Teaching with Hospitality

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Fortunately, hospitality is practiced more than it is preached. A cardinal academic virtue, hospitality is essential in the classroom as well as in relationships with colleagues. This essay looks at why this is so (Bennett, 1998; Bennett, in press.)

Although we seldom speak of hospitality as an academic virtue, many of us do practice it. We sense that it is more than a lingering piety, something inherited from the past whose point and purpose is now obscure. In fact, I suggest, hospitality is a cardinal virtue, an essential requirement for what we are about, however much we may at times ignore or even abuse it.

Hospitality is essential to our calling because without genuine mutual sharing, the interactions that constitute educational activity become thin, impoverished transmissions of data, devoid of the excitement and the full personal impact that mark learning and its advancement. Without genuine openness to others, peer review is hobbled; and the conditions whereby knowledge can be validated, corrected, and expanded are not in place. Without the mutual openness and reciprocity of sharing that are the marks of hospitality, the academy and the classroom become flat and impoverished - reverting to collections or conglomerates of individuals, not communities of learning.

I suggest three ways in which the openness characteristic of hospitality can generate more satisfying teaching and learning. Faithfully practiced, hospitality yields more appreciation for the distinct gifts of the other, whether student or colleague; a greater comfort about the role and burden of being an authority; and more

attention to the special responsibility educators have to others, a responsibility often captured by the concept "trust," and best understood in terms of covenant, not contract.

The Gifts of Others and the Rules of Conversation
The hospitable teacher is genuinely open to the particularity of the other and to the possibility that the other who is learner can also teach. Hospitable teachers work with the students they have-not the ones they might wish for. The particularity of these others-their unique talents and skills, distinctive experiences, and caches of learning-become resources rather than matters of indifference, and certainly not liabilities.

As a result, the various competencies the instructor is attempting to promote take root in the individual's own identity and personal experiences. Learning is not seen as foreign or imposed, but becomes part of who one is. Hospitable teaching empowers and liberates individuals rather than constraining them. When this does not happen, the price includes continued loneliness, isolation, and little self-understanding. In the hands of the hospitable teacher, however, the class is open to the multidirectional flow of discourse that occurs when its members share and augment each other's learning and its implications for who they are and can become.

And hospitable teachers learn from colleagues as well as students. Many communities develop an ethos that works against these hospitable interactions. Jane Tompkins' (1996) recent memoir recounts her struggles in academe with what she sees as a pervasive, destructive emphasis upon personal performance. The burden of her narrative is to question a widespread culture that too often places primary value on "appearing smart" and validates personal worth through what one knows (Astin, 1997).

Contrary to what Tompkins experienced, the hospitable academic setting is one in which each member of the community of learners is a resource for the other. Colleagues are not ignored, standards are not relaxed, and the plurality of viewpoints is engaged for the common good. In addition, the provisional character of knowledge is recognized. That the best of today may be revised and improved tomorrow provides grounds for hope, not a reason for relativism or

nihilistic despair.

An engaging metaphor for this mutual sharing and reciprocity is the "conversation" of the academy. David Tracy (1987) summarizes what it might entail: "Conversation is a game with some hard rules: say only what you mean; say it as accurately as you can; listen to and respect what the other says, however different or other; be willing to correct or defend opinions if challenged by the conversation partner; be willing to argue if necessary, to confront if demanded, to endure necessary conflict, to change your mind if the evidence suggests it" (p. 19). When teachers model this conversation for their students, the best kinds of values, energy, and example are modeled.

The Teacher and Authority
The metaphor of hospitable conversation also says something about authority. Hospitable teachers work at setting to the side their natural preoccupation with issues of authority and control. This is no easy task because in some larger sense the teacher is clearly responsible for the class. Working to assure others, and oneself, that the class is moving toward (rather than away from) the announced goals and learning objectives often means that one simply cannot withdraw from a position of authority.

Yet, attempting to exert authority and control can clearly stand in the way of class learning. Once again, Jane Tompkins' (1996) reflections can illustrate this point. After decades of thinking that she had always been helping students to understand material, she reports her eventual realization that in fact "what I had actually been concerned with was showing the students how smart I was, how knowledgeable I was, and how well prepared I was for class. I had been putting on a performance whose true goal was not to help the students learn. . .but to perform before them in such a way that they would have a good opinion of me" (p. 119).

This preoccupation with performance, as well as the traditional in locus parentis attitude that the professor knows the students' interests best, work against the development of student initiative and autonomy. Comfortable routines and the instructor's convenience can easily trump the good of the student. Resolution is to be found in the hospitality that is open to the other but does not deny anyone's

identity and experience. Hospitable instructors use the strengths of their personality in the service of student learning. This is the middle way between the nondirective presence of one kind of instructor and the rigid authoritarianism or performance orientation of another.

Hospitality and the Covenantal Community
Teachers have a position of trust—a fiduciary responsibility for advancing the welfare and good of the student, not their own good. Being hospitable is another way of speaking of this responsibility. It points us toward, and helps create, the covenantal, not the contractual, community. The covenantal relationship involves committing with others to a common good, promoted through open exchange and reciprocity. Each gives others the right to ask for insight, to provide criticism, and to place a claim upon some of the individual's time. Each accepts obligations to listen, respond and help the other. The greater the diversity of members, the greater (because the richer) the common good-so long as members remain respectful of each other and are committed to advancing the common good through incorporating members' individual gifts.

The model of the covenantal community is often obscured by elements of the social contract, a competing model. The contract sets the limits of the interactions and specifies a narrow set of rights and responsibilities.

Other elements of this contractual view are familiar. Individuals are locked inside themselves, self-absorbed and preoccupied because they are cut off from all but transactional relationships with others. Fear is a primary emotion since others may threaten one's own standing and security. Power is understood and sought as control rather than collaboration since advance by the other is often defeat for the self; and community is but a utilitarian convenience for an aggregation of rugged individualists where the goods of each are simply pooled rather than shared.

The list could be extended, but everything named reflects the notion of self as a substantial entity that has relationships rather than emerging from them. With its emphasis on control, the contractual concept lends itself to an emphasis upon teaching rather than learning.

