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The Feeling of Difference: Minority Faculty Experience in Academe

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Cultural Studies and American Literature Studies in Mainland China: What Can One Do for the Other?

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[Abstract] The paper traces the trajectory of the interaction between American literature research and teaching in the 1990s in China. The paper delineates the changing attitudes towards the United States and the ideological constraints that influence the shift of the center of gravity in the discipline of American studies in China, particularly, teaching and research of American literature, institutional and curriculum changes. The paper argues that the multiculturalism prevalent over the past two decades in the humanities and social sciences in China and other parts of the world has outpaced the organizational strictures in academia. To encourage a multiple grid within traditional interdisciplinary approaches means a generous acceptance of ideological differences and geo-political constraints in terms of marshalling academic and administrative resources.

[Key Words] multiculturalism, institutional and curriculum changes, American literature

The purpose of this paper is to report on the state of American literature studies in mainland China in the 1990s, with special attention to monitoring the status of American literature research and teaching as they have evolved under cultural studies which have globalized English teaching in recent years. Information in this report may be used to provide specific guidance to institutions, individuals and associations in China and elsewhere. This report also includes a detailed and in-depth assessment of institution-based individuals and their achievement in mainland China, a factual information base and an analytic report based on a series of “core questions.” The study is based primarily on an analysis of existing reports and publications on American literature (including American literature textbooks) on the mainland, personal interviews; and analysis of a large quantity of published and unpublished data. Information here given by no means attempts to be comprehensive. There have been a number of specific reports written on educational matters relating to China and the U.S. These have made my task easier and I shall have occasion to refer to many of them.

To establish an understanding of what cultural studies can do, or what it has actually done, in the past decade for American literature studies, I wish to briefly trace the trajectory of American studies’ inception as a discipline in order to place the 1990s in perspective. This is essential if we want to appreciate the changing attitudes towards the United States and the ideological constraints that often influence what Philip C. Saunders calls the “shift in the center of gravity” in Chinese study of American literature. The emergence of American
Studies as a professional discipline took place in the early 1960s as a response to the demands of the changing situation in domestic and international affairs. But truly interdisciplinary American Studies programs that could, to quote John G. Blair, “combine the insights of the diverse disciplines engaged in studying the United States, usually off in their separate corners of the campus and the mind”, did not emerge until the early 1980s. The initial stage of American Studies in this country began in the early 1960s and ended in 1966 when the Cultural Revolution began. During this period, China and the United States were still locked in confrontation. Added to this cold war atmosphere was the open conflict between the Soviet Union and China. Moreover, domestic economic reconstruction was, after a difficult time, beginning to recover. It was therefore in China’s national interest to study the United States. In answer to Chairman Mao Zedong’s call for an expansion of foreign studies, some research-oriented institutions and university-based teaching-research centers were established in 1964 placing their emphasis on American history, international relations, economy, and literature.

Study of the United States in this period had severe limitations. It was guided by a rigid ideological perspective, which was clearly felt in every field of scholarship. Scholars appeared to suffer from a great deal of cognitive dissonance, and simply looked for evidence to confirm their preconceived notions of how the United States functioned and brought all the attendant cultural, political and historical baggage to bear on their analyses of the United States. In literature, only progressive writers such as Albert Maltz and Michael Gold, and the so-called realist authors such as Twain, Dreiser, London, and Hemingway were introduced to Chinese readers. As research and teaching about the United States was conducted behind closed doors, and because China and the United States did not have normal relations and communications, the sources that Chinese scholars relied on were either inadequate or outdated. This factor and others severely limited progress in scholarship but this initial stage laid foundations for significant future developments in American Studies, both institutionally and professionally.

Cultural study is edging into the mainstream because of the academic endeavor of the globalizing decade. Whereas an increasing number of scholars feel that there is something drastically changed about the academic frameworks in which we study literature, there is a great deal of reservation, with what Edward Said refers to as “revision” of existing frameworks. Said’s suggestion in “Globalizing Literary Study” is particularly pertinent to what is currently occurring in literary studies: that two aspects of the intellectual framework in particular seem more in need of revision: the idea that literature exists with a national framework and the assumption that a literary object exists in some sort of stable or at least consistently identifiable form. In introducing American literature studies with cultural studies, publication and research have in the past decade taken the lead of American literature teaching in the universities. As yet, the extent of its institutionalization in Chinese academia is minimal in terms of curriculum change. One may perhaps notice a discontinuity
in the open policy beginning fin the 1980s to the end of that decade, which still has an impact. Then American literature curriculum is most resistant to change. While the 1990s has seen the reemergence of a free intellectual setting and an easing of ideological bind that has been influenced by the cold-war tension in Sino-American relations, one should remember that the delicate Chinese domestic balance could be upset over any number of issues, national and international. Because education is solely a governmental effort and because it is closely tied to other goals, if rather abrupt political shifts continue to occur in China as they have over the past three decades, further discontinuities could occur, without warning, in educational policy.

For over a century, Chinese leaders have consistently displayed ambivalence concerning an appropriate degree of involvement with the world of scholarship and education beyond China’s borders. While the specifics of interchange have changed greatly over the past century, there remains a strong sense that there ought to be limits of “penetration” and a cultural or national essence should be preserved, be it the set of Confucian principles of social order of a century ago or the socialist ideology of today. In practice, however, there can be no objective assessment of where one ought to draw the line in this matter, and specific policies will merely reflect the current balance of opinions on the subject. The dramatic shifts in policy over the past three years suggest the wide range of possible opinions on the issue of foreign ties. We should therefore remain sensitive to a possibility of changes in the opinion balance, which could strike at the heart of international educational exchange.

Changes in American literature studies in the past decade have reflected improvement in the institutional framework within which American studies must operate, as well as in the way one relates to the authorities who manage such institutions. Since American studies have proliferated to the point where it now embraces behavioral studies, minority studies, women’s studies, popular culture, etc., and institutional and curriculum changes have begun to assimilate American literature, the opportunities to develop the current interest in American literature and culture are virtually unlimited. American literature textbooks and anthologies published in China over the past decade have shown signs of going beyond the ideological bind of the early decades. When American studies were launched in the 1960s its proponents conceived of it as a way to explore the interstices between history and literature to study American culture, it carried with it the cold-war ideological baggage which is still manifest in the post-cold war hunger for information of all kinds about the United States, and institutional change of American literature framework in the curriculum. If, as Daniel Aaron (1981), a renowned American studies scholar at Harvard, said that “there is no single way to approach the study of the United States. Foreign countries study the U.S. for their own purposes and in their own way,” what distinguishes American literature studies in China from its counterpart in the U.S. is that the former is, as Gildner (1981) put it, “inherently comparative.”
This recognition, which understandably encourages a multiple grid within a traditional interdisciplinary approach, means a generous acceptance of ideological differences and geopolitical constraints in terms of marshalling academic and administrative resources. Any approach to American studies (which in China includes English teaching) must therefore begin with zero-based planning, which must take into account limitations of resources as well as various bureaucratic factors. Even at this stage, at the administrative level, the Chinese are still vague and somewhat uninformed about the specifics of the subject. This does not mean that Chinese academia is resistant to change; it simply means that it is beginning with single disciplines – American English language learning (to name the most pragmatic) and American history and literature – and planning to move gradually into the social sciences, a term which is not understood in China in the same sense as the expression is used in America. In China, the term covers just about everything that is not a natural science. This is clearly indicated by the titles of the two most prestigious research organizations in China: the Academy of [Natural] Sciences and the Academy of Social Sciences (which includes the Institutes of American Studies, World History and Foreign Literature).

The inherent Chinese view of the relationship between language, history, and literature here implied requires some historical understanding. In the 1950s, the Soviet model of specialized institutes included everything from metallurgy to language, institutes of foreign languages and foreign language departments. This is mostly where American literature instruction in English language happens in the Chinese context. The Soviet model studies language as a technical skill and does not include the culture and area studies usually found in the liberal arts college programs. What happens, as a result, is that American literature teaching now has several limitations, even as academia generally goes multidisciplinary and cultural studies theorists and Americanists are finding their voices. (e.g. NEU’s American studies MA program is under applied linguistics, a category that is, often falsely, equated with, and upgraded from, English as a Second Language programs).

The English department, which is where American literature teaching most often happens, faces the same problem of structural and curriculum constraints following the waves of institutional mergers that have occurred nation-wide over the past decade. Those mergers, that integrate technological institutions into multidisciplinary campuses, have led to an alternate situation, either the language-focused faculty from a technological university’s language center are integrated into the English department, or English faculty are incorporated under the Foreign Languages Department framework. This has created the need for a hierarchy in curriculum design, and the need to either dilute the humanities syllabus or encode American literature into language-focused programs. Putting American studies programs into the applied linguistics (language) category is limiting in several ways, particularly in decisions regarding the canon, given that a prominent feature of the cultural studies grid consists in the questioning and reordering of the canon. The notion of a standard
English language dominates the linguistic approach to the canon of what is considered “good” English and to a large extent determines the frequent controversy over the criterion of text selection from American literature. Certain authors and texts, particularly ethnic American authors and texts (Gertrude Stein’s *The Making of Americans*, John Steinbeck’s *Grapes of Wrath*, William Faulkner’s *The Sound and the Fury*, Alice Walker’s *Color Purple*, Zora Neale Hurston, Toni Morrison, etc.) are considered deviant and therefore not teachable. In addition to other politically and/or morally offensive reasons, they contain overt sexual and abnormal behavior and psychology.

My view of the situation, in China, of American literature teaching under the cultural studies rubric has to be, to quote John Deeney, “cautiously optimistic” (3). What cultural studies can do, and what it actually has done, for American literature studies, is very little, even though Chinese scholars have had doubts about the traditional approach for many years – the basic skills approach did not prepare the graduates for sophisticated cross-cultural translation and interpretation – and are only gradually moving back to a broader curriculum, offering such courses as history and literature. Even within linguistics, what is now generally called “applied linguistics,” the understanding of the “cultural studies rubric” and of the relationship between language and culture is superficial.

On the other hand, the desirability of using subject-study in literature and history as the platform on which to effectively develop English language ability has facilitated the strengthening of the American literature curriculum in reassuring ways. Sometimes American literature program can now only go ahead within language-focused institutions with no other alternative. Now both types of support are enlisted from abroad: language teachers and native informants (who are relatively plentiful) as well as American historians and literature scholars. Highly qualified foreign specialists in American history and literature are urgently needed, particularly for the modern period. Given the situation described above, the language component remains a very important aspect of an integrated program, especially in teacher-training program.

The 1990s saw a resurgence of American literature studies in China, to an extent and depth that exceeded any previous period in the area of national literatures research, which in the past, in China, has been marked by “boundaries.” This is partly due to:

- the status of the United States in global affairs
- the rise of Sino-American relations as one of the most important bilateral relationship
- the increasing interchange between the two countries
- the rising interest of Chinese in the country’s history and culture and various aspects of its social landscape
- the institutionalization of American studies with the support of research funding
• the increasing opportunities for in-depth research and first-hand experience in the United States
• the consequent availability of academic resources through various channels

A redrawing of the boundaries (reminiscent of the Greenblatt & Gunn (1980) collection *Redrawing the Boundaries*) has occurred, and American literature studies of the past decade in China is remarkable for having transcended the narrow sense of literary studies, and has been incorporated, cautiously, into the cultural studies rubric, which broadens the scope of literary studies by examining American literature in a wider context. This is particularly evident in the compilation of American literature books, whether in generic studies (fiction, poetry, and drama), literary movements, regional literatures, or single author studies.

The second characteristic of American literature studies of the past decade is the multiplicity of approaches and methodologies. In the process of introducing, interpreting and evaluating Western trends of thought (postmodernism, post-structuralism, post-colonialism, etc.), Chinese Americanists were influenced in their own research in author and text studies. In the writing of American literary history, analysis of author and work, they have gone beyond the limits of the “triad pattern”: epoch, autobiography, and significance of work. They are beginning to abide more by the marketing mechanism of a more open, free setting, to win back the readers they have lost. In the following pages I will present their major achievements, by following a approximately chronological order of their publication. Whereas the list is by no means comprehensive, I hope it suffices to offer a general coverage of the developmental status of the field in the country.

American literature research and teaching in the 1990s in mainland China have incorporated a cultural studies rubric, the approach being more systematic and more extensive, and more informed of the trends of contemporary American literature studies. Systematic translation of American literature has always been an important component of American literature studies, particularly with regard to canonical American authors who are prominently featured in foreign literature translation projects in the country. Among the book series published by a number of the major publishers, such as the People’s Literature Publishing House, Shanghai Translation Publishing Co., Lijiang Publishing House, Hebei Education Publishing House, Translation Publishers, American literature is still their staple. Canonical authors such as Twain, London, Hemingway, and Faulkner have appeared in comprehensive anthologies. Translation Publishers, which has an extensive influence in China, has monopolized the American best-sellers. Indeed, American literature has been the most studied area of the country’s foreign literature research field since China’s implementation of the “Reform and Opening” Policy. One can hardly find canonical authors in American literary history who have not been translated. The problem, then, is the quality of translation, which leaves much room for improvement. Translation quality has become the most urgent issue in American literature introduction and foreign literature translation.
The number of American literature scholars in the past decade has also increased drastically and much ground-breaking research has been achieved by scholars outside of the Beijing and Shandong areas, which have been the country’s major research base in American literature. For example, the ground-breaking History of Twentieth Century American Literature by Yang Renjing at Xiamen University, Twentieth Century American Poetry by Zhang Ziqing, Selected Readings in American Literature in three volumes by Yang Qishen and Long Wenpei, Shanghai Translations Publishing House, 2000, which includes literature up to the 1980s; Contemporary American Drama by Wang Yiqun from Shanghai Foreign Studies University, Faulkner Studies by Xiao Minghan, etc. A considerable number of unique articles and dissertations were produced by post-graduate students, for example, some of them included in Volume One of Selected Essays of English and American Literature Studies published by Shanghai Foreign Language and Education Publishing House in 1996.

