colleges surveyed. This finding is also reflected in the 1990 census data where the median income level per household was lower for Akron (reported to be $22,279) (C and T) than for Parma (reported to be $33,281) (Tri-C, West), and Mentor (reported to be $42,095) (Lakeland).

The University of Akron's C and T administrators could implement policies and practices to work with students who are not able to attend because of personal finances. Late class registration and supplemental
classroom materials for students who may not be able to afford textbooks could be considered by administrators.

7. Minority students in these three institutions felt that they were prepared to enter college. These students indicated that they had a GPA above average, and one third of them were enrolled in college preparatory or honor classes in high school. In addition, the majority felt that they could handle college work without difficulty. This finding suggests that external factors and perhaps a student's own self-disciplining techniques and self-motivating factors are more of a problem than their treatment by administrators, professors and staff at these predominantly white institutions.

A follow-up study on minority student retention problems should be done to determine what is causing these students to drop out at such alarming rates. In addition, if this study was replicated at a four-year institution, would similar results be obtained?

8. The number one reason students indicated that they selected a two-year college was to better prepare them for a four-year college degree. The second most common reason for selecting these two-year colleges was because they wanted to transfer to a four-year college. Educators should work more closely with four-year institutions to develop articulation programs to fit the needs of these minority students.

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Dynamics of Diversity in the Teaching-Learning Process: A Faculty Development Model for Analysis and Action

Linda S. Marchesani and Maurianne Adams

The move into global education calls for many changes. The following article brings together the dimensions of teaching and learning that have particular relevance to social and cultural diversity in college classrooms—students, instructor, course content, and teaching methods. The Journal proudly reprints this poignant article for you with permission of Jossey Bass Publishers (New Directions For Teaching and Learning, Winter 1992. 9-17).

The social and cultural composition of today’s college student population differs markedly from that of thirty years ago, when many of today’s senior faculty were beginning their teaching careers and younger faculty were still in school or college. The traditional schooling of college faculty has ill prepared many of us for the social and cultural diversity of today’s students, a diversity that may differ across geographic areas or within the public or private, research or teaching, secular or denominational institutions that taken together constitute American higher education.

These changes in student populations have resulted from factors familiar to us all, primarily the educational equity efforts of the 1960s. Federal intervention to remove barriers, changes in overall national demographic and immigration patterns, and greater variability in the sequencing of higher education in relation to family and work have led to classrooms populated by women; students of color; older, part-time, and international students; as well as students with various disabilities and a range of sexual orientations (WICHE, 1991; Carter and Wilson, 1991). So it is not surprising that faculty find themselves maintaining an unexamined academic culture while facing multicultural challenges from students of underrepresented racial, ethnic, and linguistic backgrounds, by women questioning the dominant cultural mode, by older adults returning to formal schooling from family or occupational experiences. The understandable difficulty for faculty socialized within another historical and cultural situation is to know how best to facilitate diverse student learning within an increasingly multicultural context. That difficulty can lead faculty into the stance of seeming to argue for academic standards while they unwittingly transmit a heretofore unexamined culture.

Although increasing diversification of American higher education is forecast well into the twenty-first century, several additional disturbing trends give further cause for concern (Gerald and Hussar, 1991; One Third of a Nation, 1988):

African American, Latino, and Native American high school completion rates, college participation, and degree attainment continue to be lower than white rates (Carter and Wilson, 1991; Focus on Blacks, 1992; Focus on Hispanics, 1991; Focus on American Indian . . ., 1991; Smith, 1989).

Although women constitute the majority of students in higher education and their educational advancement at every level continues to rise, women
are grossly underrepresented in the mathematical and scientific fields, and the economic return for a college education is greater for men than for women (Touchton and Davis, 1991). The literature on all nonmainstream populations in higher education describes a continued host of personal and institutional barriers facing students from nontraditional backgrounds (Smith, 1989).

What these trends tell us is that we have not yet learned how to maximize educational opportunities and minimize or remove educational barriers for large numbers of our current and future college students in our classes and institutional life.

We acknowledge that the achievement of a truly multicultural college environment involves large-scale, complex, sustained organizational and cultural transformation (Smith, 1989; Jackson and Holvino, 1986, 1988). No dimension of that goal seems more elusive, however, than the critical analysis of the teaching and learning enterprise that exists at the heart of higher education purposes. We have attempted in this chapter to present a way for faculty to organize the often complicated task of understanding the ingredients of teaching and learning as these occur within a socially and culturally diverse college classroom. We present a model (Jackson, 1988) that singles out four dimensions of teaching and learning as distinct domains, which for the purposes of this chapter are addressed separately, even though in real life they are almost always difficult to disentangle.