By contrast, the concept of the covenantal community draws our attention to selves as relational-as constituted by relations with others and as helping to constitute them in turn. Individuals are ends, not simply means; and as ends they can contribute significantly to the experience of others. The covenantal concept directs us to the importance of the learning paradigm (Barr & Tagg, 1995) and its priority over that of teaching. Hence the importance of practicing hospitality-being open to sharing and to receiving, to being host as well as guest to the other.

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Academic Service-Learning: Myths, Chalenges, and Recommendations
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Service-learning is one of the fastest growing reforms in higher education. Led by national organizations including Campus Compact, the National Society for Experiential Education, and the American Association of Higher Education as well as the federal Corporation for National Service, there is a renewed civic spirit on campuses across the country. More than 700 presidents of higher education institutions have agreed to promote community service and service-learning to "develop students' citizenship skills and values, encourage collaborative partnerships between campuses and communities, and assist faculty who seek to integrate service into their teaching and research" (Campus Compact, 1999).

One manifestation of this renewed civic purpose is the role of colleges and universities in the preparation of students for citizenship. When we speak of citizenship, we have a thicker and more robust conceptualization in mind than voting in elections and paying one's taxes, one more adequately captured by "civic participation," "community involvement," and "public work" (Boyt & Farr, 1997; Lappe & DuBoir, 1994). When conceptualized in this way, citizenship involves skills and values that are unevenly developed through familial socialization, are beyond most high school social studies curricula, and necessitate real-world practice and intentional effort for success. For advocates of higher education's civic renewal (Edgerton, 1994; Ehrlich, 1995), not only is it the institution's responsibility to develop students' knowledge, competencies, propensities, and aspirations for personal accomplishment (including the love of learning), but for public achievement too.

One means for developing college students' civic capacity is academic service-learning - a pedagogical model that intentionally integrates academic learning and community-based service (Rhoads & Howard, 1998). There is growing evidence that students in these courses not only develop their civic propensities for public accomplishment, but, equally important, when done well (Eyler, Giles, & Schmiede, 1996), strengthen their academic learning (Markus, Howard, & King, 1993) and higher cognitive skills such as problem solving and critical analysis (Eyler & Giles, 1999).

Myths and Challenges Unfortunately, the rapid expansion of service-learning has been accompanied by a fair amount of confusion reflected in its myths and challenges.

1. **The Myth of Terminology** Though often used interchangeably, "community service" and "service-learning" are not the same. In conventional community service, students are involved in activities for which there is no prescribed learning agenda, such as when sorority members serve with Habitat for Humanity. In "co-curricular" service-learning, students are involved in community activities for which there is an intentional (albeit non-academic) learning agenda, as is often the case in alternative spring break programs sandwiching the students' service between preparatory and de-briefing learning efforts. With academic service-learning, the community service is understood to be one of the "texts" in the course.

The challenge with academic service-learning is to insure that students see that community service has purposes in a course that are different than when performed outside a course.

2. **The Myth of Conceptualization** Academic service-learning and internships are not the same. While it is true that both are forms of experiential learning, they are markedly different. First, at the risk of simplification and generalization, internships privilege learning over service in the community, while academic service-learning insists that service and learning receive equal attention (Honnet-Porter & Poulsen, 1989). Second, the service in internships is driven by the needs of the curriculum; the service in academic service-learning is driven by the learning objectives of the course and the needs in the community. Third, internships prepare students for professional work,

while academic service-learning prepares students for citizenship.

The challenge here is helping faculty to see the distinction between these two teaching-learning models.

3. **The Myth of Synonymy** "Experience" and "learning" are not the same. Community-based experiences require additional work to be transformed into learning (Kolb, 1984). In fact, not only are experiences not necessarily educational, they can be mis-educative (Dewey, 1938), as when students' cultural stereotypes and myopia about structural issues are reinforced by community service experiences.

The challenge here is to develop assignments that transform the community experiences into learning worthy of the academic course with which it is integrated.

4. **The Myth of Marginality** A traditional course with a community service requirement is not the same as academic service-learning. In the former, the service parallels the course, never intentionally intersecting the learning process. In the latter, the service and the learning "inform and transform one another" (Honnet-Porter & Poulsen, 1989). When constructed so, the entire composition and tenor of the course changes.

The challenge here is to help faculty see that the investment of additional time required by academic service-learning pays student learning and faculty teaching dividends.

While these myths reveal a great deal of confusion about academic service-learning, there are in fact three essential elements found in most conceptualizations: 1) students must be involved in service that benefits the community (from the community's perspective), 2) students' academic learning must be enhanced by the participation in the community service, and 3) students must learn citizenship lessons.

Recommendations To achieve these three elements, faculty discover that a new pedagogical map is required. As poetic justice would have it, with academic service-learning, experience and reflection

upon that experience are the best teachers. But I offer the following recommendations to increase the chances for early success:

1. Just as in traditional courses, students' grades are based on the demonstration of learning. 2. Include on the syllabus the rationale for incorporating community service into the course, and share the syllabus with community agencies. 3. Include readings in the course about the role of service-learning in fortifying academic learning and in promoting student civic outcomes, and reserve at least some class discussion time and some assignments to civic issues related to the course. 4. Build relationships with the community agency personnel with whom your students will be working. 5. Insist on field placements which can contribute to the learning objectives of the course. 6. Prepare students for both service and learning roles in the community. 7. Think of the community as a context for both the generation and application of knowledge. 8. Develop assignments that enable students to demonstrate the learning harvested from the community. 9. Shift the student learning paradigm from private and individualized to public and collective to strengthen the social responsibility outcomes of the course. 10. Similarly, shift the instructional paradigm from directive to facilitative to utilize students' community learning on behalf of the entire class' learning.

Conclusion If John Dewey (1916), the early 20th century progressive educator, were alive today, we expect that he would be drawn to academic service-learning, for much of its foundation is derived from his educational and social philosophy: experience is necessary for learning; learning is for the purpose of some end beyond itself; thinking and acting are connected by reflection; democracy requires active participation by an engaged citizenry; associating with different others leads not only to learning but to having a broader view and breaking down divisions between people; and, democracy and community life are synonymous (Dewey, 1938; Giles & Eyler, 1994).