Since the beginning of the 1990s, under the impact of cultural studies, the field of American literature studies has extended beyond that of the 1960s and into areas that reach beyond traditional boundaries, such as feminist, homosexual, Afro-American, Asian-American literatures. Yang Renjing, (citation?) for instance, has proposed Asian-American literature should be an indispensable component of the writing of American literature history.

As supplements to separate studies a considerable amount of research has been done on American literature, scattered though the general category of foreign literatures studies, which are worth mentioning. Among these are Western Literature in Multi-cultural Perspectives by Jiang Chengyong, Shanghai Social Sciences Publishing House), Twentieth-Century Western Modernist Literature edited by Xu Shuyu, et al, Baihua Literature and Art Publishing House), The Bible and European and American Literature edited by Liang Gong, Religion and Culture Publishing House), Contemporary Western Literary Criticism in China edited by Cheng Houcheng and Wang Ning, Baihua Literature and Art Publishing House).

Introduction to Twentieth-Century American Literature, edited by Li Gongzhao, published by Xi’An Transportation Publishing House, (2000) was the joint effort of a group of young promising Americanists from Luoyang PLA Military Academy. The study has dedicated considerable space to the study of American postmodernist authors, such as Robert Coover, who is often neglected. The collection is a rich variety of cross-cultural and cross-disciplinary approaches in the research on realism, Afro-American literature, southern and Jewish literature, modernism and post-modernism. American Poetry Reader, edited by Liu Yan, a young scholar from Beijing, Beijing Language Institute, 2000, a volume of over 40000 Chinese characters. An Overview of Modernist English and American Literature Volume One by Li Weiping, Shanghai Foreign Languages and Education Publishing House, 1998), examines the nature of modernism and English and American literature in the context of Western culture. Besides Pound and Cummings, there are also separate chapters on “The

Introduction to 20th Century Modernist Literature published in 2001 by Baihua Literature and Art Publishing House is the first of its kind in this country that studies modernism from a generic point of view. Whereas it may sound a little over-ambitious, it contains a fairly detailed analysis of Allen Ginsburg and Joseph Heller. Western literature in Context of Cultural Perspective by Jiang Chengyong, by Shanghai Social Sciences Publishing House in 1998 is a landmark publication. Jiang proposed that foreign literature studies in China should introduce the cultural studies method and different perspectives of textual analysis. Although there is only one chapter in the book solely devoted to one work, Hairy Ape by Eugene O’Neil, but the author’s treatment of the work in question through “Freedom/Alienation/Literature: The Evolution of the Alienation Motif in Western Literature” achieves philosophical depth. The Bible and European and American Authors and Work, Religious Culture Publishing House, 2001), edited by Liang Gong, constitutes a comprehensive study of Herman Melville’s Moby Dick, John Steinbeck’s The Grapes of Wrath, Of Mice and Men, Eugene O’Neil’s Desire under the Elms, William Faulkner’s Absalom! Absalom!, Ernest Hemingway’s The Old Man and the Sea, etc. Essays on English and American Literature Vol. One, Shanghai Foreign Language and Education Publishing House, 2001 ) edited by Yu Jianhua is the most up-to-date collection of the best articles in the field of American literature studies in mainland China published in the past few years. Fifteen articles by Zhang Longhai, covering a wide variety of topics such as “Out of the Identity, Assimilation, Transculturation and Acculturation in Ren Bilian’s Into the Dreamland”; English and American Literature Studies, edited by Jiang Jiansong, Ning Yizhong, (CASS, 2000) collects the renowned Faulkner specialist Xiao Minghan’s article “The Social Causes of American Southern Renaissance” and Jiang Hui’s article “The Social Meaning of the Tragedy of Death of the Salesman”.

Faulkner studies stands out among single author studies since the beginning of the 90s. Faulkner Review by senior scholar Li Wenjun, Zhejiang Literature and Art Publishing House, 1999), William Faulkner Studies by Sichuan scholar Xiao Minghan, Foreign Language Teaching and Research Publishing House, 1997) are the most promising achievements. His
recent study on “Faulkner and Christian Traditional Culture” in over 40000 Chinese characters constitutes a formidable achievement, a subject thitherto untouched upon by mainland scholars. In addition, Xiao uses Bakhtin’s theory of the novel in his analysis of Faulkner’s work. Influenced by Xiao Minghan, Liu Chunbo, Southwestern Normal University Press, 1999, also uses Bakhtin’s theory of the novel in his study on Faulkner. In 1997, an international conference was held on Faulkner. In Hemingway studies, there are distinguished studies by Dong Hengyi, and The Art of Ernest Hemingway by Jianming, in Essays on Foreign Literature, Translation Publishing House, 1997).

The Artistic World of O. Henry by Yuan Wenling, Chinese Social Sciences Publishing House, 1997), a study of 40000 Chinese characters, with emphasis on “research, literary criticism, theory, and evaluation of author, text, and theory in multiple perspectives and a combination of micro- and macro-research. Race, Ethnicity and Culture: Toni Morrison and Twentieth-Century Afro-American Literature by Wang Shaoren, Wu Xinyun Beijing University Press, 1999) is a study of remarkable caliber, which studies the “black psychology in white American culture.” The most significant work among individual studies of single authors in mainland American literature studies is Selected Essays on Eugene O’Neil (Foreign Language Teaching and Research Publishing House, 1997), although the number of scholars of American drama and the extent of their research can in no way compete with those of scholars of American fiction.

Wen Chuan’s study of Allen Ginsberg is a remarkable study on post-war American poetry, in Selected Poetry of Allen Ginsberg, Sichuan Literature and Art Publishing House, 2000). Wen is also translator of Jack Karouac’s *On the Road* and is a specialist on the “Beat Generation”. Mei Shaowu’s study of Arthur Miller is authoritative, in Essays on English and American Authors, Hebei Education Publishing House, 1999). Mei is also distinguishes himself with his Nabokov studies. Worth mentioning is Guo Jide from Shandong University whose Essays on English Literature, Henan People’s Publishing House, 2000) which is an extensive study of American authors, with emphasis on contemporary American fiction and drama. Guo is also an authority on Saul Bellow.

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Endnotes

7 Evidence is shown of quasi-multidisciplinary approach in China in the flourishing of “social science” magazines published since 1977. World Knowledge, for instance, international in scope, covers political, economic, and cultural topics and many other “social science” journals discuss education, literature, and language, and a wide variety of other areas.
We are in Bangkok. Now What Do We Do? Educating for Global Interdependence

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[Abstract] Institutions of higher education have long been engaged in international program offerings and partnerships with foreign educational entities. Within the context of rapidly increasing globalization, such institutions are well advised to succinctly and mutually identify their vision and mission with respect to international education. This article explores the issue of interdependent development of educators by means of collaboration in a teacher training program in Thailand.

[Key Words] International education, cross-cultural understanding, knowledge society, development by means of education

Introduction
No doubt, we are living in a state of global flux. Karoly and Panis (2004) speak of the “dramatic” consequences for learning due to the changes occurring in contemporary life. Forecasters like Chen (2003) discuss that the requirement of changing skill sets for the world’s workers requires correspondingly changes in the delivery mechanisms of adult education and training. As adult educators, we try to do our part to address the needs created by the changes. The meaning of international education has long moved far beyond occasional travel courses. Today, we are called to educate for global participation and interdependence. This essay shares insights gained by three adult educators, who taught in a graduate program that aimed at facilitating cross-cultural teacher education in Bangkok, Thailand.

Intercontinental Adult Education in the Global Economy
The key to a globally competitive economy according to the Asian Development Bank study is “better trained teachers and more places in school” (Abstract, 2003). The bank study stresses that economic advancement requires well-trained, knowledgeable teachers working imaginatively with pupils to improve academic performance significantly. High-quality teacher education centered on curricula that help students meet the economic needs of the modern worlds, as well as an education system capable of assuring that teachers deliver those curricula equitably to all children, are the core elements of quality education. (p. 54).
Thailand is determined to be an active participant in the new global information economy. Dedicated to transforming Thai students into future leaders of the nation’s expanding global economic initiatives, Thai leaders are seeking a balance between the best of Eastern and Western education. Since the Asian economic downfall of nearly a decade ago, the emphasis has been placed on educating for the changing demands of a rapidly modernizing economy. Much remains to be accomplished. Even though over 90 percent of the Thai population is literate (considerably higher than in most of Southeast Asia), the number of college graduates is far short of the demands for future expansion.

Thai schools are exploring ways to accelerate towards the nation’s goal of educational advancement, which includes competency in the global language of commerce and scholarly exchange - English. Accepting the essentialness of English for global economic competitiveness, many Thai schools are hiring, as teachers, native English speakers. Many of the Americans, Canadians, Australians, and New Zealanders are recent college graduates with no teaching experience. Usually their role is either to translate the words of Thai teachers in a primitive bilingual education or to serve as tutors for expensive private institutes.

A more coherent approach is the formation of knowledge networks across cultural boundaries. In 2004, DePaul University, through its School for New Learning’s graduate education department, and administrators of St. Gabriel’s College, a private, elementary and high school sponsored by Assumption University in Bangkok, began a conversation. Their exchanges resulted in the development of an onsite graduate program for experienced K-12 teachers in Bangkok, Thailand. Chicago’s DePaul University’s School for New Learning, with a long history of developing competency based programs for working adults, tailored its M.A. in Applied Professional Studies (MAAPS) program to meet the needs of St. Gabriel’s teachers. An advisory committee comprised of North American and foreign-born educators, all with experience in international education, special education, curriculum development, and assessment, guided the design of the curriculum. The overall objectives of the MAAPS program are:

- To explore a variety of bilingual pedagogies and educational models and consider implications for application/adaptation to students’ colleges.
- To analyze, synthesize and integrate multiple approaches to education across international contexts that bridge (rather than neutralize) cultural differences.
- To enhance ESL skills as a medium of instruction in their practice setting.

Hence, the MAAPS is designed to strengthen the Thai teachers’ ability to prepare their students for the global economy through increased skill in English as a Second Language and in modern learning strategies. Moreover, implementing the MAAPS programs has been an opportunity for educators of both Thailand and the USA to learn with one another.
From Assumption to Reflection to Collaboration

When one of the MAAPS instructors queried the teachers of St. Gabriel’s about what goals they have for their students, they immediately agreed that students should be “happy.” The stereotypical notion of the well-behaved and happy Thai students, found to be in evidence in Bangkok, seems like a welcome contrast to the tension and disobedience of many American schools. The downside of Thai education is also evident not only to the vast number of Western teachers in Thailand but also to many Thais. “From kindergarten to university our education system looks like a copy machine, because we just copy,” said Rung Kaewdang, secretary general of Thailand’s National Education Commission. “The Western system looks more like a computer. “You put in data and it computes” (Cohen, 1999, p. 2). The goal is to shift the emphasis of the educational system from memorization to creative thinking. Dr. Rung, one of the architects of a reform plan to overhaul Thailand’s schools complains, “For us Thais, we’re just interested in the results not the process.”

However, though agreeing that a move away from rote memorization is essential for the Thai education system, Youngyuth Chalamwong, research director at the Thailand Development Research Institute, stressed the importance of a balance between Asian respect and Western critical thinking. “The good thing about the traditional system is that children learn to be polite” (Cohen, 1999, p. 3).

While balance between the best of Eastern and Western education is the goal, the rules of the game are far from clear. Both Western and Eastern teachers widely accept the cultural stereotype of Western education encouraging creativity, questioning, and independence, which contrasts with Asian education emphasizing memorization, compliance, and obedience (Johnson, 1993). Yet a deep analysis of assessment instruments used to evaluate twelfth grade students in Australia and Thailand found a reason that may explain why Asian students, despite the stereotype, frequently outperform Western students on comparative or competitive exams. For example, on a superficial level the Thai Social Studies exam seems to require a lower cognitive ability than the Australian Society and Culture exam. However, a careful evaluation revealed that “the yearly novelty of the Thai exam required extensive knowledge, analytical reading, and skillful interpretation of questions, whereas the yearly similarity of the Austrian exam encouraged memorization and focus preparation” (Baumgart, 1999). The prior study is just one example of how the dynamic process of cross-cultural educational analysis can lead to better teaching and assessment practices for all. Teachers from Western countries may too extensively dismiss memorization of a knowledge base, yet Eastern educators accept that a knowledge base is an essential foundation for higher cognitive skills.

Implementing theory to practice is a learning process for teachers and students alike. When introducing adult education practices in an international context, there are cultural, language, and methodological differences along with corresponding assumptions to consider. The
MAAPS teachers in Bangkok discovered that Thai graduate students needed to be introduced to collaborative and cooperative learning methods. Thai schools use a passive lecture format where questioning the professor or independent inquiry was not encouraged. As American educators used to our cultural stereotypes, we had to recognize that our style of presentation was simply new to them. After only a few courses, MAAPS students saw the advantages of teamwork and collaboration and MAAPS faculty realized that our expertise, within the Western paradigm, did not spell superiority.