The four dimensions of teaching and learning that appear to have particular relevance to issues of social and cultural diversity (see Figure 1) are (1) students: knowing one's students and understanding the ways that students from various social and cultural backgrounds experience the college classroom; (2) instructor: knowing oneself as a person with a prior history of

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**Figure 1.1: Dynamics of Multicultural Teaching and Learning**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Know who they are</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monocultural</td>
<td>Dominant cultural group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of “culture shock”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multicultural socialization</td>
<td>Targeted cultural group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of alienation, isolation, injury</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Course Content**

*What we teach*
- Curriculum of inclusion
- Diverse perspectives represented

**Teaching Methods**

*How we teach*
- Broaden repertoire of teaching methods
- Address multiple learning styles

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**Instructor**

*Know oneself*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monocultural</th>
<th>Multicultural socialization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unexamined assumptions and stereotyped beliefs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Adapted from Jackson, 1988.*
academic socialization interacting with a social and cultural background and learned beliefs; (3) course content: creating a curriculum that incorporates diverse social and culture perspectives: (4) teaching methods: developing a broad repertoire of teaching methods to address learning styles of students from different social backgrounds more effectively.

**Students: Know Who They Are**

In order to understand better the implications of the increased social and cultural diversity of our students, it helps to examine the ways in which students from different social and cultural groups experience the classroom environment. Mainstream students, often coming from homogeneous home and school communities, may experience a kind of culture shock as they encounter diverse populations and multicultural course content in some of their classes. Students from targeted social groups, in some cases also coming from fairly monocultural home or school communities and often the first college generation from working-class or recent immigrant families, may find their classroom experiences characterized by cultural isolation, tokenism, and potential alienation.

Although there are adjustment dilemmas common to both groups of students, mainstream as well as targeted, our emphasis in this section is on targeted students, for whom the college classroom is too often a place of cultural isolation and of norms, values, and customs that contradict their home socializations, and the curriculum too often represents a male perspective on the accomplishments of Western civilization. Targeted students can be isolated from their peers because their status as a classroom minority makes them both more and less visible and vulnerable to stereotypic comments, thoughtless assumptions, and casual jokes (Evans and Wall, 1991; Smith, 1989; Pearson, Shavlick, and Touchton, 1989; Wright, 1987).

**Alienated.** Recent inquiry into multicultural teaching and learning has focused on reframing the classroom environment as one that is not, as has been claimed, culture or value neutral, but that results from and reflects the cultural norms and traditions established by its predominantly Western male originators (Adams, 1992; Kuh and Whitt, 1988; Condon, 1986) Traditionally sanctioned individual performance, reasoned argumentation, impersonal objectivity, and sports-like competitiveness represent a distinct set of cultural norms and values that, for many students, are at best culturally unfamiliar and at worst contradict the norms and values of their gender or of their racial or ethnic backgrounds. For example, Asian American students find themselves in a bicultural dilemma if they have been socialized to affirm modesty, cooperation, and nonassertiveness in their family and community but are expected to be assertive or competitive in the classroom. Faculty can become more knowledgeable about and sensitive to the values and beliefs of students from diverse racial and cultural groups, while also not assuming that all students have experienced the same socialization in their homes or communities and taking care not to create or perpetuate new stereotypes.

In addition, students from diverse social backgrounds may respond differently to the powerful implicit messages about what bodies of knowledge are worth studying and which individual contributors worth acknowledging that the established college curriculum communicates. A curriculum that is limited to the traditions, values, and contributions of Western civilization may
convey to students that African American or Native American history and traditions or the achievements of women are not an important part of the educational agenda.

**Isolated.** When students are part of a numerical minority in college classrooms, they often experience the effects of tokenism—increased visibility, scrutiny, and pressure to perform (Smith, 1989). Unlike their mainstream counterparts, students of color and students with disabilities, for example, may stand out among their teachers and peers whatever their behaviors, whether outspoken or silent, whether on time for class or absent. During classroom discussions, such students are often unwittingly solicited as spokespersons for their group on particular issues, apparently on the assumption that everyone from a particular racial or ethnic group thinks alike and furthermore that their expertise in class is limited to their group’s perspective. Being made the unwelcome center of attention when topics of race, culture, gender, religion, sexual orientation, age, or disabilities are discussed, but generally ignored otherwise, creates for students the paradox of visibility/invisibility, which can isolate them and lead them to withdraw, thereby limiting their participation and jeopardizing their academic success.

Students from groups outside the traditional academic mainstream describe not only the experience of heightened visibility but also feeling invisible, excluded, and ignored by faculty and fellow students. During the formation of discussion and study groups, for example, students with disabilities may be initially excluded and cut off from valuable learning opportunities as well as social interaction. Women and students of color may be overlooked, given less time to respond to questions, interrupted more frequently, and not acknowledged or validated in the same ways as their European American male counterparts (Sandler and Hall, 1982; Sandler, 1987).

**Injured.** Students’ sense of pride and self-esteem can be injured by demeaning stereotypes, insensitive jokes, derogatory comments, and thoughtless language and actions on the part of faculty and fellow students. Negative assumptions about intellectual competence and qualifications (“You’re here because of affirmative action”), lowering standards or expressing surprise at good performance (“That’s a great paper for a black student”), as well as positive expectations founded on group membership rather than personal interests (all Asian students are good at math or science, all Latino students excel in drama or the arts) can be acted on and internalized by students and contributed to a cycle of damaging self-fulfilling prophecies.