How will we know when academic service-learning has fulfilled its promise? That will be when recent college graduates answer the question"What do you plan to be doing in five years?" not only with a personal aspiration (e.g. "working as an engineer"), but also with a public aspiration (e.g "working to improve race relations in my

community"). With the excitement surrounding academic service-learning today, that time is not far off.

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Teaching in Action: Multicultural Education as the Highest Form of Understanding

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When we think about and discuss multicultural teaching and the infusion of new content, it is not uncommon for professors to ask, "What do you mean? My course is culturally neutral" or "That's more applicable in teaching history, but how can I do this in my biology class?" Clearly higher education needs to serve an increasingly socially and culturally diverse student body-a population divided by race, class, culture, age, gender, ethnicity, religion, sexual identity, and learning and physical abilities. However, we are not yet thinking deeply enough about how these changes will affect what we teach in the classroom and how we teach it.

Our traditional approaches and structures are challenged to keep up with changing demands and expectations. Teaching from a multicultural perspective is more than a classroom of students who vary according to their social and cultural characteristics. It involves a critical analysis of the overall goals of the scholarship in our disciplines as they relate to multicultural education. Guiding questions might be: Is it a goal of my course to help students value diversity and equity? To help students acquire a more comprehensive knowledge of the course content? To prepare all students to work in a global society? Answering these questions

necessitates an examination of course content including course materials, textbooks, handouts, activities, assignments, learning style differences, and the sources of knowledge that we tend to emphasize.

Multicultural scholars argue that knowledge reflects the social and cultural positions of people of power and that it is valid only when we acknowledge the sources of knowledge in any context, one that is defined by gender or class (Tetreault, 1993). Multicultural feminists argue that knowledge is both subjective and objective and that the subjective aspects need to be better defined (Hooks, 1990; King & Mitchell, 1990). Multicultural theorists also posit that by claiming knowledge as objective and neutral we are influenced to present particular interests and ideologies as universal ways of thought and knowing (Asante, 1991; Hilliard et al., 1990). In working to arrive at a conceptualization of how to teach from a multicultural perspective, researchers offer several approaches to curriculum reform (Banks, 1993; Green, 1989; Schoem, et al. 1993; Ognibene, 1989; Jackson & Holvino, 1988).

Many describe such change in terms of levels rather than a static outcome, and reviewing the curricular change process can help us achieve a greater degree of understanding and practice of multicultural teaching. Let's look at an adaptation of Banks (1993) as an example. While these levels are not ranked hierarchically, nor do they necessarily follow a linear progression, they do reflect ever deepening multicultural understanding.

The "Contributions Approach" Courses tend to focus on the contributions of people of color, holidays, and cultural elements to the discipline. When these contributions are presented in courses, it tends to be in stereotypical ways. For example, the contributions of African Americans to history are celebrated only in February, Black History Month, and the contributions of Hispanic Americans are celebrated only in May, Cinco de Mayo.

The "Additive Approach" Courses tend to add the contributions of scholars of color without changing the structure of the curriculum. For example, an English Literature course might add Alice Walker's book The Color Purple or Shakespeare's Othello to the class reading list without changing the course structure. These works are rarely

presented so as to offer alternative conceptualizations.

A reconceptualization of course content not only offers students from socially and culturally diverse communities an opportunity to feel a sense of belonging in the subject of study. It enables all students the opportunity to broaden their perspectives and ways of knowing about the course content.

The "Transformation Approach" Courses and curricula are changed so students' thinking is stretched to view contributions, events, issues, and course concepts from the perspective of members of targeted groups. For example, a lecture on World War II might describe the contributions and the meaning of the war to African Americans and the role played by the Tuskegee Airmen. A general biology or zoology course might address AIDS and discuss the impact and effect of the disease on various communities such as women; gay, lesbian, and bisexual individuals; African Americans; and other populations and regions.

The "Social Action Approach" Students are empowered to make decisions on important personal, social, and civic problems and take action to help solve them. For example, a class in Higher Education Law might ask students to study the effect of institutional discrimination practices and develop an action plan to improve practices at their institution. A curriculum is reviewed to incorporate new scholarship, methodologies, ways of thinking, and ways of thinking and learning in the discipline.

Multicultural Teaching in Action There is no doubt that the transformation and social action approaches achieve a high level of multicultural understanding and teaching practice. If our goal is to prepare students to live and work in a global society, then the social action approach affords the opportunity to move courses beyond structural changes. Students practice the decision-making skills necessary to function as effective and informed change agents.

Stretching our current practice requires considerable planning, experimentation, and risk-taking. This is an ongoing, learning process. It might be easier to implement the "Additive Approach", but this approach puts students and instructors at a disadvantage.

While students receive an understanding of some nontraditional ways of thinking about the course content, they are perceived as "add-ons," not as important as other course material. Also, this is often the content that gets eliminated when an instructor is pressed for time. The action oriented approach challenges traditional assumptions about the construction of knowledge in our disciplines, and it encourages new ways of thinking. We are restructuring the classroom so that the teaching and learning process is reciprocal, within, of course, the limits of responsibility and reality.

It is often argued that the action oriented approach applies more readily to disciplines in which the knowledge is socially constructed, where experts select the content, generally based on tradition, politics, and power, e.g., history, literature, sociology, education, psychology, and the arts. However, in the sciences, instructors can stretch even further to look at course content from a social-action perspective. There are many appropriate unresolved issues in the sciences in which students can be involved and exert an influence - such as health and environmental areas.

Even if we succeed in transforming only a small part of our courses and curricula, we cannot help but instill in our students the value of diversity in teaching and learning and of the contributions made by societies and cultures similar to and different from our own. Teaching from a multicultural perspective does not imply dilution of course content, nor does it require a critical analysis of every topic from a multitude of perspectives. Rather, it may take the form of a discussion or lecture that critically examines a theme or a particular issue from multiple points of view, meaningfully incorporated into the course. Our students are untapped wells of information in this area. Those who grew up in other cultures and other countries, for example, can share their experiences and perspectives when ideas, concepts, and paradigms are presented.

Typically, many faculty teach the way that they were taught. Multicultural teaching affords us an opportunity to broaden our assumptions about teaching and learning. We can work to develop a repertoire of diverse teaching strategies to expand our traditional approaches.

For those of us who are getting started in multicultural teaching or are building on our knowledge in this area, one of the greatest challenges is finding resources and individuals to guide us in our work in this endeavor.