What became imperative was the recognition by administration and experienced faculty of our sharing of our practice’s strengths and vulnerabilities during periodic group debriefings with returned faculty combined with orientation of new faculty. One key insight soon became apparent during these dialogues: When MAAPS faculty and students saw ourselves as learning partners, faculty were able to move beyond basing responses to students on assumptions. Instead, we lived the adult education principles of valuing adults’ experience, engaging in critical reflection, and applying theory to real-life problems.

The opportunity to participate in the transition of the Thai students to new ways of learning was a highlight of the design and sequence of the courses in the MAAPS program. Adding Western educational methodologies to their teaching in Thailand is seen as one way to help Thai teachers implement the envisioned reforms. Educators from Eastern countries might well consider how learner-based, individualized options might better prepare their students for the ever-changing global environment. A two-way critical exchange of learning strategies will enrich teachers from the East and West. Collaborating across culturally-grounded values enables educators to integrate and synthesize methods and strategies without losing cultural identity.

**Expectations Meet Nuts-n-Bolts Solutions**

The American teacher education strategies adapted to the culture of Bangkok and the Thai school. Due to the hectic traffic throughout Bangkok and the teachers’ heavy work schedule, graduate classes were scheduled on the campus of the Thai teachers’ school. The Thai teachers attended their graduate classes after twelve hour plus teaching days with between 45 to 60 children per classroom. The school’s administrators’ had extremely high learning expectation for the teachers who continued with their six day a week teaching and preparation responsibilities. However, even though most of the teachers were also juggling family responsibilities, they did very well in the courses while not neglect any aspect of their work.

In our international context, the opportunity for students to learn more English and practice it within the context of their coursework is built into each syllabus. Having good ESL teaching knowledge was essential in helping students navigate new vocabulary and subject areas. Additionally, outside study circles, instructor office hours, and extra conversation...
practice helped with the language issues. Equipped with applicable English vocabulary expansion, Thai students communicated innovative and complex applications.

New concepts and principles were learned and applied to the students’ knowledge base, but sometimes getting there was an adventure. Interpersonal communication was crucial to the success of the students and the ajan ("professor" in Thai). Intranet bulletin boards contained chapter notes, assignment clarifications, project updates, and prompt answers to student questions.

The successful implementation of new ways and theories of learning was evidenced by the learning community formed by the cohort model. Eventually, students became much more comfortable with the activity-based, inquiry-style collaboration. MAAPS students learned that innovation, research, discussion and meta-cognition created a new learning environment that could successfully be apply to their work context.

Culturally, the Thais cohort had a strong collective national goal orientation, which was displayed as a sense of interdependence. With this community orientation, the Thai teachers sought their graduate degrees along with increased teaching competency, not only for themselves, but also as a contribution to the achievement of higher status for their school, country and society. The collective goal of this cohort of MAAPS students is to achieve for their school the rank of one of the Top Five in Asia within the next decade. They expressed the hope that having a bilingual English stream (along with Japanese, Chinese, German and French streams) would enable their students to compete successfully in our increasingly global economy.

There was much learning on the part of the visiting professors. Approaching this teaching experience with cultural humility enabled the visiting professors to learn themselves. How the students processed, implemented, and applied the coursework in their non-native language was humbling. The students and administration went out of their way to educate and care for the visiting faculty. Time was taken away from studying to share the culture and traditions of the Thai people. Frequently, students invited their professor to join with their families on excursion or recommend a way to increase our new knowledge of Thai culture and history. Clearly, the potential for global interdependence was realized, in a small way, by the work done between DePaul University and St. Gabriel’s College.

Lessons for Global Education
Much current global education theory continues a strong Western liberal utopian tradition. Yet the 21st century global educator, instead of espousing universal truths, is sensitive to the cultural and historical assumptions that shape worldviews, while open to other paradigms and their integration into a broader perspective. Though global education theories originated in the hope for orderly progress, today, global education occurs in the constantly shifting
emerging global marketplace. Today, global competition determines national progress and individual upward mobility. In a knowledge-based economy, a premium is placed on educational systems that rapidly respond to the ever-changing learning needs demanded by the transforming global dynamics. Excellent education, including quality teacher education, is essential for success in the global economy. The Asian Development Bank’s *Key Indicators 2003: Education for Global Participation* found that the Asian countries with the most robust economies were succeeding in sustaining responsive, high-quality primary and secondary education flowing into greatly expanding university enrollment. “As knowledge-based industries and services expand at the heart of the new information economy, those countries that can take most advantage of the transformation, are those with best-educated trainable workforce” (Asian Development Bank, 2003, p. 53-54).

Though we were all experienced educators of diverse working adults, we all found that our most valuable asset was openness to unforeseen variations combined with flexibility. In the post-modern world, we enjoyed the continuous mutual adaptations and cross-cultural learning. For, “If cultural diversity is viewed as a stimulus for dialogue in a globalized environment, there is potential to dissolve boundaries through shared understanding of the perception of the collective ‘self’ and ‘other’ (Baumgart, 1999, p.11).

**References**


Chinese Students Can Be Encouraged to Speak English

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[Abstract] It is well known that most Chinese college students began learning English at 12 or younger. By the time they graduate from university, they have been learning English for at least 10 years. However, the result is not good. Many students can say no more than some simple phrases in English. Even for English majors, writing an article in English means making countless mistakes. The reason for this is the simple fact that the students’ ability to speak a second language can only be acquired in an environment where students are given classroom activities that are focused on language acquisition instead of learned in a class where the teaching of English remains imbedded in the traditional Chinese teaching methodologies aimed solely at preparing students for passing the CET-4 or CET-6. On the basis of the investigations into the English teaching at Dahongying, this paper is to put forward some reasonable, workable and constructive suggestions on how to achieve Chinese students’ L2 acquisition.

[Key Words] English as a Second Language, Chinese teaching methodology, language acquisition

Language Acquisition Versus Language Learning
At Ningbo Dahongying Vocational Technical College (Dahongying), China, the emphasis of English instruction is put on language learning instead of language acquisition. However, students do not acquire language skills by memorizing words, phrases, sentences or complete texts from their textbooks. They are acquired them comprehension, writing, reading and speaking. Before we discuss how to achieve college students’ L2 acquisition, we should point out the differences between language acquisition and learning which can be summarized as follows: (Cook 2004).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acquisition</th>
<th>Learning</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>implicit, subconscious</td>
<td>explicit, conscious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>informal situations</td>
<td>formal situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>using grammatical ‘feelings’</td>
<td>using grammatical rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>depending on attitude</td>
<td>depending on aptitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stable order of acquisition</td>
<td>simple or complex order of learning</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Research in second language (L2) study has revealed that adults have two distinctive ways of developing competences in second languages— acquisition, that is by using language for real communication; and learning, "knowing about" language’ (Krashen & Terrel 1983).

Acquisition requires meaningful interaction in the target language. Natural communication in which the speakers are not concerned with the grammar and perfect pronunciation of their speech, but with the message they are conveying and understanding. In order to achieve this, Krashen suggests low anxiety situations where the teacher supplies “comprehensible input”, messages that students really want to hear and understand. If the environment is one where the students are afraid to speak English because he/she is concerned about the quality of their speech, they will never acquire the language. Improvement comes from supplying communicative and comprehensible input, but not from forcing and correcting production (Krashen 1987).

That is why we are going to discuss in this paper some recommendations for improving of L2 acquisition and subsequent use of oral English at Dahongying. First of all, we should say that we are not experts and can only base these suggestions on our own experience and on the information that we have acquired from our research work on this project. Besides, we have tried to put the suggestions into a correct framework. If we were in a perfect world where time and money were not limited, we would have smaller classes, numerous foreign teachers and immersion courses in foreign countries. Of course, that cannot happen, so we have documented some suggestions that we believe are possible to implement.

**Time**
Dahongying’s present system of six periods per fortnight of Oral English for the English Majors should be continued and, if possible, extended to eight periods. Firstly, the more they are exposed to the use of the English language, the easier it will be for them to acquire it. Secondly, the current schedule of classes during the term, which is very difficult to administer, should be adjusted and standardized so that we can have four lessons per week that would be much easier to manage.

One period of oral English per week for the software college is ridiculous. This equates to one minute per student per week. There cannot be any expectation of significant improvement in oral English if the classes of oral English are arranged like that. The emphasis must be put on improvement of comprehension of spoken English and if the teacher can communicate with students in a language that can be understood (i.e., comprehensible, not just reading from the textbook), then perhaps there may be a marginal increase in language acquisition.

**Class Sizes**
There is only one effective way to reduce the class sizes, without incurring additional costs.
By splitting the class in two, a half of the class can do oral English while the other half can do something else (maybe listening or doing computer lab work). This would effectively reduce the number of students to a more manageable 20 and would give the teacher more time and flexibility to improve their language acquisition and oral communication skills. Again, if there were four lessons per week, two could be split for conservational practice and the other two reserved for lessons with the whole class to cover more formal work. I believe this would be relatively easy to implement. The class could also be split according to ability, giving the teacher an opportunity to deliver the lesson at different levels. At present, the advanced students are bored and the lower-level students are lost.

**Curriculum**

As the majority of college English students are intent on pursuing a career in business, not in academia, a more sensible approach would be to produce graduates equipped with the oral skills needed to succeed in business. A syllabus, complemented by an appropriate text, and designed around this educational principle, would be more appropriate. The curriculum should emphasize students’ ability to effectively communicate in Business English with native English speakers and with the L2 speakers with whom they will most likely have daily contact in the future (Kirkpatrick, 2000). This approach could also help students make use of the vocabulary and grammar they have already learned in other business classes and thus acquire them. The college needs to move away from a complex, outdated vocabulary and expressions that are still prevalent in some of the textbooks used at Dahongying. They are inappropriate for effective present-day communications, for business or even for simple conversation (Qinag et al, 2004).

In order to ensure that appropriate textbooks are selected, it would be advantageous to ask foreign teachers to help in the selection process. It is extremely difficult, if not impossible, for non-native speakers who have not worked in an English-speaking business environment to have the background, knowledge and skills needed to know if a textbook is correct or indeed appropriate. It is also essential that the textbook be current. Most businesses are now conducted over the Internet, not by formal letter. It is mandatory that we teach our students the correct etiquettes, vocabulary and forms of communication applicable to this media.

**The Classroom**

If the classroom layout could be altered and noise level reduced, it would definitely facilitate better oral communication. A reduction in the class size, by splitting the class in two, could accomplish this requirement.

More informal environments, where foreign teachers could freely join Chinese students and speak English in a natural way with them, would also help the L2 acquisition of Chinese students. A coffee shop in the library, where English newspapers, books and magazines are available, would be ideal. The environment should be relaxed and provide an atmosphere
where it would be natural for students to communicate with each other in English. Perhaps, some discussions on topics related to articles in the newspaper could be instigated. The students should be charged with running and staffing the area and could speak English by playing the roles of waiters/waitresses. Only in this way could they use English in a more realistic environment. Additionally, sporting activities between foreign teachers and students could be another alternative to the provision of a stress-free, natural environment. Most teachers can play some form of sports, such as darts, snooker, basketball, football or ping-pong. When the foreign teachers play with some Chinese male students, they will use English to communicate with each other during the game.

So long as we have to work within the current facilities and classrooms at Dahongying, the foreign teachers need to be inventive in designing ways to help students use and acquire English. Some suggestions are a daily report about what’s on at Dahongying, in Ningbo and even in China; directions to local tourist attractions and shops; bus routes and any other assistance that the teacher may require. If the students are charged with the responsibility of keeping the foreign teacher up to date and helping them to survive in China, then they will need to use English in a working environment. Also, it will make the students more aware of current affairs and how to pass information to others. These skills will be helpful in their future careers. Additionally, we have found that for students with basic comprehension skills, the repetition of instructions works very well. If a teacher is providing handouts, then he/she will say “one each” or “one between two” and we have discovered that many students have acquired this language as they start repeating these instructions. This approach also works well with the instructions on how to complete the exercises, especially when done at an individual level. Some techniques for language acquisition are listed below (Cook, 2004):

a) Affective-Humanistic activities:
   • dialogues - short and useful ‘open’ dialogues
   • interviews - pair-work on personal information
   • personal charts and tables
   • preference ranking - opinion polls on favorite activities, etc.
   • revealing information about yourself; e.g., what I had for breakfast
   • activating the imagination; e.g., giving Napoleon advice about his Russian campaign.

b) Problem-solving activities:
   • task and series; e.g., components of an activity, such as washing the car
   • charts, graphs, maps; e.g., bus-fares, finding the way
   • developing speech for particular occasions; e.g., What do you say if …
   • advertisements

c) Game; e.g., what is strange about…a bird swimming?

d) Content activities; e.g., academic subject matter such as mathematics
For the more advanced students, an approach suggested by Qiang/Wolff may be more appropriate. The teacher abandons the Western lecture format and becomes a facilitator. Prior to the lesson, some students are provided with copies of newspaper or Internet news articles that they take to their dormitories to read, look up any new words, and then they are required to prepare a classroom presentation. At the next class session the students are required to take over the teacher’s role of lecture. Each student is required to explain the content of his/her article to the class, give his/her personal opinion of the article, and then answer questions from his/her classmates. If no questions are forthcoming, the presenter,” the teacher,” is required to ask questions of the other students (Qiang et al, 2004). The teacher is required to facilitate student discussions of the article topic. However, this approach will not be successful in classes of forty plus.

Another approach that we have found very successful is the provision of written questions on various topics. Each student is asked a question in a random order so that they cannot prepare an answer beforehand. Questions that are humorous and non factual; for example, “what if…” or “would you like to do…” are very successful, because such questions provide interesting answers and keep the other listeners attentive. Again, this approach is only successful with smaller classes.

