

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

Andrea M. Rye for the degree of Doctor of Education in Education presented on December 4, 1997. Title: The Impact of Teaching in Coordinated Studies Programs on Personal, Social, and Professional Development of Community College Faculty.

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This study investigated the impact of team-teaching in coordinated-studies programs (CSPs) on community college faculty in three instructional development domains: personal, social, and professional. Grounded in a social-constructivist theoretical framework, this research examined whether development occurs best experientially, in collaborative communities of knowledgeable peers. CSPs are team-taught interdisciplinary, problem-solving enterprises involving two or more disciplines. Faculty control content and structure, and build relationships in subjects while focusing on a central theme, societal issue, or problem.

Reform initiatives addressing community college instructional quality and institutional effectiveness have commanded national attention, contributing to an increase in faculty development programs. In spite of heightened emphasis, there is little evidence of program effectiveness. Moreover, successful models for improving teaching and learning are still not fully understood.

Using phenomenologically based interviewing, the study determined how CSPs impacted development of 10 instructors from two community colleges in Washington State. Two interviews were conducted, one individually, the other with CSP teams. The index-

coding system was an adaptation of a schema designed to assess improved performance in the three instructional development domains, within the first, second, and third facet. Data were analyzed using NUD\*IST (Non-numerical Unstructured Data Indexing Searching and Theorizing), a qualitative software program.

Team-teaching in CSPs advanced instructional development and did so more effectively than does traditional faculty development programs and self-directed development, participants stated. Additionally, authority in decisions regarding curriculum and instruction empowered faculty, improving morale and productivity. Another finding was that planning and instructing a course of study with intellectual comradeship improved pedagogical practices and produced intellectual insights.

Four important implications for community colleges surfaced in assessment of the findings : (a) isolation — the condition found in solo teaching — is problematic, impacting faculty support and feedback, (b) CSPs recapture the scholarship and comradeship experienced in graduate school programs with discipline peers, (c) instructional development is a social act improving more effectively through team-teaching with knowledgeable peers, and (d) faculty experience revitalization and empowerment in CSPs, alleviating redundancy and boredom from teaching the same courses. The CSP framework allows for self-direction, spontaneity, and freedom from the barriers and restrictions experienced in traditional courses.

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**The Impact of Teaching in Coordinated Studies Programs on  
Personal, Social, and Professional Development of  
Community College Faculty**

by

**Andrea M. Rye**

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# **THE IMPACT OF TEACHING IN COORDINATED STUDIES PROGRAMS ON PERSONAL, SOCIAL, AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE FACULTY**

## **CHAPTER I**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **The Problem**

There are more than one hundred thousand faculty teaching in over a thousand community colleges in the United States. Recognized as important to personal, social, and economic development, community colleges are in the midst of fundamental change. No matter how dramatic and essential, change will not result in lasting improvement unless faculty development initiatives influence the adoption of alternative models of teaching and learning (Angelo, 1994). While all those involved seem to agree that ongoing development of faculty is crucial, there is surprisingly little agreement on how to involve more faculty members and to design more effective programs. Research supports the conclusion that reform initiatives to address instructional quality and institutional effectiveness have become a focus of community colleges nationally (Myran, Zeiss, & Howdyshell, 1995). These initiatives have contributed to an increase in the number of faculty development programs at community colleges. Harnish and Wild (1992) found that over 60% of the community colleges have formal faculty development programs firmly in place for improving instruction. Yet, in spite of the increased focus on instructional development and proliferation of faculty development programs in community colleges, successful models for improving teaching and learning are not fully understood.

In faculty development programs currently in place at many community colleges, the traditional lecture delivered workshop format on teaching skills continues to be the dominant model (Maxwell & Kazauskas, 1992). Where these programs are offered, many faculty are reluctant to participate in them and question their effectiveness. Furthermore, the traditional approach does not address the need for instructional development to integrate outcomes for success in the personal, social, and intellectual domains (Scott, 1990).