Many faculty are relying on teaching and learning centers to help them with course and curriculum design and the identification of resource materials. Some centers have a multicultural teaching and learning mission. Institutional centers such as those at The Ohio State University, The University of Massachusetts, Amherst, and the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor are well prepared to assist faculty in preparing students to work in a diverse society.

Conclusion Multicultural teaching is excellence in teaching. It is not so much a dialogue of whether we can get there or not, but rather a willingness to learn more about ourselves as instructors, our students, what we teach, and how we teach it so that we can provide the highest form of education possible for all students.

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Classroom Asessment: Guidelines for Success

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If you've ever wondered, as a class ended, how well your students really understood that day's material, then you'll understand the impetus behind Classroom Assessment. If you've ever been unhappily surprised by students' performance on a midterm, final, or major assignment, then you'll understand the need for Classroom Assessment. And if you'd like to benefit from lessons learned since 1986, by practitioners and researchers, on how to use Classroom Assessment to improve teaching and learning, then you may find this essay useful.

What is Classroom Assessment? Researchers have long known that both students and teachers need clear, timely, and focused feedback to improve performance. Classroom Assessment is a simple method - and a toolbox full of techniques - which faculty use to collect such feedback, early and often, on how well students are learning. Its purpose is to provide faculty and students with information and insights needed to improve teaching effectiveness and learning quality. Faculty use feedback gleaned through Classroom Assessment Techniques (CATs) to inform changes in their teaching. Faculty also share feedback from CATs with students to help them improve their learning and study strategies. Since 1986, when K. Patricia Cross and I first introduced Classroom Assessment, this practical feedback method has been employed by tens of thousands of college teachers in the United States and abroad.

The "Minute Paper" is one of the simplest, most widely used CATs,

and a good example of the method. Attributed to Dr. Charles Schwartz, a physics professor at UC Berkeley, the Minute Paper has, been adapted and used since the mid-1980s in virtually every discipline. The Minute Paper asks students to respond anonymously to some variant of these two questions: (1) What are the 2-3 most important things you learned in class today? And (2) What questions remain uppermost in your mind? The "Muddiest Point," a variation on the Minute Paper developed by Professor Frederick Mosteller of Harvard, elicits useful feedback with just one question: "What was the muddiest point in today's lecture?" - or in today's discussion, lab, reading, quiz, or other learning activity.

By quickly scanning and summarizing responses to the CAT, the teacher can make well-targeted adjustments to the next class, recognize and capitalize on what students have learned well (or not learned)), and clear up questions that might impede further learning. We've learned that Classroom Assessment is most effective when teachers: (1) explain why they are asking these questions, (2) share a summary of responses with students, and (3) discuss how they and the students can make best use of the feedback. Letting students in on the process helps promote active engagement, participation, and more reflective learning.

At first glance, faculty sometimes confuse Classroom Assessment Techniques (CATs) with the questions we ask in class, with tests and quizzes, or with familiar teaching techniques. Most teachers ask questions to check understanding. And most of us have noticed that typically only a small, not very representative percentage of students volunteers to answer. CATs, by contrast, elicit anonymous responses, usually in writing, from all or nearly all of the students. Unlike quizzes and tests, CATs are for quickly assessing the whole group's learning, not for evaluating the work of individual students to assign grades. And while all faculty use teaching techniques, whether they know it or not, some faculty go a step further, using CATs to find out how well those techniques are promoting learning.

Since the late 1980s, several researchers have studied the effects and effectiveness of using Classroom Assessment Techniques in college and university classrooms. From these studies, which involved observations, interviews, focus groups, survey questionnaires, and/or

document analysis, several clear trends have emerged. Below, I'll summarize key lessons and guidelines from that research and, in particular, from an extensive study of faculty and student attitudes about the use of CATs carried out by Mimi Harris Steadman (1998).

What's in it for students? Across many different studies, the great majority of students whose teachers employed CATs describe the process as advantageous. These students see CATs as evidence that instructors are interested in and responsive to their concerns and suggestions. They report feeling more involved, engaged, and interested in class. They tend to rate teachers who use CATs as more effective than those who don't. And some students feel that CATs help them learn how to learn - as well as to learn course content.

Surprisingly, students rarely identify any disadvantages in using CATs. The few negative comments tend to focus on faculty who either do not respond or respond defensively to feedback, or on the fact that CATs "force" passive students to participate actively. On the whole, it appears that students both value and benefit from the effective use of Classroom Assessment.

What's in it for teachers? Since most faculty who use Classroom Assessment do so voluntarily, it is perhaps less surprising that they tend to see its benefits as far outweighing its costs. The advantage teachers most often note is that CATs provide a quick and easy way to monitor what and how their students are learning. They also mention the importance of gaining tools and data to reflect on and improve their teaching. Teachers believe that this simple assessment and feedback method raises student involvement and learning quality. Those who share their Classroom Assessment experiences and data with other teachers are the most enthusiastic. Faculty, like students, report few disadvantages. However, some note the amount of time CATs require and the challenges posed by negative feedback. Overall, like their students, most faculty who use Classroom Assessment are convinced it benefits teachers and learners. Both teachers and learners recognize intrinsic (more satisfaction and learning) and extrinsic (higher grades and student evaluations) motivators for using CATs.

This suggests that both groups see this as a way of "doing well by

doing good."

Getting Started Successfully One way to get started is to borrow and skim through a copy of *Classroom Assessment Techniques: A Handbook for College Teachers*, a how-to resource for faculty. It contains 50 different CATs, examples and case studies from many disciplines, guidelines for success, as well as information on the theory and research behind the method.

In the last decade, several other books, articles, and dissertations have been published on Classroom Assessment, and a growing number of websites, particularly those of teaching and learning centers, offer useful information on CATs. After fifteen years of working with faculty, we've learned that it's wise to start small, to limit risk-taking and time invested initially, and to share ideas and outcomes with colleagues. The most satisfied and successful Classroom Assessors are those who belong to face-to-face (or virtual) "learning communities" of teachers interested in improving their practice and their students' learning.

Seven Guidelines for Success The list that follows is based on recommendations from hundreds of experienced Classroom Assessors.