Foreign teachers should be encouraged to spend as much time as possible on campus. If the teachers assimilate into the environment and become more familiar to the students then they are more likely to engage in conservations with Chinese students. When they walk around the college, students like to speak English greetings to them constantly such as “Good Morning,” “How are you?” or more complex conservations. By the time students know foreign teachers very well and are familiar with their presence, it is a natural process that they will want to communicate with them. Furthermore, foreign teachers are no longer different from their other teachers. If foreign teachers only appear on campus to do the teaching without fostering any interaction with students outside of the classroom, the foreign teachers will always be regarded as a separate entity, and this may cause the students to react differently and to view the teacher with suspicion. In order to facilitate this process, an office for the foreign teachers where they have a desk and access to a computer must be provided. Ideally, the office should also contain Chinese-English bilingual teachers that have a desire to mix and work with foreign teachers.

English majors with adequate financial resources should be encouraged to study abroad where there are natural and friendly English language environments and overseas student can also be immersed in such environments. Learning English needs a language environment, without which students have to spend a lot more time in memorizing. In my opinion, there needs to be a careful selection of the environment. There are now numerous organizations in the world that are trying to take financial advantage of the Chinese obsession and desire for overseas education. These organizations offer substandard
education and, in reality, they only offer a tourist package: two weeks in a foreign country where the students have lessons in the morning and visit tourist attractions in the afternoon. They justify the English environment by offering “home stays” where they stipulate that the students should be required to communicate in English. However, perhaps an agreement with a foreign school education authority would be a better solution for Dahongying students. The costs would be low, the quality of the education good and appropriate, and the overall English environment better, as the students would be not only mixing with native speakers on a daily basis, but they would also be mixing with young adults with similar interests.

For the student that is not able to afford an overseas education financially, the English Department can provide a more effective English environment. At present, the fact that Dahongying’s Chinese teachers of English use the Chinese language for the majority of their lessons is not helpful to Chinese students’ English language acquisition. In addition, all the classroom notices are written or printed in Chinese, any English speaking performances or competitions are usually introduced in Chinese and the daily administration of students is also conducted in Chinese. Such simple things as the required provision of a note, written in English, to explain absence or to request permission to leave the college grounds, will rapidly increase English acquisition. It worked with those we taught elsewhere.

Notes Taking
Students should be encouraged to take notes in English. This practice should be encouraged for all classes. We have often found in classrooms that complete passages from the textbook have been copied onto the blackboard, whose English is often incorrect and outdated. Just as modern education theory states (Brown et al, 1989), there is no educational value for this process. Additionally, many students have complained that many of their lessons are boring and that the quality of education is low.

Unfortunately, many of the teachers have never been given the opportunity to learn how to teach and especially how to teach in English, and they are just reiterating their own experiences of teaching provided by their past university lectures. Obviously, there is recognition at the college that this practice is unsatisfactory. Let’s take a young inexperienced teacher for example. During a recent college teaching competition at Dahongying, she was awarded second prize, for she effectively used the teaching techniques she had learned from those experienced foreign teachers, which were of great help to L2 acquisition. She is now becoming a very accomplished and successful teacher. We firmly believe that the college should invest time and effort in training their teachers to teach. As we know, in Western countries, having a university degree only qualifies you to enter a teacher-training program. Even at University level in England, there is now recognition that lecturers must have the experience of teacher training and it is now compulsory.
Foreign Teachers
There seems to be an underlying assumption in China that everyone that speaks English as a native language can teach it to Chinese students. This is far from the truth. Unfortunately, the demand for teachers outstrips supply, and many institutions accept those foreigners who are totally unsuitable to teaching. We have personally worked with an English speaking foreign teacher that could not speak a grammatically correct sentence and could barely write standard English. At the other end of the scale, we have worked with a highly qualified university lecturer who was trying to teach school children English. She became more and more despondent as she thought that this task was beneath her educational level. Needless to say, both parties suffered as she became increasingly annoyed and aggressive.

The problem is to recruit the right person for the job at hand. This is extremely difficult. Recruiting teachers over the Internet is completely unsatisfactory as we are never sure of what we are getting. We cannot personally interview the person and therefore assess the person via face-to-face contact. They may indeed lie, provide false qualifications, and choose to do this job as they have no option of work in their own country. The ideal qualifications would be a qualified teacher with experience in teaching second languages. A TEFL (teaching English as a foreign language)/TESOL (teaching English to speakers of other languages) certificate is good for younger applicants as the western educational system no longer teaches any form of English grammar. That is why they need to attend a course of this nature in order to understand the construction of the English language. Additionally, those who have previously learned a second language are good candidates, as they will have personally experienced the difficulties associated with this endeavor.

China has a culture that is very different from the West, and therefore, I believe that people who have previously traveled and lived in foreign countries would be better equipped and suited to adjusting to the life in China. We have personally met many foreign teachers here in Ningbo that struggle to adapt to the life here. Many leave before their contracts end and many develop management problems. In addition, there are too many foreign “backpackers” in China that are teaching for economic reasons: to supplement their travel in China. However, as many of the advocates for teachers reinforce this point of view, it is not surprising that this becomes a reality (Qiang/Wolff, 2004). So it is important to ensure that such applicants should not be recruited as our teachers, but it is obviously very difficult to recruit the right foreigners as our teachers. Many institutions have solved this problem by forming strategic alliances with western organizations. Of course, a mutual beneficial relationship would need to be agreed to and established between the two parties.

Another solution to the shortage of well-qualified foreign teachers is to effectively train Chinese-English bilingual teachers. They are the future of the Chinese education system. Foreign teachers will always come and go: most stay for only one year and they take their knowledge and expertise with them when they leave. It is a better economic, long-term and
A realistic decision to use a high-quality foreign expert, who has an in-depth knowledge of the Chinese education system, to train our current teachers to teach the acquisition of English. Chinese-English bilingual teachers will remain at Dahongying for many years; they will not have problems associated with culture shock; they will cost less than foreign experts, their qualifications are genuine and they know and understand their students. Of course, do not believe that this training can be achieved by doing a short intensive course. We have a long way to go in training qualified Chinese-English bilingual teachers.

Finally, we should say that there must be an effective handover procedure for foreign experts. It is a waste of time and effort for both teachers and students alike, if the first few weeks are used to access and find out the level of knowledge and ability of the students. It is not an unrealistic requirement to expect the previous foreign teachers to write documents describing what work was undertaken during the previous semester, to provide samples of work, to provide information regarding the examination and the results of the examination. Dahongying has paid the foreign teacher to do this work and has every right to expect that they should pass this information to those teachers who are going to take over during next semester. This will improve the process immensely, stopping the repetition of the well-known standard lessons.

**Conclusion**

Language acquisition and the production of English speaking students are possible at Dahongying or in any educational institutions in China. However, it will take a significant change in the teaching practices and emphasis. This cannot happen in the short term. It will require not only commitment from the college to implement change that will foster better language acquisition, but also a change of the overall educational philosophy. If the most important motive to learn English is to pass an exam, then learning English will always remain the students’ underlying concern and stress. Passing CET-4 and CET-6 does not produce students that can use English effectively. However, if the students have acquired the use of English, then it is much easier for them to pass CET-4 and CET-6. The college needs to decide where its priorities lie; namely, whether they just want students to have a certificate or wants students to be able to secure better jobs. We have often heard the employers in Ningbo say the same thing, “Thousands of people in China can read and write English. We need people that can communicate, through writing and speaking English, with foreigners. We need people that can communicate, through writing and speaking English, with foreigners. We have great difficulty recruiting people with these skills”.

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The Complex Dimensions of Caring in Parent, Teacher and Student Relationships

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[Abstract] Caring is defined as a complex cognitive and affective construct. A case for caring having a central place in how schools function is made. A case for teaching parenting in schools as a demonstration of the caring process is also put forth. International projects in Russia and Australia are shared to demonstrate the worldwide concern about this topic. Several examples of the caring process of decision-making implemented in schools are described. The components of this model can be used in how teachers relate to each other, to the community, to parents and to children.

[Key Words] Caring, parenting, empathy, decision-making process

Defining caring not just as good will
What do we mean by caring? I have been studying caring and developing a caring school model for over 15 years. I’ve based my work on Milton Mayeroff’s definition of caring (1971) as having another person’s growth and development in mind (p.1). Thus, if parents want their children to feel and be competent and confident when they reach adulthood, they will not do their homework for them and consider it caring. Caring students will think not only of their own immediate needs but how their decision to exclude a classmate, for example, affects that person’s self-worth and well-being in both the present and future. I would like to share in this paper the evolution of a caring model in my practice that can be used in educational, family and community settings. I welcome feedback on this topic.

Nel Noddings has said that caring “involves stepping out of one’s own personal frame of reference into the others.” She goes on to say that “When we care, we consider the other’s point of view, his/her objective needs, and what he/she expects of us….There is a dimension of competence in caring…(the need to) acquire skills in caretaking” (Noddings, 1984, p. 24). She believes that the main aim of education should be to produce competent, caring, loving and lovable people. She also believes that we should help children choose pro-social behavior not to avoid punishment but because others deserve care. For 20 years I have been working in the area of caring and parenting with Dr. Harriet Heath, director of the Parent Center at Bryn Mawr College. We especially support Nodding’s focus on caring involving not just good will but acquired skills.
Let me share an experience that helped confirm my thinking in this regard. When I was in Russia in 1993 working with parents and school psychologists to help think about caring and caring schools, I was taken to the Tretyakov Art Gallery in Moscow. I was shown many icons of a mother and child often referred to as the “Vladimir Godmother of Tenderness.” One Moscow University school psychology graduate student who accompanied me and who felt Russian schools had nurtured her mind and body but not her spirit cried in front of these icons. At the same time she said she felt hope. She explained that the angry look on this particular Godmother icon was towards the hostile and violent society of the time. We felt she looked connected to her child, committed, protective, loving, sad, and determined like many parents before and after her to help her child survive and thrive. She had the right attitude.

Was that enough? Was that caring? No. It’s not enough to just want to care. I added that she and the student needed not only a willingness to be involved in creating a more caring world but also information, skills, and a society that places more value on children and caring. What about children? Some say if children have good self-esteem they will be caring. I disagree. What if they are not motivated to care? What if they have little opportunity to learn how to care or dwell in families, schools, and communities that reward self-promotion and aggression more than care? They will not necessarily be able to promote the growth and development of others.

A cab driver in Russia asked me about my work on caring. He reminisced that as a student the focus was on the communal self …the good of the state, society, or the group with little focus on American values of personal development and self-identity. The concept of the individual self was foreign to him. He felt his teachers knew his answers before he spoke because everyone had the same expected answer. He had little practice in decision-making about whom and what to care for and about, and he had little personal impact on outcomes in school or elsewhere. He now felt the same way as a parent. He was asked by teachers to limit his caring to providing food, clothes, shelter, and making sure his children did four to five hours of homework daily. He felt teachers did not have time or interest in knowing his views or allowing him to help plan to create a safe and caring school and community for his children. He did not feel cared for and his ability to effectively care for his family and community had been impaired and underdeveloped. Dr. Urie Bronfenbrenner (1985) believes that how successful schools and families are in caring for children depends upon how each supports the others’ efforts (p.7).

When I talked to Russian school psychologists and teachers, they wanted schools to be more caring for all- including the parents. They wanted children to develop good academic skills, a unique self-identity (room to care for the self) but not at the expense of losing their communal self. By the end of our workshops they decided their students would feel more cared for by more nurturing parent/teacher pedagogy and relating, and by increased
opportunities for parents and students to learn how to have a say in planning and decision-making about learning and caring. These goals are reinforced by Kohn (1991) and in his book, *The schools our children deserve* (1999) and his newest book titled: *Unconditional parenting* (2005).

My Russian hosts were very caring to me in terms of another definition of caring by Barbara Thayer-Bacon (1993), which was in their “openness to my new ideas and their respect for some of my different views” (p. 323). I learned so much from them as well. We felt that we really had similar goals...to develop caring and cared for children who are confident and socially and academically competent and also have an ability to make good decisions.

**Caring Involves Effective Decision-Making**

One of the best ways to understand the role of effective decision-making in caring is to watch what many parents and teachers do when they decide what is best for their children and/or students. In her books on parenting from childhood to adulthood, Dr. Heath (1995, 2000) has reported observing that when parents and teachers care effectively for children they display the following knowledge, abilities, and skills which can be learned: They show a willingness to be involved. They have and seek information about the child and children in general. They have knowledge of their own beliefs, values, and goals. They display an awareness of situations around them and an ability to describe events objectively without simply attributing motives to children. They are able to anticipate events, plan, problem-solve, listen, empathize, brainstorm options, assess consequences of choices, act and reflect on their own actions. They also have well-developed observation and communication skills as well as the ability to implement plans and utilize resources. Caring takes work. It is not all about feelings.

Dr. Heath and I have concluded from our findings and that of other experts in the field that effective caring, parenting, and teaching depends upon the possession of the attitudes, information, and skills noted here. How and when do children acquire the skills involved in caring and in parenting? According to a Chinese proverb they learn by seeing and hearing about caring but most effectively by doing. I am a member of the Board of an organization called “Prepare Tomorrow’s Parents” that envisions a less violent society in which every child is well-nurtured and parenting is a valued occupation undertaken only by prepared adults. We are working to see that students learn parenting, caring, and relationship skills before they graduate from high school (McDermott, 2004; Schiffer, 2002; [http://www.preparetomorrowparents.org](http://www.preparetomorrowparents.org)).