**Instructor: Know Oneself**

Our faculty development model asks that as faculty we focus thoughtful attention on our own beliefs and attitudes, as derived not only from our academic socialization, but also from our individual experiences of a particular social and cultural background with specific values and beliefs. In this effort, we need to assess our comfort and skills in various cross-cultural situations, take responsibility for obtaining knowledge about the cultural backgrounds of our students, and become more aware of the impact of our socialization and learned beliefs on our interactions with students whose social and cultural backgrounds differ from our own (Cones, Noonan, and Jahna, 1983; Chapter Three, this column).

As a society, we are only one generation removed from legally sanctioned
educational segregation, and many faculty grew up or are currently living in monocultural home, educational, and community environments. Prior monocultural experiences may lead to discomfort in unfamiliar multicultural environments. More significant than discomfort, however, is having been socialized with an unexamined set of traditions, beliefs, and assumptions about ourselves and a limited knowledge about others (Bowser and Hunt, 1981; Cones, Noonan, and Jahna, 1983; Katz, 1978). Furthermore, the monocultural experiences of faculty from dominant groups socialized within mainstream culture often create a context in which attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors are not acknowledged as reflections of a particular racial group (white), ethnic heritage (European), or gender orientation (male) but are thought of as universal human trials (Sandler, 1987). The tendency of individuals from dominant cultural groups to see their norms and traditions as universally valued and preferred supports a cultural embeddedness that makes it extremely difficult to acknowledge the extent of negative assumptions and stereotypes toward those with other educational values or beliefs. Although we are not responsible for the cultural-specific beliefs we grew up with, we are surely responsible for examining and questioning them as adults and as educators.

Curriculum: What We Teach

The curriculum, or what we teach, is typically the major focus for discussion and debate by college faculty. The current movement toward diversity and multiculturalism has rekindled that debate with an intensity that has not been seen since the development of racial and ethnic studies and women's studies in the early 1970s (Levine, 1992; Butler and Walter, 1991; "Curricular and Institutional Change," 1990). It is beyond the scope of this chapter to enter into the debate as such. One especially relevant question, however, is the extent to which curriculum reform is a part of multicultural education and the kinds of change most effective for creating a curriculum that reflects a range of social perspectives. Within the context of the larger debate, some authors take the position that a "curriculum of inclusion" is critical for educating all students to live in a socially diverse society and an increasingly interdependent world (Gaff, 1992; Butler, 1991; Higgenbotham, 1990). Our four-part model identifies the curriculum—what we teach—as an inescapable area for transition as we engage in a developmental process for exclusion to inclusion. We must ask ourselves as faculty to examine the perspectives previously used and to develop curricula so that the course content (themes and issues), the course materials (texts and assignments), and the sources of knowledge (theorists and authorities) we validate and emphasize reach beyond the current European traditions of thought and male authorities to include the contributions, experiences, and perspectives of the traditionally marginalized but increasingly visible members of society.

We have found the transformation phase model described below useful in that it is based on actual experiences of curriculum change in women and ethnic studies, and its several phases represent qualitatively distinctive modes by which faculty gradually reexperience the curriculum of their specific disciplines through an “inside-out approach” and from the multiple perspectives of the previously excluded (Schuster and Van Dyne, 1985; Green, 1989).
Mode 1: The Exclusive Curriculum. The experiences and perspectives that characterize this curriculum are those of the mainstream academic disciplines, still largely male and derived from European academic values. This tradition tends not to incorporate alternative perspectives or seems to present them in ways that devalue their contributions or present their experiences in stereotypical or demeaning ways.

Mode 2: The Exceptional Outsider. This curricular mode includes contributions of exceptional individuals from marginalized groups, on traditional criteria. The new perspectives they offer do not result in reconceptualizing the field of study. Although it is decidedly incomplete, this mode of reform enables students from underrepresented racial, cultural, and other social groups at least to feel included in the subject of study, and enables dominant students to broaden their reference points.

Mode 3: Understanding the Outsider. This dimension of curricular reform goes beyond including exceptional individuals in the margins of an otherwise unaltered curriculum and is characterized instead by efforts to analyze and understand the reasons for and conditions of exclusion for nonmainstream groups. Differences in culture or gender are still viewed in relation to the dominant ideas and contributions of those that have traditionally set standards and defined norms of participation. Critical examination of those norms and standards at this point tend to focus on how to equalize the playing field rather than on fundamentally changing the rules of the game.

Mode 4: Getting Inside the Outsider. In this mode, the authentic voices and experiences of the former "outsiders" are considered directly and in their own terms rather than interpreted through the lenses of the dominant culture. Varied voices help make clear the multiple nature of reality as it is perceived from the inside out, and these diverse voices are valued for what they can tell us about various perspectives on reality.

Mode 5: The Transformed Curriculum. This approach eliminates the unexamined assumption of cultural hegemony that was established by the exclusive curriculum and replaces it with a curriculum that acknowledges the new knowledge and new scholarship that is created when the experiences, perspectives, and worldviews of traditionally marginalized peoples are taken as multiple centers in the curriculum. It encourages new ways of thinking and incorporates new methodologies, so that different epistemological questions are raised, old assumptions are questioned, subjective data sources are considered, and prior theories either revised or invalidated. Finally, the curriculum of inclusion is complete when new ways of teaching and learning accompany the transformed curriculum (Green, 1989; Border and Chism, 1992; Butler and Walter, 1991; Chapter Six, this volume).