Social constructivists believe that peer collaboration programs are the most efficacious of all instructional development models because group problem-solving appears to facilitate development in the personal, social, and intellectual domains. For example, Tetenbaum and Mulkeen (1986) found that development of both new and senior faculty members is most effective through collaborative approaches in which teams of faculty peers coach each other for enlightenment and skills-development in teaching pedagogy. Use of constructivist models in instructional development were found to enhance intellectual development, reflective analysis, abstraction, and application in pedagogy (Tetenbaum & Mulkeen, 1986). Learning communities in which both instructors and students become active participants in collaborative learning processes are believed to have similar positive effects on faculty (Gabelnick, MacGregor, Mathews, & Smith, 1990). However, much of the research on the learning community ethos has focused on the effects of this educational endeavor on students (Tinto, 1996; Tinto, Goodsell, & Russo, 1994). Few empirical research studies have investigated the personal, social, and professional development effects on faculty.

Over the past 10 years, learning communities have re-emerged through the reform movement as effective teaching and learning models. They are believed to benefit students by increasing rates of retention, increasing levels of academic achievement and fostering

more complex, multidimensional intellectual development. Learning communities facilitate a sense of community and citizenship by closely aligning the education enterprise with workplace needs of the 21st century (Smith & MacGregor, 1992).

Learning communities are linked, clustered, or team-taught interdisciplinary and/or multidisciplinary enterprises which focus on a central theme, societal issue, or problem; the sharpened focus enables students to transform learning into understanding (Smith & MacGregor, 1991). One of the learning community models called coordinated studies programs (CSPs) normally involve two to four faculty members from a variety of disciplines. CSPs are the most radically restructured of typical course offerings and are built on time, space, social relations, and curricular context. Faculty are in control of content, structure, and format. This autonomy enables them to alter the routine solo work environment from individually-taught class sessions with limited peer contact to an interdisciplinary team-taught milieu with constant interaction. Faculty are jointly empowered to create something new, an offering that is substantively and pedagogically sound, and stimulating. They build relationships in subjects while reconfiguring and transforming content to reduce curricular fragmentation. Typically, the classes meet from 4 to 6 hours a day, and three or four times per week.

A full-time quarterly load for the faculty members and the students is 15 hours. In CSPs, the entire faculty team is present and active during most of these hours, leading students in collaborative problem-solving encounters. Some of the time is spent in small-group seminars facilitated by one instructor, while other sessions are *fish bowl* book seminars in which faculty teams dialogue through in-depth, challenging intellectual interchanges as students observe (Gablenick et al., 1990). In contrast, the traditional single-discipline community college course meets 50 minutes a day, 5 days-a-week, with one



instructor, one disciplinary perspective, and one methodology. The curriculum is often narrowly circumscribed by transfer agreements (Smith & Hunter, 1988).

To describe their experiences in CSPs, faculty speak of a sense of renewal, collegiality, vitality, and rejuvenating social encounters with students and colleagues (Smith, 1988; Smith & Hunter, 1988; Smith & MacGregor, 1991, 1992). Instructors see the learning community concept as offering an unparalleled opportunity for effective professional and pedagogical enhancement, community bonding among peers, and personal empowerment (Finley, 1990; Tollefson, 1991). Nonetheless, evidence remains primarily anecdotal because formal mechanisms for gathering data on learning communities have not been formulated. Empirical research is essential for capturing faculty members' perceptions of ways in which teaching in CSPs affects their instructional development.

### The Purpose

The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of teaching in learning communities on the personal, social, and professional development of community college faculty. Faculty teams who have taught in CSPs will be the focus of this study. This team-taught learning community format is designed for problem-solving by instructors and students working in groups.

### Research Questions

1. How will faculty judge the effectiveness of the CSP model of instructional development in comparison with the effectiveness of traditional faculty development approaches?

2. How will this experience affect faculty views of the institution in relation to locus-of-control in decisions regarding issues of curriculum and instruction?
3. What impact will coordinated studies teaching have on faculty morale, job satisfaction, and relations with students and peers?
4. Will observations of faculty support the belief of Meiklejohn (1932) that collaborative interdisciplinary approaches assist new and experienced faculty in learning from each other to master the teaching process? Do the approaches create insight, cultivate intelligence, advance allocentricism--an understanding of the perspectives of others, and develop intellectual comradeship among faculty as Meiklejohn envisions?
5. How do faculty participants in CSPs describe the impact of this instructional model on their personal, social, and professional development?