**Teaching children how to parent and care enhances social and academic development**

In 1987, I was trained by Dr. Heath at “Education for Parenting” in Philadelphia. I viewed parents and infants visiting in Philadelphia’s Germantown Friends School and in center city public schools. The same parent and infant visited a classroom once a month for the entire
school year. Students charted the infants’ development and observed how the parent had to adapt to a changing infant from month to month and minute to minute. I was amazed at how much social and academic learning took place. Students planned for the visit, implemented the visit and reflected on how it went. Then, during the month they discussed related themes presented in each visit. One example was the topic of needs. We focus in an early visit on how an infant gets its needs met when it cannot speak. We then discuss how children communicate their needs. We might relate our discussion to what the students are reading in literature. In *Ramona and Her Father*, by Beverly Cleary for example, Ramona was worried about her father’s health needs because he smoked. She also worried that her dad had lost his job. Though her parents were preoccupied with their own concerns, Ramona realized she needed to find a way to communicate her needs to them. Students in the class then discussed how their needs differed from infants and were the same. They also discussed how they got their own needs met. Clearly several cognitive skills were used in this learning experience.

What amazed me when I brought these visits to Chicago and through my graduate students to other States was how much students translated what they had learned about nurturing and caring in the baby visits immediately for their use in their classrooms and homes. A teacher in a middle school in Cleveland where a middle school science teacher has monthly parent-infant visits reported that for two weeks after these visits students were noticeably kinder to each other. The students brought all their fellow students, not just popular students, into the decision-making process (McDermott, 2004). They took fellow students’ needs into consideration more often and were generally more considerate and respectful to everyone in their school. Students in Chicago schools who participated in the program were reported by their teachers to notice individual differences more and stereotype others less (Murphy et. al, 1994; McDermott, 2004).

We know that student success is related to the climate for learning. Students will not succeed if they are in what they perceive as a hostile, unsafe, or uncaring environment. Kohn (1991) has also noted that “the development of perspective-taking— the capacity to imagine how someone else thinks, feels, or sees the world, tends to promote cognitive problem-solving generally” (pp. 499-500) He adds that “…to study literature or history by grappling with social and moral dilemmas is to invite a deeper engagement with those subjects” (p. 500). From Goleman (1995) we have seen evidence that emotional literacy programs improve children’s academic achievement scores and school performance.... “When too many children lack the capacity to handle their upsets, to listen or focus, to rein in impulse, to feel responsible for their work or care about learning, anything that will buttress these skills will help their education. In this sense, emotional literacy enhances schools’ ability to teach” (p. 97) Zin et al. (2004) confirm this today. Much evidence of this is available at the collaborative for the advancement of academic, social and emotional learning (http://www.casel.org/index.html#).
The Caring Decision-Making Process in Schools

I have helped principals establish schools that care (Murphy et al., 1994; McDermott, 2004). They commit to teaching the “caring decision-making process.” If this process is used frequently by school parents, teachers and students, it will mean less of a need for all those conflict resolution, bully prevention or anger management programs after a problem arises. Before, during and after the visits by the infant and its parent, students learn to answer the following sequence of questions described by Heath in her curriculum on parenting and caring for K-8 students (Heath, 1995) and in her book for parents (Heath, 2000): For parents or teachers we will often ask: “What is the situation you are concerned about or the one which you are planning?” For students I often ask them to identify a situation where fellow students are uncaring. What are all the possible options for resolving this situation? Here we “brainstorm” every possible solution without judging its appropriateness. We free up the mind to think of alternative solutions.

What are the guides for deciding which options to choose? We need to gather a lot of information to lead us to the best decision for all involved. Our guides include the following:

**Goals:** “What do I want my child/this student to be like at 18?” or “Is it important for me to stay friends with this person? If so, I need to find a different way of acting and relating.”

**Beliefs:** What are my beliefs involved in this particular situation? For example, “What is a valid parent/teacher role here and what do I believe children need?” An example for students would be, “what makes a good friend?”

**Needs:** What are the needs of everyone involved? These could be physiological, safety, social, self-esteem, curiosity-competency, artistic, self-actualization, self-transcendence or idiosyncratic needs.

**Feelings:** What are the feelings of everyone involved and how can/should they be handled? We are not talking simply about “happy, sad, angry and mad” but a much broader range of affect awareness for students that can be taught not only in affective education but in most school subjects.

**Characteristics:** How does the person’s developmental level, temperament, learning style, physical characteristics, past experiences, interests, family patterns, living conditions figure in?

**Doing:** Based on all the information above decide on the best option for all involved and try it.

**Reflecting:** Decide if it worked. If not try another option and continue the plan, do/reflect process.

In my 15 plus years of utilizing this caring model of decision-making in schools in the city and suburbs of Chicago, I have felt that it can become a unifying construct for the entire
school. Teachers use this same model in terms of how they relate to each other, parents, students and the community. As Thomas J. Lasley II has said “Achieving selflessness is not something young people will do because they are told. Rather, it emerges because young people see extra-centeredness in the personal decisions that adults make, in the way adults comport themselves when confronted with conflict... all the significant adults in children’s lives teach by example”

Teachers use this model in cooperative learning activities and in terms of how their class evolves a set of rules for relating to each other. They point out the model in many readings in literature, history and social studies. Rather than add on books on caring, students can apply the questions of the caring decision-making model in looking at any curricular materials. For example, “What might have been another option for the United States government expansion that would have been more considerate of the needs, dignity and feelings of Native Americans?” Teachers use the questions of the caring model in science as in caring for the environment, in health and sex education as in caring for the body, and in virtually any school subject or process. Teachers use the decision-making process to help students choose high schools or colleges or as a basis for planning and implementing tutoring, mentoring, or community/service learning projects. They also use it in how they involve parents and the community in the school. In a major study on caring, Ianni (1992) found that the effectiveness of a community in making students feel cared for correlates positively with how well that community coordinates their efforts with other systems like schools, homes, and organizations.

**Some Concluding Comments**

For several years I have been sharing the caring decision-making model with school parents, teachers, and students in the Chicago area, Russia, Sydney, Australia and in States across the U.S. In one Chicago area school for example middle school mothers and daughters came together to use this model to enhance the students’ ability to be caring friends. We went through the questions of the caring decision-making process with mixed groups of mothers and daughters using six uncaring situations students had identified earlier. I asked a seventh grader if the meeting had helped. She said it had helped greatly. She related to me that the day after the meeting the girls were angry towards each other for 30 minutes perhaps because they had pent up feelings and felt so supported by the others in this community exercise. Then, she said they just kept talking and listening to each other. I learned from popular students that they got a new perspective on classmates’ experiences. Parents and teachers said they became more aware of how the social issues affected student’s climate for learning. Parents in Sydney, Australia also saw the model as very helpful for their interactions with children, teachers, and administrators in shared leadership projects in their schools.
I have demonstrated that there are complex cognitive and affective dimensions to caring. The skills involved in the caring process can be taught. I am convinced that teaching children this decision-making process is the best gift we can give them to cope successfully socially and academically. If we do this now they can face any challenge the 21st century brings.

I have also used the caring paradigm with adult students planning a service learning project. The course I developed is called “Human development: Caring over the lifespan.” Students spend time reading the classic Mayeroff text on caring (1971) and other materials on the topic. From our readings and reflections, we identify a whole list of words that are seen as components of caring. They then choose a person to care for at any age over the lifespan and plan a caring project. That involves gathering developmental and individual information about the person to be cared for whether it is a mother and family in a shelter, a new immigrant to Chicago in a literacy program or a senior citizen trying to make connections with others. The list generated by students (see attachment A) demonstrates the complex dimensions of caring. I have found that in taking this adult college course many of the students who are also parents began to change the way they cared for children and related to teachers. The adult learning class with room for abstract conceptualization, reflective observation, active experimentation and concrete experience (Kolb, 1984) was a very powerful learning experience.

I look forward to dialogue on how caring is viewed internationally. The model was well-received by parents and professionals in Russia a decade ago and in Sydney, Australia last summer. It is an approach to life that facilitates learning and growth for all involved including the practitioner.

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Establishing Authentic Student Voice in Asynchronous Distance Learning: Outcomes Based Assessment

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[Abstract] Students in asynchronous distance learning programs experience passivity and increased temptation for academic dishonesty without deliberate integration of coursework that builds authentic voice. Rather than adding plagiarism detection tasks, such integration can actually ease instructor assessment responsibilities by establishing a base on which subsequent course assignments are built. A simple modification to Outcomes Based curriculum planning is described that facilitates development of student authentic voice, with examples.

[Key Words] Outcomes based curriculum, distance education, asynchronous learning, academic honesty, authentic voice

Whether distance learners are college undergraduates or in a professional program, assessing their understanding presents challenges that are evolved in complexity from those of on-site instructors. While the risk always exists that a student’s assignment was not completed by the student, in asynchronous distance learning the question also exists as to whether the person who logged in is the student of record. Actually, even in synchronous distance learning the same possibility exists. However, in asynchronous distance learning academic dishonesty—whether plagiarism or identity—takes on a different dimension, one which is well-documented (Benson, 2003; Rittschof and Griffin, 2003; Lee, 2001). A second challenge is passivity. “The learner has the role of receiving knowledge. The course outcome is measured not in terms of the learner’s ability to transfer what is learned to another subject or topic, but through the learner’s delivery of the content in a narrow context: the end-of-course final” (Holtz and Radner, 2005, p. 277). Again, a challenge faced by on-site instructors, but one exacerbated by the asynchronous distance format, with its potential for isolation.

Despite substantial evidence that formative, performance-based assessments integrated into learning experiences provide a more robust body of work on which to evaluate student learning (Benson, 2003; McDonald and Twining, 2002; Reeves, 2000), the aspects that make assignments challenging for students also make them challenging for instructors to design and employ and, thus, not widely used (McDonald and Twining, 2002). Performance assessments require students to draw from metacognitive abilities that evolve over the
course of a learning experience and, especially in the case of formative portfolios, to sequentially document that development in a variety of formats (McDonald and Twining, 2003; Reeves, 2000). The student demonstrates an individual, authentic, voice as she or he develops agency within the context of the material, and does so through regular communication in an open, identifiable manner.

The Northwest Regional Education Lab defines Voice (within its 6+1 Trait® Writing Model) as: “...the personality of the writer coming through on the page. It is what gives the writing a sense of flavor, uniqueness, and gives the reader the feeling that the writer is talking directly to her. A strong sense of voice demands that the writer make a commitment to the writing and write honestly with conviction. In a paper with strong voice, the reader will get a sense that someone real is there on the page, whether the reader knows the writer or not” (Barrett, 2005, p. 11).

Not only is a purchased or imposter-developed paper difficult to find, but also difficult to pass off (Holtz and Radner, 2005).

**The Learner’s Voice**

However, without a plan, what Wiggins and McTighe (1998) call “a rubric that combines insight and performance related to understandings of ideas and meaning” (p. 70), that variety of integrated assessment measures can be onerous for the instructor. Yet, “rubric” is perceived as a restrictive concept and is too confining a definition for the type of plan that optimizes assessment of distance learning. The ideal plan incorporates not only a similar assessment structure to a rubric, but most important, a thoughtful selection of interrelated learning experiences that require students to demonstrate developing competence in key, “take-away” concepts that, parenthetically, defy the purchased paper or quick answer. Determining what those concepts are represents the first stage in what Wiggins and McTighe (1998) call Backward Design, a remarkably flexible approach that, while designed for K-12 school systems, is liberating for the college instructor. Wiggins and McTighe have established a foundation for organizing curricula that emphasize meaningful outcomes.

Initially, the instructor must ask, “What should students know, understand, and be able to do? What is worthy of understanding? What enduring understandings are desired?” (Wiggins and McTighe, 1998, p. 9), and then further narrow the identified concepts through a sequential set of filters Table 1.
Table 1. Filtering Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Filter</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Filter 1</td>
<td>To what extent does the idea, topic, or process represent a “big idea” having enduring value beyond the classroom?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filter 2</td>
<td>To what extent does the idea, topic, or process reside at the heart of the discipline?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filter 3</td>
<td>To what extent does the idea, topic, or process require uncoverage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filter 4</td>
<td>To what extent does the idea, topic, or process offer potential for engaging students?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Uncoverage is key to authentic voice in the asynchronous distance learning environment. “As opposed to coverage...beyond learning about a subject”, students experience individual investigation into the subject (Wiggins and McTighe, 1998, p.9), engaging them directly and offering multiple communication points in which to establish authentic voice. In effect, Filters 3 and 4 become primary to Filters 1 and 2.

Consider the design of a bioethics course by one of the authors (J.H.). The initial premise was that students should finish the course with the ability to critically read and review media coverage of ethical issues, e.g. abortion, cloning, euthanasia. Yet, with a strong personal belief that the history of clinical research ethics would be essential background knowledge, there was the desire to include a module on the history of research ethics in the United States.

A typical method is the survey course, which explores selected topics in some depth, with discussion of what various philosophers—from Spencer to Hume to Moore and so on—would argue about the contemporary positions, and how laws about Informed Consent developed. To a rather large extent, this method addresses three big ideas, as described in Filter 1, each of which is central to the discipline, as required by Filter 2. Yet, it fails with regard to Filters 3 and 4; information is presented to the student, who spends the course term learning what other people think or thought and perhaps arguing for or against those positions from a personal framework that they do not have time to critically evaluate. Standard assignments lead to standard voices, with a greater likelihood that the voices are not those of enrolled students.