Teaching Methods: How We Teach.

The fourth dimension of this model—the how as distinct from the what of teaching—addresses a frequently overlooked component of the multicultural classroom dialogue, the complex interplay between social and cultural worldview on the one hand and teaching or learning style on the other. Typically, many college faculty teach the way they were taught and thereby replicate unexamined teaching practices characterized by requiring the acquisition of course content and disciplinary knowledge, the transmission of
information via the lecture as the method of choice, and the evaluation of achievement as demonstrated solely by individual performances (Kuh and Whitt, 1988). These traditionally sanctioned academic practices are no longer viewed as culturally neutral, but as reflective of an implicit or “hidden” curriculum, neither familiar nor welcoming to students whose previous school, home, and community socialization has valued different norms and behavioral expectations (Adams, 1992; Green, 1989; Condon, 1986). The result is that women students, students of color, and students from linguistic minorities in particular are often faced with bicultural dilemmas as they strive to balance the behavioral expectations of college classes (assertion, competition, independence, and individualism) with their own cultural norms and values. If they do not succeed, they are often misunderstood as underprepared, unmotivated, or unintelligent (Pearson, Shavlick, and Touchton, 1989; Hale-Benson, 1986; Ramirez and Castaneda, 1974).

Effective teaching in the multicultural classroom depends on the teacher’s willingness and ability to develop a flexible repertoire of teaching strategies so as to maximize the match between the cultural and learning styles of students. This willingness in turn calls for information concerning the cultural orientation that students, understood both as individuals and as members of distinct social groups, may bring with them to the college classroom. The broad findings in cultural and learning style studies of the development, socialization, and schooling of African, Asian, and Native Americans, Latinos, and women suggest some important areas where faculty might consider utilizing alternative teaching modes (Anderson and Adams, 1992; Tharp, 1989; Shade, 1989; Pearson, Shavlick, and Touchton, 1989). These alternatives include collaborative and cooperative learning activities to balance traditions of individualistic competition; visual, auditory, or dramatic demonstrations as alternatives to the exclusive use of verbal explanation and written expression; group, peer and cross-age learning projects as well as individual questions and answers; study groups and group projects built on peer relationships instead of exclusively solo study; active learning projects, simulations, and role plays to balance the passive learnings of the lecture-and-listen note-taking mode.

Various instructional design models and pedagogical guides are available to faculty who wish to test new alternatives gradually (Weinstein, 1988; Palmer, 1981; Pfeiffer and Jones, 1974). The Learning Style Manual (Smith and Kolb, 1986) and teaching models based on Kolb’s Learning Style Inventory (Svinicki and Dixon, 1987; Anderson and Adams, 1992) can provide ideas that will help faculty plan to utilize teaching modes unfamiliar to them and ultimately to stretch the stylistic resources of their teaching repertoire.

As we enlarge our repertoire of curricular and teaching strategies, we increase the likelihood of academic success for a broader range of students and we enable more socially diverse college students to feel welcomed, included, and competent. The benefits of instructional flexibility, however, extend to the traditional student as well, because varied teaching is effective teaching in any event. It increases the likelihood of matching learning differences for all students, while providing regular practice and development in their less preferred modes. Finally, a college teacher’s repertoire of teaching strategies exemplifies for all students the multicultural value of reciprocity rather than the monocultural expectation of acculturation.

In conclusion, we believe this four-part model of the dynamics of
multicultural teaching and learning may prove useful to faculty and in faculty development programs. We propose three applications. First, the model can be used by the college teacher as a framework, organizer, and diagnostic tool for his or her own classroom experience. Second, it serves as a framework for the single workshops or faculty development series suggested by the faculty development literature (Schmitz, Paul, and Greenberg, 1992; Butler and Schmitz, 1991; Paige-Pointer and Auletta, 1990). Third, it can help to systematize and manage the extensive new literature that is emerging from the dialogue about multiculturalism currently underway in American higher education.

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By applying adult learning principles and making it fun for both the students and the teacher, Susan M. Leininger has structured activity for the two-year classroom called “gaming.” In the following article she shares this concept with you.

Do you teach classes where students yawn? Nod off to sleep? Stare at you with a blank look? If your answer is yes to one or all of these questions, then this article is for you!

I have also experienced similar situations and have wondered that age-old question: Are they truly learning what I am teaching? I really felt the need to spice up my classroom teaching, and so I began to review everything I could about teaching strategies. While I was trying to select the best teaching strategy, I was reminded of Malcolm Knowles (The Modern Practice of Adult Education: From Andragogy to Pedagogy. 1980: 10-15) and the adult learning principles. These principles state that adults are self-directed learners, like immediate feedback, love problem centered questions (What if? What if? What if?) and want to apply this information to their future role.