- Don't ask if you don't want to know. Don't ask for feedback on things you can't or won't change.
- Don't collect more feedback than you can analyze and respond to by the next class meeting.
- Don't simply adopt assessment techniques from others; adapt them to your own subject and students.
- Before you use a CAT, ask yourself: How might responses to this question(s) help me and my students improve? If you can't answer that question, don't do the assessment.
- Take advantage of the "Hawthorne Effect." If students know that you're using CATs to promote involvement, they're likely to be more involved. Alternately, if you explain that you are using it to promote more reflection and metacognition, you're likely to get just that.
- Teach students how to give useful feedback. If a CAT is worth doing, it's worth showing students how.

- Make sure to "close the feedback loop" by letting students know what you've gleaned from their responses and how you and they can use that information to improve learning.

From Classroom Assessment to Classroom Research
Classroom Assessment is one method of inquiry within the larger framework of Classroom Research - systematic, ongoing, scholarly inquiry into student learning by faculty. As such, Classroom Assessment serves many teachers as a natural introduction to the scholarship of teaching and learning.

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Emotion in the Classroom

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Students come to our classes knowing things. Cognitive psychology has long maintained that what we know plays a vital role in the learning of new information (Bartlett, 1958). Therefore, as teachers, or as learning coaches, many of us tailor our curriculum goals to what students already know.

In this essay, however, I suggest that a vital aspect of the learning process - the power of emotion -- is either ignored or relegated to a minor, or worse, a pandering status. Psychology has provided a wealth of insight into how students learn. Yet almost no attention is given to why students learn. I believe that the "why" of learning is profoundly influenced by emotion.

Human Motivation Why are you reading this essay? Is it perhaps because you might gain insight into better ways to teach? But, why should you be interested in that? Perhaps because students are likely to learn more. Why is that important? We might say it is important to create a better society or that knowledge leads to success. But why is that important? Why is it more important to know than not know? Why is it important to be successful or peaceful or loving or empathetic or any of the values that we might hold?

I am suggesting that ultimately there is no rational basis for any preference and that the fundamental basis for behavior is emotion.

Why we choose the goals we do is a different question than how we go about accomplishing those goals. Clearly we are "meaning-

seeking missiles" and "informavores" (Dennett, 1991). We are processors of information, but without his "emotion chip", the character Data on *Star Trek: The Next Generation* would have no reason to do anything. Rationality is clearly involved in making choices, but there must be motivation to choose.

Emotion and Learning The exact relationship between emotion and cognition has been the subject of intense debate. There is general agreement, however, that emotions do have measurable effects on learning, memory, problem solving, and creative thinking (Isen, 1999). Let's consider how emotions affect these activities.

*Emotion as Core:*The classroom is a complicated, rich combination of information processing and emotional responding. In the classroom emotion can act as a cuing source for later retrieval, as an evoker of emotional-laden information, and as a portal to higher cognitive functions. Recent research suggests that dreaming (typically associated with REM sleep) helps to consolidate the learning of new information (Braun, et al., 1998). Emotional filtering, or labeling, of information and integrated learning seems to be very basic in human cognitive processing.

Emotion and Memory: How information is encoded has a strong effect on its later retrieval (Tulving & Thomson, 1973). Attempts to recall information can actually be enhanced when one's emotional state matches the emotional state experienced when the information was originally learned (Baddeley, 1989; Bower, 1983). Thus, with mood-dependent memory, memory is enhanced when the mood state is similar at learning and test.

Mood has also been shown to influence the retrieval of mood-laden stimuli (Teasdale & Russell, 1983). With mood-congruence, the person's mood can bias memory. Information with the same mood connotation as that currently experienced by the learner is more readily accessed than when the mood connotation of the information does not happen to match the person's mood at retrieval. As an extreme example, depression involves an emotion-cognition cycle. Being in a depressed state tends to produce thoughts that are negative, which in turn increases negative affect, thus producing more negative thoughts.

Emotion and Thinking Alice Isen and colleagues (Isen, 1990; Isen, D. Daubman & Nowicki, 1987) have shown convincingly that positive affect enhances a variety of problem-solving related cognitive activities and that negative affect can actually inhibit those processes. Positive affect appears to increase learning by engaging higher brain mechanisms that enrich and activate mental schemas, consolidate long-term memories, and enhance one's ability to make diverse associations (a cognitive activity critical in creative problem solving).

In contrast, negative emotions associated with, for instance, fear, sadness, anxiety, and depression all appear to inhibit higher cognitive functions (Isen, 1985). The perception of threat is especially deleterious. Perceived threat induces a "fight or flight" response such that higher brain functions are suppressed and escape mechanisms invoked. Thus, in a negative classroom setting, students may distance themselves from the learning task and focus on avoidance behaviors associated with fear of failure, shame, and task uncertainty. Stated simply, students who feel good about being in class will perform better.

Emotion as Motivator Why should students go about the business of learning? I believe that the most potent answer to that question lies in our own emotional display. As learning coaches, we are in the position of conveying the why of learning by modeling enthusiasm for the material. Fostering a positive classroom climate is clearly fundamental (Bennett, 2000); students should feel safe and accepted. Beyond that, however, our own emotional displays act as direct indicators that the material is worth knowing. When I display positive affect, convey personal interest, show that I care about what I am teaching and care about students' learning, students are much more likely to entrain those same attitudes. I caution that enthusiasm per se is not what is being recommended. In fact, the literature on faculty effectiveness shows that general enthusiasm is not related to student learning; enthusiasm for the material being taught and positive regard toward students does increase student learning (Cohen, 1981; McKeachie, 1986).

Hatfield, Cacioppo, and Rapson (1993). have shown that people are very sensitive to the emotional states of others and, more importantly,

that emotions are "contagious". It is important to note that people often do not realize that they are projecting and/or responding to subtle emotional cues. As learning coaches, it is thus imperative that we be explicitly aware of the emotional messages we are conveying. In doing so we are in a better position to modify unintentionally negative emotional displays and project those displays that will motivate our students.

Monitoring our own emotional state is not enough. We must monitor the emotional state of our students as well. Facial, vocal, postural, and movement kinematics give us clues into the emotional state of our students. Because we tend to "catch" the emotional states of others around us, we can help our students to reappraise their negative emotional states by using our own facial, vocal, and postural state to convey positive affect (Fredrickson, 1998; 2000). The only way to intervene, however, is to pay attention to emotional clues in ourselves and in our students.