However, reordering the filters enables course designers to engage students in such a way as to preempt standard assignments. Student feedback on substantive buy-in issues is documented from the first day, setting the groundwork for authentic voice. Instead of beginning with theory (Filters 1 and 2), students begin by establishing a personal framework baseline, which also sets up end-of-course reflection, another opportunity for authentic voice to be documented. In this case, students were asked to document their
current opinions in “Initial Thoughts,” a brief paragraph on each of the bioethical issues to be addressed in the course, which was followed by a short autobiography, “Ethical Me,” in which they reflected on how they believed that their ethical base developed. Only after that base was established did the class move forward into discipline-specific contexts.

By keeping the focus on both course goals and the reverse-order filters of Wiggins and McTighe (1998), assignments that elicit authentic voice flow naturally. When concepts and theories are introduced, even those that might initially seem incongruent, as in this case, students have a personal base to which they can refer, a base that has been recognized as both valid and important by virtue of its early placement in the course. Assignments designed to reinforce the selected theory framework readily draw from that base as students reflect on and integrate new knowledge to their person bases (Table 2).

**Example Assignments**

As described, each student began establishing a base and an authentic voice through the first two assignments, “Initial Thoughts” and “Ethical Me,” which were essentially non-discipline oriented. Material at the discipline’s core, as described in Filters 1 and 2, was introduced immediately afterwards, still maintaining emphasis on establishing authentic voice. In “Common Mistakes,” students were introduced to false reasoning.

...(The author) describes in some detail the Common Mistakes made when we discuss ethical issues. (He) calls these “student” errors, but the same errors are often heard on TV and radio news programs, and read in published discussions. In Assignment 5, consider those Common Mistakes. Which do you believe is the most defensible, and why? Which is the most troubling and why? Finally, which have you resorted to and what were the circumstances? (Holtz, 2004, p. 17).

Two additional assignments maintained balance between personal reflection and core content. In the first, students applied “the work of philosopher John Stuart Mill to define four categories for Delimiting Moral Issues: personal life, morality, public policy, and legality and illegality,” then returned to the Initial Thoughts assignment to “document which category or categories…are applicable to the topics” (Holtz, 2004, p. 18). In the second assignment, students completed an online human subjects tutorial that, in part, discussed some of the more egregious abuses in medical research. They were then asked to discuss three questions: “Were you aware of what you learned, or was it new to you? How do you believe knowing this material will change how you assess what you hear or read? Or will it change?” (Holtz, 2004, p.18). In each case, assignments called for increased application and discussion of discipline-related content, Filters 1 and 2, while supporting student buy-in, Filters 3 and 4, through a return to the base they initially established.
Before switching to discussion of bioethical topics and critique of popular literature, students completed one additional critical thinking assignment that, while reflective, moved still further toward content emphasis by incorporating the human subjects material and the frameworks with which they would assess their resources. Students participated in role-play about the Tuskegee Syphilis Study.

(You assume the role of —become, in your mind—a Tuskegee subject, a Tuskegee investigator (one designing and performing the experiments), and a Tuskegee examiner (one reviewing the study after the abuses became known). In each role, discuss whether the study was an issue of personal life, morality, public policy and/or legality and illegality. Still in that role, describe how the principles of autonomy, beneficence/benefit, nonmaleficence/absence of harm, and justice were addressed (Holtz, 2004, p. 23). One can detect the increasing content sophistication of each assignment. By this point in the term, students were fully engaged and each had established an authentic voice that was readily recognizable. As they presented literature reviews for class discussion, there would be no mistaking original work for plagiarized, even if a student had been able to find a suitable review of a popular publication. While a subsequent article will describe assessing level of understanding, the consistent, increasingly complex stream of student work meant that neither the instructor nor students were taken unawares by the student assessment.

Conclusion
While the literature documents passivity and increased temptation for academic dishonesty as characteristics of students in asynchronous distance learning programs, deliberate integration of assignments that promote authentic voice can prevent both. The simple modification to Backward Design theory described here facilitates development of student authentic voice through a balance of personal reflection and discipline content. Shifting that balance promotes student engagement while ensuring discipline coverage, and can lessen the assessment load of instructors.

References


The Feeling of Difference: Minority Faculty Experience in Academe

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[Abstract]  Six personal essays of minority faculty in the discipline of parks, recreation, and leisure studies are analyzed using Turner, Myers, & Creswell’s (1999) schema of factors involved in psychostructural exclusion. Turner et al. postulate six critical factors; content analysis of the essays reveals consistent presence of two of them: isolation/lack of mentoring and occupational stress. Two other individual-level factors, devaluation of minority-inspired research and the perception of tokenism are found, but in a much less robust form. The experiential texture of these factors demands additional investigation. The essay narratives contain a trove of experiential evidence decrying the common efforts by academic departments for minority inclusion, and suggest the presence of a serious imbalance between participants’ personal identity stamina and key aspects of the professional self. The formative role of collegial interaction to a retention-rich academic environment emerges as a key finding of the content analysis.

[Key Words]  Minority faculty, faculty diversity, inclusion, collegial interaction

From this institution’s history, it was clear that faculty diversity was not a priority or administrators were not committed to the idea…the Leisure Studies department was all White, never having had an African-American as part of the faculty, and I was the first and last Latino to hold a faculty position. (C. Ramos, in Hibbler, 2002).

In light of the fifty-odd years since the U.S. Supreme Court’s decision in Brown v. Board of Education, the ongoing scholarly examination of whether and how minorities fare in the academic workplace is particularly appropriate. Our analysis of six essays by minority scholars on their experiences of workplace inclusion efforts centers on questions of social interaction and professional identity. We examine scholars’ own recollections of being a minority faculty member in an effort to grasp the experiential reality of inclusion and exclusion. Microsocial data on racial and ethnic barriers to a full professional identity are scarce; most available literature documents structural patterns and poses questions relevant to cultural and social categories. This present study provides in-depth, qualitative insights into a small group of academics who occupy a minority racial or ethnic status as well as a unique professional niche (parks, recreation, and leisure studies). Although we are not able to generalize about minority faculty experience, our findings complement, and perhaps refine, the overall statistical picture of recruitment and retention in the academic workplace.
Diversity: Patterns and Processes

The literature on structural trends in minority inclusion and exclusion within the academy draws an unequivocal image of failure. Emerging as a powerful force in university hiring and retention policies over the past quarter-century, diversifying the ranks of faculty remains a major focus of attention, if not concerted action, across American higher education (Trower & Chait, 2002). The pace of measurable progress in doctoral achievement and postsecondary employment for racial and ethnic minorities remains glacial, although some data suggest slightly more positive change within disciplinary fields than across them (U.S. DOE, 1999; Schlatter, 2002). In fact, faculty of color are less likely to be hired, retained, or report a high level of job satisfaction than their white counterparts at every level of the academy (Astin, Cress & Astin, 1997; Niemann & Dovidio, 1998). Representing nearly one-third of the total population, ethnic and racial minorities comprise only 14% of all college faculty (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2003; U.S. Department of Education, 2003). This percentage hides the fact that minority faculty are clustered in the occupation’s lower ranks and disproportionately represented in community college positions (Astin, Cress & Astin, 1997; Trower & Chait, 2002).

Of particular relevance to our sample is Bialeschki’s (1998) findings that 92% of parks, recreation, and leisure studies programs in the United States and Canada do not have any faculty of color in tenure-track positions nor do 60% note minority faculty as being present in any position at all. These and similar patterns in the pursuit of faculty diversity raise a multitude of questions, many of which center on theories of labor market supply and demand (Trower & Chait, 2002). Some late-century studies suggest supply as the primary factor in the severe underrepresentation of minority American faculty (Adams, 1988; Carter & Wilson, 1991; Thomas, 1992), but our work rests on a wider premise than offered by supply variables alone.

Theory and Method

To identify common perceptions and events in the experience of minority faculty, we examine the content of six published essays on the subject (Hibbler, 2002). The authors are professors of parks, recreation and leisure studies. The essays are “free form,” but all contain an account of the authors’ experience as a minority faculty member. The experiential basis of the essays and the lack of formal directives for the narrative, combine to provide a solid source of primary data from which this analysis proceeds. We begin by using the Turner et al. (1999) schema identifying six critical barriers to recruitment and retention of minorities. Two of those are macro-level variables (recruitment and hiring bias & tenure and promotion bias) and, as such, not amenable to valid analysis using experience-based narratives. We pair the remaining four factors, using them as the primary lens for analyzing essay content. The results of the content analysis represent discovered levels of redundancy in the narratives relevant to the Turner et al. (1999) factors. Six narratives are too few even for the specialized statistical operations sometimes used in small-sample, qualitative work; yet still
enough data to cull patterns of action and meaning around discrete questions and variables (Strauss, 1987).

Two phases of data collection mark the study: essay writing and focus group participation. This report concerns the essay content, yet we attest to the fact that the focus group data do not contradict (and, in fact, underscore) the results from the content analysis. In the first phase, participants wrote a personal essay about being a non-majority faculty member in a parks, recreation and leisure studies department. Since there are comparatively few minority faculties in this field (Bialeschki, 1998; Schlatter, 2002), a network and informant-based strategy was employed to locate participant’s representative of minorities in the field. The eventual composition included 3 males, 3 females, 3 African-Americans, 1 Hispanic, 1 Asian-American, and 1 bi-racial participant.

Results

Using the set of Turner et al. factors involved in the dynamics of hiring and retention of minorities, the analysis of the essay content clearly points to the paired four elements noted above. Yet, it is the primary pair, “Isolation/Lack of Mentoring & Occupational Stress” that emerge as the leading indicators of this faculty experience. Our focus on this pair does not negate the significance of the paired elements, “Devaluation of Minority Research & Token Hire Misconception.” Faculty of color who conduct research on minority issues may find their work overtly, or even obliquely, devalued (Garza, 1993; Padilla & Chavez, 1995; Moody, 2004). Among one’s colleagues, this outlook appears in concert with an implicit assumption that one was hired solely for ascriptive reasons; in short, affirmative action (Padilla & Chavez, 1995; Cooper & Stevens, 2002). Faculty experiences with these levels of discrimination are present in these data, but in scanty amounts relative to evidence for the primary pair. Participants who do identify them give many fewer anecdotes and examples in support. Therefore, subsequent stages of this research will centralize the role of these two factors in the support, or denigration, of minority faculty status.

Isolation/Lack of Mentoring & Occupational Stress

The six faculty essays are rich with narrative supporting the primary pair of factors in faculty attrition:

The third type of response was negative. Value and judgment were attached to other; negative value—inferior, not as good as, less than, and separate from. If this third response had been verbalized, comments such as “You are not one of us,” and “You are different from us, hence, less than us,” would have been voiced…Intentional or not, I felt this negative response deeply (R. Dahl, in Hibbler, 2002).

On one occasion, at a meeting…a senior faculty member shouted in disapproval at how I was conducting the course. He said, “I could lift the
phone, make a call, and ruin your career.” I remained calm while he engaged in intimidation, threats, aggressive voice and body language. I would not forget his remark, and it makes me curious to know who and where one could call to ruin a person’s career (C. Ramos, in Hibbler, 2002).

“Isolation/Lack of Mentoring & Occupational Stress” constitutes the primary pair of factors relevant to the work-life of the six minority faculty members, representing key aspects of individuals’ on-the-job experience. Professionals of color often find themselves outside their departments’ informal networks, isolated; their voices and contributions “muted” (see, Kramarae, 1981; Orbe, 1998; Isiorho, 2003). Theoretical depictions of the processes of silencing and isolating groups and their members are significant touchstones for us as we interpret the recounted experiences of this group of faculty (Ardener, 1975; Ardener, 1978; Moody, 2004). Knowledge about these processes of exclusion inside organizations, as set in motion and nurtured by dominant social groups, and about the demonstrable effects on individuals, flows directly from the baseline, pioneering work of minority scholars such as W. E. B. DuBois (1940) and John Hope Franklin (1947). In a central yet more attenuated way, it is also a product of scholarship connected to questions about the social psychology of identity and patterns of group interaction (e.g., Erikson, 1968). The essay data allow us to apply concepts of social muting and group domination to appreciate the experiences undergone by faculty of color in the academy, and to contribute to the growing concern about this problem, including the search for all possible solutions. Of special concern, is the sample’s unequivocal focus on the unique burden of university service for minorities:

(Moreover), faculty, often untenured, have joint appointments engage in a wide range of university service committee work, and are often not given the time and support needed to develop their own academic careers…if select faculty choose not to become involved in the activities of these groups they are potentially perceived as outsiders (M. Allison, in Hibbler, 2002).

Much of my stress came from the additional demands on my time beyond teaching and research. These demands included advising students of color not only in my department, but across campus as well, serving on campus committees in order to achieve diverse representations and serving as liaisons with the surrounding minority community (C. Outley, in Hibbler, 2002). (For example), if a department or college committee requires input on ethnic diversity, you are often expected to become a committee member. Oftentimes, you get the feeling you’ve become the campus spokesperson or in-house expert on racial and ethnic community concerns (L. Colston, in Hibbler, 2002).
Social muting theory stands as a useful frame for interpreting the common minority faculty experience of exacerbated occupational stress. Faculty stress is a common phenomenon, regardless of one’s color or ethnicity. However, minority faculty may be expected to fulfill their customary duties as well as extra university service responsibilities, including mentoring minority students (Garza, 1993; Smith & Witt, 1993). The “muting” factor, when it appears as an expectation for “extra” service to the organization, appears particularly pernicious. What (may) happen should one decline to serve? One of the participants writes at length about the “hyper-privileging” of African-American scholars who are now, in the current cultural climate, expected to offer their long-problematised (by majority culture) characteristics to the organization in its quest to adhere to emergent cultural norms. He says,

Particular forms of diversity are being demanded…(A)re we not creating essential subjects/objects for universities’, researchers’, policy makers’, and practitioners’ consumption?…In short, when we talk about diversity in the range of settings where we come together (symposia, classrooms, faculty meetings, search committees, etc.), what are we really talking about? (M. Floyd, in Hibbler, 2002).