Research has also shown that learning should be fun, that we should face facts, and that thinking is hard (R. deTornyay and M. Thompson, Strategies for Teaching Nursing. 1982: 23-25). When the student has fun in the learning process, usually the teacher has fun, and this makes for a positive interaction. Wouldn’t that be great to see on course evaluations!

Since my goal was to apply adult learning principles sprinkled in with fun, I decided to use the strategy of gaming. A game is defined as a structured activity (rules are necessary) which completes a goal (any concept from class) and employs questions which vary in complexity (knowledge to application to evaluation). Games can be used to achieve any of the educational domains. A cognitive question can be one that requires a simple (recall) answer or one that requires that a problem be solved. A cognitive question would be one such as the following: What is one symptom of hyperthyroidism? An affective domain question can evaluate beliefs, values, or ethical dilemmas. An affective domain question would be one such as this: Is it a nurse’s right to know a patient’s AIDS status? From the psychomotor domain, can come a situational question about performing a task or skill, such as this one: If a patient’s electrocardiogram shows a lethal heart irregularity, describe the proper location of the defibrillator paddles.

ADVANTAGES OF GAMING

Some of the benefits of gaming are that they:
1. actively involve the student
2. are nonthreatening
3. give immediate feedback
4. let students apply new knowledge
5. help students solve problems needing critical thinking skills
6. show retention of new or renewed concepts
7. lead to discussion
8. allow mistakes to be made
9. can be developed easily

Since enrollment in two-year colleges has shown an increase in the nontraditional student/learner, gaming techniques in the classroom setting provide and encourage a team building spirit and peer support.

DISADVANTAGES OF GAMING
Some of the disadvantages of gaming are that they:
1. are time consuming
2. can be expensive
3. may not be the preferred learning style for some students (I sometimes use these students as timekeepers and scorekeepers.)

So how do I use games? I vary my gaming strategy by using three well known games (S. Stern, Resuscitate Your Teaching. 1989: 12-13, 19-24, 39-40). The first game is “Answer with a Question,” better known as “Jeopardy.” Five similar categories are selected and written on the blackboard. Under each category, are written the allotted points (example: 100, 200, 300, 400, 500). The questions that correspond to the points are written on an index card which the Master of Ceremony (the instructor) is privy to. Each team takes a turn and picks a category with the corresponding points. The Master of Ceremony reads the typed statement from the index card.

I use this game—“Electrocardiogram (EKG) Jeopardy”—after covering the cardiac unit in class. Heart rhythms, signs and symptoms, medications, emergency measures, and nursing observations are the five categories.

After the allotted time—usually thirty seconds—the team leader gives a response in the form of a question. If the response is wrong, I usually give it to another team. Group size can vary. I have played with two to six teams and four to seven students on each team. Before starting this game, I know where the double jeopardizes will be since the students really develop a competitive edge fast! Reinforcements can be given by handing out prizes such as stickers, gum, and hard candy when the last question in a category is answered. This game provides a good review of material and mechanism, wherein all students (traditional and nontraditional) can learn from one another.

TIC-TAC-TOE
In the second game that I use with students, the tic-tac-toe symbol is drawn on the board with each block numbered, one through nine. The same format is used with the teams as in “Answer with a Question.” The first team to achieve three X’s or three O’s in a row is the winner. This game can be used as a playoff series (elimination rounds). I develop nine questions dealing with common ethical dilemmas: AIDS, confidentiality, living wills, and negligence issues, for examples.

MATCH IT!
In the last game—Match It!—I write five or six broad categories on the board. The clues that match each category are written on index cards which are then dealt out to each group by the instructor. The groups have five to ten minutes to discuss the clues before each team tapes the clues on the board under each category. An oral review is then done with the categories and their clues. This game lends itself to a lot of group interaction with peers that the
nontraditional students' busy schedules would not generally include or accommodate. An example of one game is "Endocrine System Match It!" After a review of the endocrine system in class, five common disease entities (diabetes, hypothyroidism, etc.) are written on the board. The index cards contain either signs and symptoms, treatment measures, or diagnostic testing for the diseases.

GAME RULES

It is very important for the instructor to set the game rules before the start of each game. These rules should include the following:

1. Set an objective before you start so that students are aware of the content and tone of the game.
2. Describe the scope of the information that will be covered during the game. This can be done while explaining the categories of the game.
3. State the rules for team responsibilities, instructor responsibilities, time allotment for the game, and scorekeeping.
4. Explain external constraints; for example, textbooks cannot be used during the game.

Since I have been playing games with the students, I admit that I have hit the jackpot! Course evaluations have been positive. Here are some comments: "Learning is fun," "Stimulated my thinking," and "Look forward to the next class."

In summary, games can be used in a wide variety of classroom situations. Experiencing a scenario through a gaming format promotes learning that encourages critical thinking, affective learning, and psychomotor skills. Games can prepare our learners for future practice by providing the opportunity to develop and test their knowledge in a risk-free environment.

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The Editorial Board of the OATYC Journal is soliciting written responses (three or four paragraphs) to the question: Scholarly Activities in the Two-Year Colleges: What Should Be the Roles, Goals, Methods, and Rewards? The response should address one of the many possible perspectives. Here is your chance to participate, and the Board encourages you to do so. As determined by the Board, the best responses will be published in the next edition's "Forum" section, deadline: September 16, 1994.
ISSUE: Will Mandatory Outcomes Assessment Improve the Quality of Two-Year Education?