### Background and Setting

#### Instructional Development: Increased Emphasis

"After over a decade of criticism and calls for reform, almost everyone seems convinced that higher education really does need improving" (Angelo, 1994, p. 3). Reform has become a major issue for community college leaders regarding the social role and mission of community college education. Faculty preparedness and curriculum components are being re-evaluated (Myran et al., 1995). One author (Frey, 1995) says: "Community college faculty are being challenged with an increasingly more diverse student population, greater numbers of under-prepared students, technological advances and significantly heavier workloads due to institutional down-sizing" (p. 1). As the needs of students and society continue to change, professional and academic development programs for faculty will require a continual, substantive investment of institutional resources for transitioning

into new directions. At the very core of potential institutional change are the faculty (Myran et al., 1995). Jennings, Barler, and Bartling (1991) address the role of faculty: "A higher education institution's most valuable resource is its faculty. The faculty determine the structure and quality of the curriculum, control the quality of instruction, position the institution relative to creativity and scholarship, and implement the institution's service linkages and relationships" (p. 147). Clearly, institutional effectiveness rests heavily on instructional quality. This reality, together with increased challenges to community college teachers posed by student diversity, heightens demands on those who see faculty development as crucial to student and faculty success.

Historically, faculty development has been synonymous with research and scholarship for enhancement of teaching skills; today, however, there is a paradigm shift to a more holistic view. The current stand is seen in the description of faculty development advanced by the American Association for Higher Education (AAHE) in 1979. In that year, AAHE issued a statement describing faculty development as "the theory and practice of facilitating improved performance in a variety of domains, including the intellectual, the institutional, the personal, the social, and the pedagogical" (Scott, 1990, p. 12). Unfortunately, this expanded understanding of instructional development is not currently reflected in the prevailing types of programs offered to faculty, even though there has been an increase in the number of programs.

Several studies focus on the prominence of faculty development programs in colleges over the past two decades, both regionally and nationally (Angelo, 1994; Harnish & Wild, 1992, 1993; Smith & Beno, 1995). With heightened attention, these programs have received increased financial support. Currently, the average community college expenditure for faculty development is estimated at approximately 1.1% of total faculty

salaries and benefits (Smith & Beno, 1995). A survey conducted by the American Association of University Professors (1994) showed the national average salary together with benefits for community college faculty to be approximately \$54,000. Many community colleges spend an average of over \$90,000 a year on faculty development efforts (Smith & Beno, 1995). This expenditure demonstrates the high priority placed on development of faculty.

Despite this immense growth in activity and increased funding, there is little evidence that organized faculty development has been effective in improving teaching and learning. Maxwell and Kzauskas (1992) report that most campus-wide instructional improvement programs attract a relatively small percentage of faculty; many of those who do participate need the programs the least. Unsurprisingly, current approaches result in little if any measurable, long-term improvement in teaching and learning.

These findings are even more disconcerting in view of the common belief that community and technical colleges do a better job of emphasizing teaching than other higher education institutions. The Commission on the Future of Community Colleges (1988), citing the 2-year college mission, said that the colleges are positioned to become "the nation's premiere teaching institutions" (p. 25). From an historical perspective, Cohen and Brawer (1972) viewed the mission of the community college as teaching and saw faculty as the essence of the institution.