Discussion

The road to parity for minority scholars remains steep; its length to be determined by universities’ attentiveness to the problem. The opportunity to intervene, particularly on the departmental level, exists; retirement of as many as one-third of the current faculty pool in the U.S., is expected during the next decade (Trower & Chait, 2002). We cannot afford to continue the gradualist, laissez faire approach to faculty diversity and retention.

This content analysis of just six narratives demonstrates the invidious strength of personal interaction and communication to damage, and perhaps dismantle, change. We call for departmental initiatives aimed at this level of experience to hold the line on minority faculty attrition. This is a prime area for further investigation. Our results center on interaction-dependent factors in the enumeration of forces impeding minority faculty retention, and we are indebted to the work of Turner et al. (1999) in this area. The next wave of our work is likely to focus on the second pair of factors identified in the essays as problematic to retention (research devaluation and the “token hire” misapprehension). These data were merely suggestive of their role in the processes of attrition, and we need a more robust layer of evidence to draw any conclusions. The main finding vindicates the identification of isolation/lack of mentoring & occupational stress, by Turner et al., as key sites of damage in the bond between new faculty of color and their home units. The expectation that minorities willingly assume extra service burdens is of great importance to our results, and to the wider implications of academic practice on the status of faculty (Turner & Myers, 2000). Departmental initiatives to address that issue must centralize this practice for critique and evaluation.
Many truly innovative strategies for intervention are appearing in the literature on this problem (e.g., Trower & Chait, 2002). Responsive action must follow these incisive recommendations; from the departmental to the institutional level. As Thoreau advised, we should “advance confidently in the direction of our dreams,” and let such words as follow become anachronistic signs of a bygone era:

Having served on a host of university-wide committees over the years, I am still amazed at the lack of diversity in certain departments, the intricate levels of rationalization that are used to justify it, and the lack of unit accountability or consequences for the failure to diversify a faculty (M. Allison, in Hibbler, 2002).

References


An Examination of the Pros and Cons of Internet Education in Business Schools: Is a New Model for Introducing and Implementing Internet Teaching Warranted?

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**Abstract**  Many of the most challenging issues facing business schools worldwide today are the result of the plethora of technological advancements, particularly in computing and telecommunications that have occurred over the past twenty years. While individual business schools face unique challenges, globally, common issues have emerged relating to the impact of technology on 1) competition, 2) competencies and 3) delivery modalities. Globally, business schools are being challenged to examine operating paradigms that have served for years as their guiding praxis. To remain relevant and viable in today’s dynamic economy, business schools must define and implement new strategies for survival in an increasingly technologically sophisticated marketplace. This paper begins to provide an understanding of the significance of technological advancements to business schools worldwide, with particular focus on Internet based challenges and opportunities. The paper concludes with a proposed model that business schools may want to entertain to effectively address technology related issues impacting ongoing viability and competitiveness.

**Key Words**  business schools, communication technology, changing global market place, competition

Redefining the Competitive Landscape

There is a universal perspective that knowledge, rather than capital or labor, may be the main competitive tool of the future. At the same time, there is a growing global gap with respect to the numbers of people skilled in the information and communication technologies that make up the digital age (Reding, 2002; Rowley, 2000). In 1998, Carnoy suggested that this void provided ample opportunities for business schools to take the leadership role in developing highly educated workers, who are prepared to learn quickly and are flexible. Bolstered by technology and coming at a time when state schools were reducing funding, new proprietary schools were emerging daily, and private schools were experiencing an erosion of revenues, business schools embraced this challenge and embarked upon a trend that continues to shape the competitive landscape. Technological advances are eliminating borders and significantly changing the market for student and faculty recruitment.
Globalization, shifting demographic populations, redefinition of the typical student, virtual classrooms, and Internet delivery have resulted in new operating realities for academic institutions worldwide.

Astute institutions recognize that they must undergo transformational change to remain viable. Common survival strategies include removing boundaries between higher educational institutions and their external publics, establishing interdisciplinary programs, supporting entrepreneurial efforts and technology, and redesigning and personalizing student support services to meet the dynamics of a changing student population (Hanna, 2003). Movement towards this direction is evidenced by the increase in institutional mergers that are occurring between former competitors, between institutions that reside within the same country as well as mergers across global boundaries. For example, in 2001 the business schools at Harvard and Stanford began a conversation regarding a bicoastal e-alliance that would result in a common distribution platform. This discussion was the first of its kind for the business school at Harvard (HBS, 2001). Another example of strategic partnerships formed to provide competitive advantage is evidenced by University systems. The organization is jointly collaborating with private institutions in California to deliver doctoral programs (Harris & Williams, 2001). The formation of global partnerships is also increasingly pervasive. INSEAD, for example, has designed programs that expand continents, enabling institution to offer programs both in Europe and Asia (http://www.insead.edu). As bicoastal alliances continue to emerge, it is also not uncommon to find cross continent alliances where the typical classroom is a virtual one. Consequently, those institutions that are slow to move to the forefront of these changes may find themselves seriously behind when competing for students.

Examples of changes in alliances are also evidenced in partnerships forming with the corporate sector. Corporate universities are downsizing, outsourcing, or being eliminated. There is fierce competition from numerous business schools who are seeking additional revenues by stepping in to fill the learning void by partnering to offer accredited online programs. Strayer University, for example, a for-profit multi-campus university specializing in the working adult academic market, recently announced an agreement with AT&T Corporation. Strayer, who offers accredited online courses in all 50 states and 60 countries worldwide, is now providing convenient college degrees to AT&T employees (Roach, 2003).

From a scenario perspective, one can also posit that these technology-fueled changes in alliances may have far reaching impact in a very short span of time. Questions such as how many faculties will be needed to effectively service a global population begin to emerge. What are the skill sets required by faculty in this new environment? Will the qualification for survival in an academically global environment be available only to those academicians who get an “early” jump on building alliances and networks, domestically as well as internationally? Will the small regional business school that may not possess the human
and/or financial resources to compete in this environment become extinct? While these are rhetorical questions for the moment, clearly the changing landscape of academic merger and acquisitions of institutions of higher education, and in particular business schools, suggest that faculty and administrators should be paying close attention to these issues.

**Technology as a Lever for Redefining the Delivery of Education in Business Schools**

Technology is forcing business schools to re-examine their methods of operating as they adjust the content, structure and delivery of the curriculum to meet the demands of a constantly changing technological landscape, the demographic changes of the student body and the needs of businesses who help fund business schools. The use of the Internet has become a prevailing vehicle for the delivery of education as well as a resource tool for students and faculty (National Center for Education Statistics, 1995). The advent of this technological explosion brings forth many challenges for business schools. As a result, business schools are engaging in radical transformation at many levels, which may be antithetical to the culture of the business school and the academy at large.

**The Pros of Internet Teaching**

The world is hungry for education. The delivery of classes via the Internet eliminates geographic barriers and provides a diverse group of people educational opportunities on a global basis. Online learning is proving to be a tool that offers a cost-effective way to expand and deliver educational offerings to multiple constituencies. Several years ago, the ability to deliver courses through an Internet modality was considered novel. Today, with the distance-learning market growing 40% annually (Roach, 2003) an online component is a mandatory element of business school portfolios.

When effectively implemented, Internet based programs provide greater dimensions to the educational experience and are cost effective. They reduce the need for significant brick and mortar, ease overcrowding, require fewer faculties, and can be offered nationwide/worldwide. The size of online courses is limited only by the ability of the instructor to maintain the quality of instruction and administrative responsibilities (Davey, 1998).

The Internet has also extended numerous advantages to students. In today’s highly competitive environment, convenience is frequently a factor in selecting online courses. The classroom is now as close as the nearest computer (Melton, 2003). While Internet based courses are especially popular with computer literate, working adults who are juggling busy family lives and careers, they are rapidly gaining popularity with students who want to expedite their educational experience.

Faculty also enjoys somewhat unexpected benefits associated with barriers eliminated by teaching online. They, too, are able to schedule their instruction at a time and pace that meet
their individual needs. An interesting outcome of Internet based education is that instructors may now have the ability to build a national/international teaching reputation. This is particularly true when the instructor offers multiple courses online (Davey, 1998).

The Cons of Internet Teaching
While administrators in institutions of higher education are hurrying to address the needs resulting from technological advancements, faculties raise questions that span a range of issues. Despite the Internet now being a critical part of our learning culture, often faculty are not effectively trained in the nuances of how to teach in a virtual environment and are left on their own to learn new skills as well as develop new pedagogical paradigms.

Being forced to do something uncomfortable becomes a very complex issue when one factors in the complex culture of higher education. The movement from a traditional modality of teaching to a virtual environment must be effectively managed. Otherwise, technological re-engineering initiatives will continue to conflict with the culture. To manage the change, administrators must understand that the human mind needs cognitive stability and that any challenge to or questioning of basic assumptions, which will undoubtedly arise during any type of organizational change, will release anxiety and defensiveness (Schein, 1992).

Additionally, prior to changing classroom formats, administrators must consider the impact Internet teaching has on the employment relationship between faculty and the institution. Compelling issues include, but are not limited to, training and development, compensation, redefinition of the workday, work hours and load. Administration must be willing to invest the time and financial resources to address these issues when aggressively moving toward a radical change in delivery modality. Evidentiary data is reflected in the case of an East Coast, U.S. based university. Two years ago, it was announced that, as a prerequisite, students would move from an option to take Internet courses to the requirement that at least one Internet course per year must be taken before they could earn their degrees (Baynton, 2001). This mandate brought forth a significant number of implementation and training challenges, development needs and, most important, questions about the student/teacher interaction processes. Faculties, in particular, were concerned with the isolation of students from traditional college interactions (Baynton, 2001).

The major intent of the university’s administration was to expand its reach and internationalize its approach to learning by drawing upon a worldwide pool of professors, thus reinforcing the university’s new mission of providing a global education geared toward producing global citizens. There was also recognition that significant dollars for training as well as forethought in the planning processes had to be spent to develop the infrastructure to support this initiative. The university invested 5 million dollars over a four-year period with the bulk of the dollars going towards faculty training, system upgrades, software
development and design (Baynton, 2001). The necessity for significant expenditures to ensure effective implementation suggests that a business school cannot just suddenly decide it is going to compete in a virtual environment. There must be careful planning, with a particular focus on ensuring sufficient funds are allotted to provide the capital necessary to support infrastructure, curriculum development, faculty training and the time necessary to reflect and design effective teaching strategies.

Ancillary questions regarding the allocation of teaching credits, length of contract and compensation practices for faculty must also be addressed. Typically Internet delivery can be far more laborious with respect to actual contact time with students versus traditional classroom teaching. Course delivery can be labor intensive and will also require administrators to address the topic of intellectual property. Size of the virtual classroom must also be managed to insure that faculty have sufficient time to effectively respond to each student.

Inclusively, the virtual classroom may include a globally diverse student body. This component challenges faculty with respect to office hours, teaching schedules and most important the criticality of effectively interacting with a culturally diverse student audience. It id prudent for administrators to invest in time and resources to help faculty become more culturally sensitive, while concurrently developing strategies to insure that global audiences are collectively engaged in the virtual classroom.

Business schools also face pedagogical challenges that arise when the delivery modality changes. While the dynamics of this highly complex and changing global environment call for curriculum that is relevant to industry needs and customer focused, it also calls for a deep and polyphonic listening interaction between faculty and students. This will help ensure better understanding organizations as evolving, transforming, social construction, malleable to human choice (Barrett and Srivastva, 1991).

Concomitantly, as faculty and students work through complex business problems, Internet interactions often negatively impact the learning process due to the inability to have a complex personal interaction present in the virtual classroom. The transfer of information via emails, and other web-based processes eliminates the often deep and personal classroom interactions and polyphonic listening/hearing/inquiry strategies that enhance the mere transference of information. Developing a deep understanding of the verbal messages that ensues in the learning environment, positions faculty to better understand where students are in the learning process. Concurrently, it will signal to student’s critical information regarding the credibility of the faculty’s message, which is critical when discussing challenging and complex materials (Easley, McMaster and Tate, 2003).
Clearly, technology driven application, the Internet, in particular, continue to rapidly transform the environment of higher education. Distance education courses are already the wave of the present time. It is also clear that when learning to work through the complexity of today’s environment, business students require the opportunity to question their insight. Faculties are responsible for bringing strategies to the learning environment that promote experiential learning. Experience to date, however, indicates these strategies are typically better facilitated through Personal interactions, such as Socratic dialogue and reflection. These teaching strategies enable faculty to move the learning beyond the transference of content knowledge (Kalliath, 2003). Therefore, when developing virtual classrooms, business schools are challenged to invest the time, dollars and faculty resources to develop delivery strategies that do not compromise the human dimensions of inter and intra-personal communications, which are vital to the learning processes.

A Model for Change
Internet facilitated teaching/learning is here to stay. Effective implementation of a virtual classroom strategy requires a focused change that is designed to move from a current state to a desired future state.
Develop a think tank within the business school that will continually scan the environment regarding global and domestic alliances technological and technological changes.