Conclusion My central message in this essay is really very simple. Emotion is the prime mover in human behavior and thus should be dealt with explicitly in our classroom. The data clearly show that emotion is involved in learning, and that positive affect enhances learning and memory. Other data show that emotional states are contagious. Although there are individual differences in capacity to deal with emotions, both in ourselves and in others, attention to the emotional aspects of teaching and learning can reap great benefits, not the least of which is helping to foster a life-long love of learning.

Therefore, I suggest that we should use everything at our disposal to enhance student learning. The simplest and most direct way to address the fundamental question of motivation is to model positive affect and in that way "infect" our students. To do so not only conveys that the information is worth knowing, but that learning per se is a positive activity.

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Exploring Student Expectations

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For several years we have worked with faculty members to explore what they need to know about students in order to empower them as learners and what students need to know to become self-regulating scholars. By "self-regulating scholars" we mean students who pursue academic goals as active learners and diligent inquirers. The move toward active learning and to assigning students greater responsibility for their learning may often, however, be at odds with their expectations. Why would students accept new and more onerous roles without explanation, encouragement, and assistance when they have previously been successful using traditional approaches to learning? Working with faculty to clarify their expectations and those of their students and exploring how to guide students to become more self-directed thus seem to us important steps toward supporting effective learning in the classroom. We have invited faculty members to discuss a series of questions in a structured inquiry format. They rarely have the opportunity to test the myths and legends that have grown up around student attitudes, or to examine their own. Clarifying the distance between where students are and where faculty would like them to be has led our participants to practical suggestions about how better to convey their goals to students. Here we would like to share some of the most common observations and suggestions of our workshop participants.

We begin by asking if participants think their students arrive with clear goals.

The consensus in our workshops is that, while some students come to college with clear career goals, many do not. Instead they harbor broad and general aspirations such as finding a life or narrower personal goals such as getting good grades, landing a well-paying job, or finding a special person. One faculty member said the dominant student aim at her institution was to obtain a pre-wealth degree. Few students articulate goals that display intellectual drive, the willingness to indulge in inquiry for its own sake that we associate with scholarship. Learning for these students is not an end in itself. These sample faculty observations match evidence from studies on reasons for attending college (Astin, 1998; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). While disconcerting, they are consistent.

Given such broad aims, students could be expected to define their role as students equally broadly. Yet faculty perceive more focus here. For the career oriented, footpaths to the future are clearly laid out. For others, the dominant role is to be present, although passive, in class. Such passivity may reflect their developmental stage as dualists - assuming that knowledge is absolute (Baxter Magolda, 1992; Perry, 1970) and expecting to acquire that knowledge from their teachers. They do not expect to read or inquire on their own. One faculty member characterized them as hoop jumpers although they may challenge or question their teachers. Faculty see their students for the most part as not inclined to become active, responsible learners.

With the perceptions of students' goals and roles clearly articulated, we then invite faculty to discuss what this means for the roles students assign to them.

Faculty perceptions of their students' expectations of them correspond with students' roles and have little to do with promoting independent inquiry. Faculty report that students see them as supplying a service that students consume. Some faculty suggest that they are expected to act in loco parentis and that they are under pressure to become de facto social workers since so many students have problems. Other faculty roles have political implications - students perceive them to be gatekeepers and task masters, in both instances oppressive authorities.

More positive perceptions are that they may be assigned the role of teaching students how to learn and of instigating learning outside of class. Yet nowhere in the suggested faculty roles have we heard mention of modeling scholarship or introducing students to their discipline.

We therefore ask the faculty members to trade experiences about student behavior - what is going on in their lives.

Some things have changed from when faculty were students. E-mail is endemic. Three o'clock in the morning is the peak library call-in time in one university. In another, 80 percent of students work more than 20 hours per week, and students often commute up to three hours a day. The vision is of just-in-time learning, and students' time is consumed by crises. One participant commented that students must choose among school, work, sleep, and social life but have time for only two of the three. This image of students is far from the scholarly life of devotion to studies.

We therefore ask participants to discuss how students should be spending their time and what they tell students about time management.

Faculty say that some things have not changed. Students still need to spend two hours out of class studying for each hour in class. Our workshop participants recognized their responsibility to explain to students how much reading time was needed for assignments, and they suggested the need to inquire of their peers how many assignments students were being given in other courses. One participant described inviting students to estimate the time per week required for a grade of A, B, or C, so that they could plan accordingly. It was also deemed important to tell students that their time should not all be spent studying but also on socializing and maintaining physical health. The final suggestion was to tell students that they will have to make choices.

We then invite faculty members to discuss how to promote a community of learners.

We witnessed two lines of thought in discussion about how to

develop a learning community. The first focused on students. The primary point was that the more time we spend allowing students to get to know us, the more readily and easily they will participate as active learners in their education.

The second line of thought concerned what we should be doing as members of our scholarly community. Checking across courses for competing demands and establishing the feasibility of fulfilling the curriculum, then setting guidelines is one major recommendation. Faculty mentoring across or within departments, usually extending over two years, was suggested to aid faculty in dealing with their roles. One person suggested that a question in teaching evaluations to faculty might read: "What have you done that has changed the teaching of someone else?" Participants noted that attempts to create a learning community were constrained by a zero sum merit pay system where faculty compete with each other.

The emphasis placed on what needs to be done within the academy to create a learning community suggests that the point of leverage lies among us as faculty.

We then return to the question of what we need to let students know to become self-regulating scholars.

The chief finding is that most students do not see learning as transforming. They expect to graduate as the same person, only with more knowledge. Faculty made several recommendations for dealing with this attitude. The first was to help students specify their goals and to understand that postsecondary learning is a transformative experience, that is, that they can expect to change in many ways while in college. A more direct approach was to ask students the question: "What can you do to improve your own learning?" There was a consensus that assessment must match course content since the evaluation of learning determines or limits students' learning goals. Participants suggested introducing students to Bloom's (1956) taxonomy or Perry's (1981) scheme of academic development, and then showing them the study skills such development requires. Empathic advising and creating a situation where students know from the first day that they will be teaching each other set the scene for empowering students as learners.