The Issue Is Not the "Mandatory," But the "Building"

Shelby J. Pierce

For some time, the educational community has expressed much concern and frustration about outcomes assessment—concern about the "mandatory" nature of outcomes assessment, and frustration with building such a program in spite of the dearth of information about how to do so effectively. I do not see the mandatory nature of outcomes assessment as the crucial issue; to assure widespread participation, a mandate probably needed to be imposed. The issue really is how to build a successful program. Institutions that begin their plans and then watch them evolve may feel, at times, that they are just "spinning their wheels," and that achieving a unified and an effective program is far in the future. However, in spite of the growing pains, and in spite of opinions expressed by contrarians, I believe that outcomes assessment will indeed improve the quality of two-year education.

Some critics say that outcomes assessment is just a passing educational fad. Quite the contrary opinion was expressed at two recent conferences that I attended. As we watch the level of our students' academic achievement lag behind the levels of students from other countries, the demands from our constituents for accountability are increasing. Our accrediting bodies and state legislatures can see value in a well-administered outcomes assessment program, and if we educators look at outcomes assessment objectively, we ought to see that value also. As a means of quality control, an outcomes assessment program that is effectively integrated into the overall institutional effectiveness plan can lead to institutional improvement, and on the department level, to improvement of the teaching/learning process. This improvement occurs as solid data is analyzed and as conversations occur within and between department and division members. Since we have begun working on our outcomes assessment program, conversations about curriculum, general education competencies and standards for those competencies, types of assessment employed now and in the future, and classroom activities and methodologies have become much debated topics. A classroom-based research group is active in the Arts and Sciences Division, and the potential for new groups to start in the other divisions exists. If faculty and administration embraces the outcomes assessment process and accept it as a positive force in their lives, the potential for sharing methodologies and techniques is increased. This broad-based communication about teaching can only be positive as faculty learn about new and successful techniques.

Some say that grades are a "good enough" measure of student performance. But today, grades are no longer good enough. The North Central Association has indicated the importance of successful outcomes assessment programs using multiple measures of student performance. The use of more than one measure will enable us to assess areas (like student satisfaction) that grades traditionally ignore. In addition, we educators are well aware of grade inflation; thus, the use of grades alone is an inadequate measure of actual student performance. A successful
outcomes assessment program will provide solid data for decision-making. Though some of us are required by our own individual accrediting bodies to provide extensive data about our students' performance, many of us in education are accustomed to "flying by the seat of our pants"; our decisions about curriculum too often are made on the basis of isolated examples and expert opinion. Too few of us in this category rely on our own researched data of our own populations. With the use of multiple outcomes assessment measures, we will be collecting data about our students' performance that will empower us to make wise and appropriate curriculum and methodology decisions. Combining our own research with the opinions of our experts makes us that much more powerful as we try to make the best possible decisions.

Some say that establishing an outcomes assessment program is too much work. Indeed at the outset, that may seem to be the case as the plan is developed and written. However, once that step has been accomplished, an outcomes assessment program can be successfully integrated into the institutional effectiveness plan. In short, the assessment program becomes a part of the institution's daily operations; assessing studies at appropriate points in their educational career and analyzing the resulting data becomes second nature to faculty and administrators. Outcomes assessment, as integrated into our daily lives, then becomes a part of our lives—it will not make extraordinary work demands on us. The possibility of improvement in educational quality justifies its incorporation into the workload. As participation becomes the norm, the program will not become overly onerous—it will simply be another way that we evaluate our success with the teaching/learning process. Again, this ongoing assessment process can only improve the quality of education at two-year institutions as those involved in the program continually monitor themselves and use their data for improvement.

Finally, some say that an outcomes assessment program will stifle creativity and curtail academic freedom. I maintain that a successful outcomes assessment program will foster creativity and protect academic freedom. Since we have begun our outcomes assessment plan, faculty have been talking more about improving the teaching/learning process than ever before. Once the data is in, chances for creativity improve as instructional personnel work together to incorporate new and effective techniques into their classrooms. The classroom can become a creative haven where students and faculty interact productively. Outcomes assessment can also protect academic freedom, if the people within the educational institutions take the lead and do not wait for assessment techniques to be mandated by state legislatures. Currently, it is the faculty who manage their own outcomes assessment programs at many institutions; it is they who make decisions about what to assess and what not to assess. In this setting, academic freedom can only be enhanced since it is the faculty who own the program. In this environment, the outcomes assessment program will improve the quality of education at two-year institutions.

As the above comments indicate, the ability of outcomes assessment to improve the quality of two-year education rests with one key issue—the active involvement of faculty and instructional administrators. With this involvement, and with the pledge to use the information on a path to improvement, outcomes assessment should indeed result in the improvement of the quality of two-year education. As I conclude, I am reminded of Pascal's "gamble." Though of a completely different order, I think it behooves all of us in academe to "gamble" on the effectiveness of outcomes assessment—mandatory or not.