Figure One

Developmental Strategies for Introducing and Implementing Internet

- Develop a comprehensive strategy for delivering online education.
- Assess the financial, personnel, infrastructure, curriculum and student related issues.
- Assess the culture of the business school and concerns regarding faculty. Utilizing a participative approach, actively solicit input from both faculty and students.
- Assess internal and eternal opportunities for cross collaboration.
- Utilizing team based design and implementation strategies, redesign the curriculum and delivery systems. Develop focus groups to assess potential issues with delivery modalities. Are the...
Strategies must be focused with an over-arching praxis that calls for institutional think tanks that will have the responsibility to constantly scan the environment and apprise the business school of potential as well as implemented changes in curriculum delivery, institutional collaborations and global advances. Strategies should also be collaborative and flexible. To develop commitment, all stakeholders should be brought into the assessment and strategic development processes. It can become very counterproductive for just administrators to develop a new strategy, which is ultimately “passed” down to faculty.

Institutional commitment to the change process is crucial. Stakeholder involvement facilitates conversations that can critically assess delivery modalities against required business competencies and develop answers to the questions that address what could potentially be lost in the transference of holistic learning when teaching modalities change. However, a business school must also be poised to act rapidly as well as strategically. To spend endless hours in committee will only grid lock the business school in endless hours of academic debate while the world moves forward. It becomes very important for the business school to understand not only the organizational culture and climate of the school, but the overarching organizational culture of the institution and how that culture will either support or impede a new strategy. This level of assessment and analysis can help the architects of change strategies determine ways to incorporate culture change concurrent with the strategic development and implementation processes that result in virtual education (McCareins and Easley, 1996, Easley, 1997).

Once the comprehensive assessment is completed, the business school may find that there are human resource management issues, which require attention. Issues, such as workload and the appropriate compensation for increases in workload can be important to faculty. These issues may exist within the boundaries a more formalistic faculty agreement with the university or can reside within the domain of psychological contracts. Irrespective of where they reside, administration must understand that if these issues cannot be fiscally included within an immediate budget, it is clearly important to acknowledge them and set forth a timetable as to when they will be addressed within the strategy and resulting budget.

To increase the effectiveness of the curriculum, it is useful to engage faculty in cross-disciplinary team initiated processes, which include faculty, administration, business constituents, students and possibly consultative support. A business school must realistically evaluate its infrastructure to determine what delivery modalities and platforms can now be offered versus those that should be placed in the planning strategy. Inclusively, this same collaborative team can develop clearly defined and documented course objectives, assessment outcomes and quality/security (in both the design and delivery of curriculum) standards and strategies, which are consistent with institutional policy.
Institutional collaborations, as previously stated, are also the wave of the future and may be more cost beneficial for an institution. Similar to the California Virtual University, which consists of 89 accredited colleges (the University of California system, California State University, California Community Colleges and the Association of Independent California Colleges and University) offering courses on the Internet (AlHashim, Sankaran, Siva, 2003), business schools when addressing cost containment and efficiency issues may need to look for collaborations, which can emerge from inside the institution as well as those external to the institution. When evaluating possible collaborations in concert with enrollment strategies, business schools can also evaluate the forging of international partnerships. International partnerships are proving to be beneficial to both an institution and its faculty. International collaborations provide faculty with opportunity to extensively share their research and scholarship. Students also benefit due to the increased sharing of ideas in a cross-cultural context.

The last component of the model suggests the need to constantly scan and assess the environment and business school’s progress. While it tends to be a cliché, the one constant dynamic in our lives is that of change. Therefore, one can posit that the only way a business school will continue to stay competitive is to engage in an ongoing scanning of environmental signals that indicate more change, which is why the overarching tenet of the model is to develop a think tank for just that purpose.

Conclusion
While there are significant pro and con debates as to whether or not the traditional walls of the academy will remain, the one fact that remains clear is that the information age is here to stay and will continue to rapidly change. It therefore becomes critical that business schools learn to bridge curriculum gaps with technology, while maintaining some of the best of what is traditionally accomplished in the more traditional classroom setting and other face to face encounters with students (AlHashim, Sankaran, Siva, 2003). However, to effectively maintain that balance requires systemic assessment, planning and a careful design of intervention strategies before launching virtual deliveries. Therefore, to stay on the forefront of technology advancements and continue to serve as leaders in a global economy, business schools will have to take a proactive and strategic stance towards change…it may be the only way that they survive.

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Addressing Faculty Concerns: Faculty Development for Online Education

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[Abstract] Faculty developers working in higher education are involved with helping faculty members improve the quality of teaching and learning. As the philosophy about what constitute good teaching changes to a more learner-centered approach, especially in online education, the roles and functions of faculty change. The changing delivery systems and teaching approaches can also realign faculty concerns. Previous research has identified ten factors that faculty perceive to be obstacles to their teaching in distance education: 1) faculty compensation and time, 2) organizational change, 3) technical expertise, support, and infrastructure, 4) evaluation/effectiveness, 5) student support services, 6) social interaction and quality, 7) legal issues, 8) access, 9) threatened by technology, and 10) administrative structure. This paper explores these factors and identifies those in which faculty development may have the best chance of ameliorating barriers to distance education and includes some ways this is being done.

[Key Words] distance education, faculty compensation, threatened by technology

According to the Campus Computing Project (Green 1990-2004), for the past half a decade or more, the most important information technology issue facing campuses has been assisting faculty to integrate the use of technology into the curriculum. To respond to this, many institutions of higher education have initiated faculty development efforts to assist faculty to integrate technology in the classroom generally, and to help faculty with developing courses to be offered at a distance.

Essentially, the role of faculty development in higher education is to work with faculty members to improve the quality of teaching and learning. There are many conceptions of faculty development. At the very least, most include the notion of university support for faculty learning more about learning theory, instructional design and development, teaching methods and techniques, and assessment. While the goal of faculty development is not to turn all faculty members into education specialists, there are efforts to acquaint faculty with as much educational theory as they desire (WASC 2000). At its core, faculty development is
a continuous process of addressing faculty concerns about teaching and learning. This can be either in their on-campus courses or when teaching at a distance.

Does faculty development improve faculty teaching or student learning? It is hard to say. Efforts vary widely, methods vary widely, and faculty development has various goals—certainly the impact varies as well. Kolbo and Turnage (2002) summarized some of the difficulty with assessing faculty development effectiveness by stating, “in our case, only a small number of faculty usually participate, those who attend are often those least in need of such services, and few if any measures are in place for long-term improvement” (n.p.).

It is doubtful that anyone would argue that faculty development is all things to all faculties. Probably the best that can be said is that faculty development works sometimes, in certain circumstances, for some faculty. Faculty development takes on numerous forms such as written templates, handbooks, newsletters, seminars or forums, in-service training, guidelines, consultancy, and workshops. Many of these forms, once in place, are relatively low cost, e.g., web pages that faculty can consult on an as-needed basis. More complex systems of faculty development coordinate with incentives, release time, teaching assistants, faculty computer laboratories, help desk functions, library, and student support services—all in an attempt to engage faculty and serve as a catalyst for their rethinking teaching strategies.

One-on-one faculty consulting with a faculty development specialist is costly, but probably one of the most reliable way of assisting faculty members to improve their teaching. Our goal for this article is to articulate the most important concerns that faculty have in the area of distance learning and to further state in which areas faculty development efforts may have the best chance of ameliorating these faculty concerns by using a consultancy approach between a faculty member and a faculty development specialist.

Changing Roles of Faculty
Awareness of the general shift in educational philosophy to a student-centered, constructivist environment is hard to escape. Conducting a review of the contents of almost any journal in the education field will most often show at least one article espousing the need for student-centered instruction, or describing the online learning environment as student-centered. The nature of distance delivery technologies pushes this change in roles, as there is no longer a “front of the room” where instructors can stand and lecture. Lectures online become a “talking-head” or appear as screens and screens of text.

It seems clear that if faculty members gain skills in using web-based technology without regard for teaching methods it would not necessarily alter the effectiveness of teaching or learning. It is just as clear that the significant changes required of faculty as they migrate from classroom teaching to hybrid or totally online courses can mean changes in faculty concerns. This is a transition that can be eased by faculty development specialists as they
tailor their assistance to the particular needs and concerns of individual faculty members.

**Helping to Overcome Barriers in Distance Education**

Changing from teaching in a classroom to using mediated delivery systems can realign faculty concerns. There are many reasons why faculty embraces distance education such as a desire to have access to remote students, the opportunity to work with more motivated students, reduced travel, increased course quality, the availability of release time, and increased flexibility of teaching time (Betts 1998; Clay 1999; Curran 1997; Dillon & Walsh 1992; Eisenberg 1998; Wolcott & Betts 1999; Wolcott & Haderlie 1996). Still, there is often strong resistance by some faculty to teaching online. While it is a faculty developer’s responsibility to help promote a positive attitude towards teaching and learning at a distance and to provide the reassurance that support will be forthcoming as the faculty person needs it, these changes in attitude sometimes take a long time, or are otherwise difficult to accomplish.

What are faculty concerns related to online and distance learning? Research has both identified and prioritized barriers to distance education as perceived by faculty members (Berge & Mroczowski 1999; Berge & Muilenburg 2000; Muilenburg & Berge 2001). Listed from most concerning to least concerning (Berge & Muilenburg 2001), are the ten factors that faculty perceive to be obstacles to their teaching in distance education:

1) faculty compensation and time,  
2) organizational change,  
3) technical expertise, support, and infrastructure,  
4) evaluation/effectiveness,  
5) student support services,  
6) social interaction and quality,  
7) legal issues,  
8) access,  
9) threatened by technology, and  
10) administrative structure (for a description of these factors see Muilenburg & Berge, 2001).

At institutions where faculty development collaborates closely with the library, and an information technology helpdesk, reward and incentive structures, and other services, faculty development could be construed to help in all the ten areas listed above. But the focus in this paper will be on improving pedagogical richness through what would be considered common faculty development consulting services in the areas of technical expertise, support, and infrastructure; evaluation/effectiveness; and social interaction and quality.
Pedagogical Richness
Pedagogical richness is defined by Deubel (2003) as “the degree to which a course addresses learning styles, use of media, and interactivity with content, testing and feedback, and collaboration” (n.p.).

Technical Expertise, Support, and Infrastructure
It is difficult to keep up with the fast pace of technological change. Many instructors lack the knowledge and skills to design and teach distance learning courses, yet their individual organizations (e.g. programs, departments) lack support staff to assist with technical problems, to develop distance learning course materials, or to provide training in distance teaching techniques. The technology-enhanced classrooms or laboratories and the infrastructure required to use them may not be available.

A single unit within an institution sometimes handles technology training for distance teaching, and sometimes it is diffused over several different units. Faculty need to be trained in the use of the technology and this is sometimes handled by the unit that supports the learning management system or the Information Technology department, or even the library. While technology training is necessary for mastery of distance teaching, it is not sufficient to help a faculty member become successful. One area that faculty development efforts involve is organizing the development of materials, since faculty developers sometimes have access to staff trained and available to do such things as build web pages and put materials on CD-ROMs for distribution. They can also coordinate with television or video services to tape demonstrations and simulations and assist faculty to redesign classroom courses to produce high quality video-materials as they teach in the classroom.

While help-desk personnel and computer system administrators assist faculty members with technical problems, faculty developers often provide distance learning training. This can extend from training a faculty person to design and develop their own course and all attendant materials to the faculty member serving as a content expert with the faculty development person and their staff actually building the course.

Evaluation/Effectiveness
There is concern over a lack of research supporting the effectiveness of distance learning and a perceived lack of effective evaluation methods for distance learning courses and programs. Most assessment methods that are used in the classroom can be adapted for use online and the faculty development specialist can suggest alternative assessments to the typical multiple-choice examination or research paper, pointing out that much assessment of student learning can take place in online discussion forums, when they are available.

Testing and assessment of student outcomes is also a concern. Faculty development personnel can assist faculty in their online course design efforts as they learn to write
assessable learning outcomes and to create the assessments that test that learning. This is often a new way for faculty to look at their teaching: stating outcomes, providing learning resources, creating learning activities, organizing interactions and then assessing the student’s attainment of the outcomes (Collins & Berge 2003).

Faculty development can help in course or program evaluation by taking the students’ point of view. With regard to instructor effectiveness and evaluation, it is really a job of the academic department and the return on requests for online course evaluations from distance students is notoriously low.

Social Interaction and Quality
Participants in distance learning courses, both faculty and students, can feel isolated due to lack of person-to-person contact. But some faculty members are uncomfortable with the use of student-centered and collaborative learning activities because the traditional social structure of the classroom they are used to is changed. Sometimes it is necessary for a faculty developer to make the determination that it will serve no good to force the issue and that a particular faculty member should not teach online. These concerns are voiced in terms of concerns about the quality of distance learning courses, programs and student learning. This is an area where faculty development can usually help a faculty member improve. Faculties who teach online usually design a more student centered and collaborative learning environment with the activities working better than didactic ones.

Conclusions
Over the last decade, faculty access to faculty development personnel trained to assist their online distance education efforts is becoming more prevalent in higher education. Faculty do not have time nor inclination in many cases, to learn new skills and apply new knowledge about teaching philosophy, techniques, and methods for online education without the help of professionals specializing in this area. Some of the major obstacles to online learning from a faculty perspective include acquisition of technical expertise, support, and infrastructure; evaluation and effectiveness; and social interaction and quality. Ensuring online course quality means such things as providing clear goals, expectations, activities and evaluation using various media, assignments, and assessments. Faculty members have found that consulting with faculty development specialists in these and other areas of teaching and learning is helpful in gaining the skills and knowledge they need to improve their performance in the online classroom.

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