Conclusion Our exploration of faculty perceptions about students has opened a realm of discussion that faculty tell us they have not experienced before. As faculty members, we rarely take the time to study the context within which we must operate, yet we must create a context that will allow us to succeed. This exploration is a beginning point for determining the relationship of the many factors that affect how we work and how we will be able to get our message across.

The central point that has emerged is the need to clarify expectations of both faculty and students and for faculty to present a rationale for the kind of learning they expect students to undertake. This may seem obvious. Yet the evidence of our participants is that it all too seldom happens. If faculty explain their goals and explain why they are asking students to assume more responsibility for their learning than they may have taken in the past, and then show them how to assume this responsibility, we may achieve more than we thought possible. This insight into the learning context may be the most important teaching we do.

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Integrating Learning Strategies into Teaching

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"Not another thing you want me to add to my teaching! I am already trying to stuff ten pounds of content into a five pound class period."

This is often the response I receive when I talk with faculty about the need to teach students the learning strategies that can best help them learn the skills and content of their courses. I have to say that I understand the concern—education is known to have its "fads". However, helping students develop the learning strategies that best fit a specific content will result in more effective and efficient teaching and learning. As Nobel laureate Herbert Simon (1996) wisely stated, the meaning of "knowing" has shifted from being able to remember and repeat information to being able to find and use it. The goal of education is better conceived as helping students develop the intellectual tools and learning strategies needed to acquire the knowledge necessary to think productively.

Yet a great deal of our time and energy goes into the preparation of class and course content. Since the goal of any class is for students to learn the material, factors which impede that learning serve only to diminish the efforts of the instructor. The degree to which students learn the course content and/or skills depends a great deal on their repertoire of learning behaviors. If our students do not understand the learning process, they are not going to learn very much in our courses no matter what we do (Gardiner, 1996).

Importance of Learning Strategies Many students behave like what my college mentor fondly referred to as "one trick ponies." They have a strategy or two (trying to memorize everything being the most common strategy); and, if that strategy does not work or is inefficient, they have nothing else in their repertoire. If instructors teach students learning strategies that best fit the structure of the knowledge of course content, they are creating a win-win situation. Their preparation and delivery efforts are better rewarded because more students are able to learn the course material, which is the goal of teaching. The students win because their learning becomes more efficient and effective, often resulting in greater academic success and a larger repertoire of learning strategies to use elsewhere.

Seven Questions for Ourselves The process of integrating learning strategies into content teaching begins with deciding what kinds of thinking, learning, and studying students need to do to be successful in a particular course. This process takes place before the course begins and can be accomplished by answering the seven questions listed below. Each question is designed to assist instructors in determining what strategies are needed for students to learn the course content. Once an instructor answers these important questions, it is a relative easy task to pick an appropriate strategy, such as a note taking method or using summary writing as a comprehension tool, and to show students how to use it. Academic support persons are also available and often able to help with this process.

So, as we prepare for our classes and give thought to enhancing student learning, asking and answering the following questions can help us..

Question #1 - Prior Knowledge (three parts): What background information do my students need to be prepared for my course? How can I best assess their background knowledge? And what resources are available to help students that need background enhancement? The process begins with these questions because the contemporary view of learning is that learners construct new knowledge and understanding based on what they already know and believe (Cobb, 1994).

By letting students know what prior knowledge you are assuming they already have and by suggesting ways to review or fill in missing knowledge, you are increasing the likelihood for learning. In addition, by assessing students' prior knowledge with a background questionnaire, a pre-test, or other method (Angelo & Cross, 1993), you are taking a learner centered approach to your teaching (National Research Council, 1999). If you know what they know, you are much better able to connect the course content to their prior knowledge.

Question #2 - Levels of Thinking: What cognitive level do my students need to operate at in order to be successful in my course? This question invites the instructor to think about the levels of thinking students need to learn the course material. If much of the course is just factual learning, then students will probably need little assistance. If, however, students will be required to apply, evaluate, or synthesize information, then teaching them ways to do this may be vital to their learning success.

Question #3 - Thinking Skills: What types of thinking skills and strategies do my students need to use to be successful in my course? If an instructor expects students to be able to summarize, use mind maps, or use a specific problem solving system, these may all need to be taught. An instructor needs to determine what strategies students will need and whether or not most students will have these strategies when they enroll in the course. If these strategies are important to the students' ability to learn the course content, then showing them how to use these strategies is a needed step toward reaching the goal of student learning.

Question #4 - Research Skills: What information gathering skills do my students need to be successful in my course? It is not safe to assume all students know how to use search engines or databases. If you are going to assume that all students have these skills, you need to indicate that and give resources for students to review or learn these skills if they do not have them. Otherwise, include information-gathering skills as part of what you will show the students how to do when you make assignments that require these skills.

Question #5 - Repair Strategies: What types of fix-up strategies do

my students need to be successful in my course? Fix-up strategies are learning behaviors that help students to know what to do when they do not understand something. Students' ability to know that they do not understand is a metacognitive skill, meaning that they are aware of the learning strategies available to them and have the ability to monitor the effectiveness of each strategy (Brown, 1987). These metacognitive skills help students determine when to switch from one strategy to another or even when to stop and ask for help. If the course content is difficult and presents many situations where students may get lost or not understand, it may be necessary to teach them the steps to take, the questions to ask, and the resources to use that can lead to understanding. This situation is common in math, the sciences, and other numbers-based courses such as economics and statistics,

As experts in our content areas we rarely need fix-up strategies. It is easy to forget that our students are novices and may not know what to do when they get lost or fail to understand.

Question #6 - Study Skills: What study skills do my students need to be successful in my course? Will they need to organize large amounts of information, summarize information, use rote memory techniques, or prepare for essay exams? Assisting students in developing study strategies which fit the type of testing (or other forms of assessment) used in the course and which reflect the amount and nature of the information that must be learned will go a long way to promoting academic success.

Question #7 - Learning Strategies: What types of learning strategies do my students need? Will they need to collaborate with others in small or large groups? Will students need to listen, maintain their attention for long periods of time, or take extensive notes? Students often need to be shown how to learn in class, how to work effectively in a group, how to engage in a discussion or debate, how to take notes, or even how to ask questions. Do not simply assume students know how to learn in your class.