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Mandatory Outcomes Assessment Works to the Detriment of Educational Programs

Marc Green

If enacted, mandatory outcomes assessment would produce significant changes in two-year education which would ultimately work to the detriment of programs within an institution and students. The quality of education would no longer be measured by the content of curriculum and instruction; instead, it would then be measured both internally and externally by the level at which the outcomes were achieved.

The purpose of outcomes assessment is to provide a yardstick that determines how well programs provide instruction or to what extent students meet course objectives. If they fail to provide adequate instruction, then instructors and program evaluators review and modify the course of study to correct the deficiency. If students do not adequately achieve the course objectives, they meet with an academic advisor who help determine if they should retake the course or seek remediation to prepare them to try again. Under the best circumstances, the outcomes assessment would work quite well; however, very few things exist in ideal circumstances. Several problems can appear which are almost impossible to correct. They are the desire of the college to meet the established standards of the mandatory outcomes assessment and the students' recognition that successful completion of a course or program is also meeting the established standards of the mandatory outcomes assessment.

Knowing that an outcomes assessment is the final stage in completing a program, a series of courses, or a particular course, an instructor or a college can change the instructional focus and concentrate too much on preparing for the assessment. This change comes about because too much emphasis is placed upon success with not a lot of concern about how it is achieved. The focus of the course is now preparing for the assessment. The prestige or, in some cases, the future of the instructor or the program is in direct correlation to the level achieved on the assessment. In the process, the original objectives of the course or program are minimized to the point that they are ineffective in meeting students' needs.

Under the mandatory outcomes assessment, students know their success also depends upon a level of achievement. It may determine if they must repeat a class or move on, it may determine if they can transfer to a four-year school, or it may determine if they can hold a job. The problem under these circumstances is that students may respond differently to the assessment regardless of what they have learned in class, and it will influence their educational experiences. Given these factors, a number of students might also change their focus to the assessment rather than the course content. Their prestige or self-esteem and their educational future will also be in direct correlation to the level achieved on the assessment.

Based upon these conditions, mandatory outcomes assessment would become something other than what it was intended. It is a mechanism to improve curriculum and student performance. When those it affects, however believe it necessary to shift the emphasis of a course or program to the assessment, the quality of two-year education will suffer.

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Perhaps

Thomas Beery

The answer to this question is a resounding “perhaps.” The real question we should be asking is, “Why are we assessing student outcomes?” If the answer to this question is that assessment is mandated by accrediting agencies and the OBR as another bureaucratic roadblock to hinder our jobs, then we can expect little improvement in educational quality. Many institutions will devise intricate plans designed only to collect data; this data will validate the institution in the eyes of the mandators, but not affect any real changes. In essence, we will have created a tool that we have no intention of using. But, if the answer to the question is that institutions are assessing outcomes because we want to improve education, then we will not only create the tool, but we will use it for its intended purpose only—and positive changes will occur.

The key to this use lies with the faculties. One of North Central’s guidelines for assessment plans is that they should be faculty generated and driven, and this is an important guideline. Who is better qualified to design a plan, and who can make better use of the information gathered than those people who have daily contact with the students? It is the faculties who have the most influence on learning; it is the faculties who can make both the immediate and long-term changes needed to affect learning. If the data is used by teaching faculty and departments to openly review teaching strategies (not performance), course content, student learning techniques, entering skills levels, and numerous other areas, then improvements will be made where they need to occur first—with the students in the classroom.

Also, if the plan is faculty developed and controlled, and if the focus is always on improving student learning, a major concern of some faculties will be diminished. The plan’s purpose is to assess student learning outcomes, not to evaluate teaching performance. It would be a fallacy to assume that teaching performance (the way material is presented) is the only influence on student learning, so there should be no need to feel threatened as long as the emphasis remains on the students. We, as faculty members, have an opportunity to develop and operate a plan that will provide us with useful data. But, we must remember the reason for assessing student outcomes—to use the data to improve student learning.

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REACTION

Reaction to James Badal’s Article
An Assignment Worthy of Assignment (Fall 1993)
Barbara P. Thompson

The Journal encourages letters and articles in response to its contents, policies and OATYC activities.

James Badal’s approach to evaluating source material by writing a critical paper intrigued me. To express an opinion about the worth of a movie solely by reading reviewers’ comments requires the students to look closely at the credibility of the reviewers. I know I’ve spent a good part of class time talking about how to evaluate research materials for their usefulness; this assignment provides the students with the opportunity to evaluate on their own.

Most research texts urge students to evaluate source materials in terms of recency, utility, and author credibility. Many students, however, don’t seem to be concerned with author credibility; as long as the source is recent and focuses on their subject matter, they are content. Badal’s assignment is an excellent exercise in critical reading and deals with many of the problems students will encounter while working on the research paper:

1. “Material can be repetitive.” Students often complain, “All my sources say the same thing; how do I document that?” Badal’s assignment will allow students to practice generic documentation: “Most critics agree that . . . .”
2. “Not all sources are of equal worth.” This is probably the most valuable lesson to be learned. If a student reads 12 sources, does she use them all? How does she decide which are the best ones? This assignment compels the student to examine writing style, credibility and author bias closely.
3. “Writers really do write for specific audiences.” The student who is researching mainstreaming in the classroom will know to consult the Encyclopedia of Education rather than the Encyclopedia Britannica after doing Badal’s assignment.
4. “Writers sometimes make mistakes.” It bolsters students’ confidence to realize that not everything in print is perfect—and surprises them as well!
5. “Writers can be biased.” To recognize bias is paramount to good critical reading. I’m convinced Siskel and Ebert have Martin Scorsese enshrined in some secret place; I’ve never read a bad review of one of his movies! Also, the assignment teaches students to see where the critic has a personal ax to grind rather than an interest in critiquing a movie: this is an excellent device to teach tone and writers “voice.”
6. “Pulling information from a source can be difficult when an author’s purpose differs from a researcher’s.” Students can practice wading through the unnecessary details of the source and concentrate on sifting out information pertinent to their purpose. Students are reluctant to criticize sources; often they accept a source solely on whether it addresses their topic in any way.

If students are to be successful with research, it all begins with their sources. Badal’s assignment is a valuable tool for teaching critical reading of research source materials.

Barbara P. Thompson
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In Memorium

Ken Hahn
Director of Institutional Research, Terra Community College

Terra Community College Director Kenneth H. Hahn, 63, 1218 Birchard Avenue, died Monday, March 14, 1994, at the Medical College of Ohio in Toledo.

He was born in Hillsboro, Tennessee, to Carl and Mary Alberta (Metcalfe) Hahn. On May 17, 1968, he married June Kerschner.

Ken received degrees in business administration from Hanover College and the Army Engineering Training Agency and a music degree from Heidelberg College. He also was a 1951 graduate of Scotsburg High School in Indiana, and attended Indiana University.

Hahn served as director of institutional research at Terra Community College. He worked at Terra for the past 25 years, serving as the founding director of the business technologies division, director of public relations and development, director of auxiliary services and director of educational services.

"Ken was a gifted, talented and caring person," Roger Bober, Dean of Instruction at Terra, so describes Ken. "We will miss so very much Ken teaching his music classes and working with his students. We will also miss his conviction that you can laugh and sing through tough times."

That was Ken. He always had a positive attitude.

Ken spent five years as manager of data systems for the Ford Motor Company, Dearborn, Michigan, and three years as the corporate manager of data systems for Cooper Tire and Rubber Company in Findlay. Ken was a member of Fremont Alliance Church where he served as choir director and worship leader. He was also a member of the Ohio Network of Faculty-Staff Developers, American Association of Community Colleges, National Association of Small Business International Trade Educators, Port Clinton Chamber of Commerce, National Guild of Piano Teachers, American Federation of Teachers of Voice and the Sandusky County Chapter of Technology Expo 1994.

Ken was one of the founding fathers of the Ohio Association of Two-Year Colleges. He chaired and hosted conferences, wrote for the Journal, served on the Board of Directors, and was this year’s chairman of OATYC’s State Awards Committee. Whenever asked, Ken would serve long and well. But most of all, Ken was an extremely creative and insightful, kind and gentle human being—a loyal friend of OATYC and a dedicated two-year college professional. Ken was dearly loved and he will be greatly missed.

In Ken’s memory, a Kenneth Hahn Memorial Scholarship Fund has been established through the Terra Foundation. Any memorial gift may be sent to Sue Babione, Director of Institutional Development, Terra Community College, 2830 Napoleon Road, Fremont, OH 43420.
THEME: "Confronting Contemporary Controversy: Theoretical, Pedagogical and Political Issues Facing Two-Year Colleges"

DATES: Friday, October 28, 1994

LOCATION: Lorain County Community College, Elyria, Ohio

PURPOSE: The OATYC provides a forum in which faculty and administrators in two-year institutions can meet to discuss and resolve mutual concerns. Because this year's conference examines controversies we face as educators, panels representing various colleges are especially invited to promote dynamic exchanges of policy and practice.

SPECIAL SPEAKERS: Rita Silverman and Bill Welty

TOPIC: Case Studies for Faculty Development

Rita Silverman is Professor of Education and Co-Director with Bill Welty of the Center for Cases Studies at Pace University. Bill Welty is Professor of Management and Director of the Pforzheimer Center for Faculty Development. They regularly present at national and regional conferences, discussing the use of cases to promote critical discussion in the classroom, and they lead case teaching and case writing workshops across the country.

Professors Silverman and Welty are completing their second consecutive FIPSE grant. Their current funding supports them to develop cases about diversity issues in university teaching and to disseminate the cases and the method widely. Their first FIPSE grant led to the development of more than sixty cases for teacher education, published by McGraw-Hill.

WORKSHOP: Case Studies in the Community College Classroom: Promoting Active Learning

This workshop will engage the participants in the discussion of a case study about classroom teaching, based on the actual experience of a college professor. The discussion will be followed by a debriefing of the process of case teaching and its role in faculty development and in the college classroom. Participants will be encouraged to explore opportunities to use cases in their own teaching.

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