Conclusion Students will benefit from our assistance in helping them expand their learning strategies. As we do so, it is important to remember that their failure to engage actively in the learning process

might be attributed to their not knowing how to learn or feeling uncomfortable in the learning environment Consequently, It might not have to do with their being lazy or unprepared.

Having thought about these seven questions, you will find yourself much better prepared to focus students on the important strategies that can really aid learning.

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Cooperative Learning: May the Circle be Unbroken

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Cooperative learning, a highly structured form of collaborative student learning, began in the lower grades. In 1989/1990, Robert Slavin wrote a guest editorial in a well-respected journal questioning whether or not cooperative learning had staying power. His audience, K-12 teachers and administrators, was familiar not only with cooperative learning but also with the "hype" that had accompanied it. Slavin expressed two concerns: (1) that inexperienced, well-meaning teachers might undercut the cooperative learning movement by ill-structured applications; and, (2) that cooperative learning might be "oversold" and "undertrained" (p. 3).

In the past decade, the cooperative learning movement has gradually spread to the higher education arena, and Slavin's concerns have in general been laid to rest. For example, a 1995 faculty survey conducted by the Higher Education Research Institute at the University of California at Los Angeles indicated that, aside from lecture, topping the list of teaching methods used in all or most courses was "cooperative learning" showing a 9% increase from 1989 to 1995, followed by "group projects" with a 7% increase (Magner, 1996).] In the new millennium, cooperative learning has become a staple of many teaching conferences and faculty development efforts.

Here to Stay Here are just a few of the reasons for cooperative learning's staying power.

* The established research base of cooperative learning -- much of it now at the higher education level --gives even skeptical faculty compelling reasons to adapt its structured approach. Cuseo (1992) finds cooperative learning to be "the most researched and empirically well-documented form of collaborative learning in terms of its positive impact on multiple outcome measures" (p. 3). Such outcomes include not only increased academic achievement, but also affective outcomes important to most faculty: increased self-esteem, more harmony in multi-ethnic classrooms, higher attendance, and greater liking for the subject matter. A highly respected meta-analysis examines cooperative learning's positive impact in science courses (Springer, Stanne, & Donovan, 1998). Another work examines its specific effects on critical and creative thinking, reasoning and problem-solving skills (Davidson & Worsham, 1992). Support for cooperative learning emerges from virtually all areas of educational research. For example, Astin's (1993) comprehensive longitudinal study of the impact of college on undergraduate students determined the significance of two factors in particular -- student-student interaction and student-faculty interaction -- both of which are also important attributes of cooperative classrooms. He declares: "Classroom research has consistently shown that cooperative learning approaches produce outcomes that are superior to those obtained through traditional competitive approaches . . ."(p. 425-427). Competitive approaches often lack the purpose and structure of cooperative learning.

* Thus, adopting a structured, cooperative approach offers faculty members both the philosophical approach and the specific tools to transform their teaching. The philosophy is a constructivist theory of learning that places the responsibility for students' learning on the students themselves. Students, however, are not left to flounder: they receive support from their teachers and from their peers. The tools are carefully delineated "structures" -- the empty shells that faculty can fill with their discipline-specific course content. Structures include a wide variety of activities suitable for different objectives. For example, a roundtable activity where student teams of 4-5 add ideas to a rotating paper as they say them aloud, provides a structured brainstorming technique.

Additionally, books such as those by Johnson, Johnson, and Smith

(1991) and Millis and Cottell (1998) offer proven classroom management techniques and a host of other practical ideas. Because of cooperative learning's highly structured nature, faculty therefore do not need to reinvent the cooperative wheel. Cooperative learning offers a systematic, student-centered approach to instruction without putting anyone into a pedagogical strait jacket. Lecturing and other approaches thus complement the cooperative principles.

* The key principles of cooperative learning provide both structure and flexibility. These principles are individual accountability (no undifferentiated group grades); positive interdependence (students have valid reasons to work together); and attention to group processes and productive social skills, including listening and providing feedback. Cooperative learning meshes with virtually every well-respected pedagogical approach. Cases, for example, can be adapted to a cooperative format (Millis, 1994). Approaches such as the double-entry-journal, popularized by the writing-across-the-curriculum movement, can be modified to include peer sharing and coaching as students read and discuss one another's products. Classroom assessment, problem-based learning, and academic games can all be enhanced through a cooperative approach. Technology and cooperative learning are natural partners, thanks to e-mail, web-based teaching, and collaborative software packages such as Lotus Notes or Blackboard. Not surprisingly, virtual team performance requires many of the attributes of well-conducted classroom cooperative learning: attention to planning, executing, and rewarding the tasks and care in structuring individual accountability and mutual interdependence.

Not a Fad Cooperative learning is not a fad because it satisfies the deepest longings of teachers. It allows us to be student-centered without abrogating the responsibility of shaping a class based on our experience and expertise. It provides us with the tools to structure activities that maximize learning. It helps us foster not only learning, but also a host of other positive outcomes such as increased self-esteem, respect for others, and civility. It can transform our large, diverse lecture classes into a community of supportive teams. Cooperative learning satisfies a human desire for connection and cooperation. In addition to keeping students energized and awake, it gives them the support to tackle complex tasks impossible to

complete alone. It also gives them essential social and communication skills needed for success in the workplace. Finally, for both teachers and students, cooperation makes learning fun.

For some, cooperative learning can have a transformational impact. Davidson (2000), a former President of the International Association for the Study of Cooperation in Education, began using cooperative learning over 30 years ago with the specific question, "Will it work in my math classes?" During a recent presentation, he offered a later vision, one that experienced cooperative practitioners often share: "We know the skills -- teamwork, problem-solving, and conflict resolution -- that create ideal citizens in a democratic society. How can I be certain that these transferable skills are modeled, practiced, and reinforced for the greater good of society?"

Garth (1999) in some recent reflections on his groundbreaking, Learning in Groups, agrees that cooperative learning is still on the "upswing." He concludes with these eloquent words: "With a possible convergence of nonlecture teaching approaches, collaborative and cooperative learning may appear less frequently on sign posts of beautiful but narrow roadways and more often as fellow travelers in a broad-bandwidth world leading toward enhanced learning" (p. 60).

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