Although teaching has always been the primary role of community college instructors, their graduate and undergraduate education has not adequately prepared many of them for this position. Few instructors have courses on teacher-learner pedagogy (Boice, 1991; St Claire, 1994). Teaching skills are not ordinarily included in preparation of occupational instructors. Some authorities surmise that lack of formal preparation in

pedagogy is the principle cause of problems experienced in the teaching and learning process. Significant numbers of community college instructors teach by modeling skills of their favorite professors from their own experience as students (Boice, 1991; Luna & Cullen, 1996; St. Claire, 1994). Because there is little or no communication and follow-up between the faculty member and the role model, the pattern is flawed. To further compound the problem that ensues from the flawed pattern, faculty rarely observe peers in a classroom setting. Inhibited by isolation within classrooms, colleagues find opportunities for interaction and communication limited (St. Clair, 1994). Isolated, unpracticed in networking and limited in problem-solving opportunities, faculty are lacking in instructional development. Because of isolation, some faculty members were unaware of effective pedagogy and had inaccurate information regarding their own teaching skills, believing them to be more effective than they actually were (Blackburn, Bober, & Pellino, 1980). Of 296 community colleges surveyed, 92% of the faculty members responding considered their teaching to be above average. These instructors with unrealistic views of their teaching skills tended to avoid faculty development activities (Blackburn et al., 1980). However, faculty members who have had the opportunity to observe each other in the teaching and learning process have said that this experience provides them with effective teaching strategies to use in their own courses (Finley, 1990). This response has led St. Clair (1994) to state that collaborative instructional development is essential for faculty identity, student success, and institutional excellence.

#### Status of Faculty Development Programs

Close study of instructional development programs in this decade have revealed their shortcomings to be numerous. Faculty needs have gone unmet. Coordinators of faculty development programs have allowed a false sense of success to sacrifice

effectiveness. Murray (1995) conducted a comprehensive study of faculty development programs at community colleges. He concluded that most programs lack formal structure and are ineffective in providing quality instructional development for faculty. In a study of 386 community colleges, Maxwell and Kzauskas (1992) determined that two-thirds of the community college faculty development program coordinators rated both the lecture delivered workshop format and topics focusing on teaching skills as highly effective. In contrast, most community college faculty gave this format low marks; fewer than 10% rated this format positively (one could conclude that the approach would be popular if it were effective). The traditional workshop approach is not only unpopular among faculty, but appears to be ineffective as well. Angelo (1994) found that the typically utilized format contributes to program failure. He stated that the most commonly-practiced approach is one in which quality is often sacrificed for quantity, generating activities which are viewed by some faculty as irrelevant, thus a waste of time. Veenman, Van Tulder, and Voten (1994) found in their research that a considerable amount of time and money is invested in the traditional workshop. Yet they found little empirical data on the degree to which knowledge and information presented in workshops is effectively applied in the classroom. Given these findings, it is not an extraordinary factor that traditional faculty development programs have limited success.

There are even more significant barriers to participation. For one, faculty respond negatively to development programs that constantly focus only on the mechanics of teaching, viewing this redundancy as a personal affront. In addition, they react negatively to the term "faculty development," seeing in it the implication that they somehow, "need fixing" or are "not developed enough." A more acceptable concept is "instructional development" which focuses on the process and not the instructor (Wulff, 1995, p. 2).

Maxwell and Kazauskas (1992) encountered similar common shortcomings in faculty development programs. The two researchers also found that the lack of faculty involvement in planning programs was a barrier, as feedback was not solicited from potential participants regarding the topics, format, and selected activities of the workshops. In addition, programs often failed to respond to a given faculty member's personal objectives which are consistently problem-centered, while the activities presented in workshops are most often topic-centered. Tough (1981) concluded that: "Most adult learning begins because of a problem or responsibility" (p. 188). Knowles (1980) expressed a similar finding: "The adult comes into educational activity largely because he is experiencing some inadequacy in coping with current problems. He wants to apply tomorrow what he learns today, so his time perspective is one of immediacy of application. Therefore, he enters into education with a problem-centered orientation to learning" (p. 58).

#### Faculty Performance and Vitality

It appears that limited knowledge of effective pedagogy affects faculty performance. Feelings of isolation and low morale further diminish performance. Seidman (1985) found in his qualitative study of community college faculty that their performance is impacted by how they view their work and that feeling connected is essential. Further, he found that community college faculty have low morale and experience loneliness. A faculty member may be the only individual hired to teach within a given discipline. The instructor in such a setting misses the collegiality previously experienced during graduate studies. Feeling connected is essential in human relations. Seidman stressed the importance of providing opportunities for networking and interaction with faculty peers to overcome isolation, low morale, and feelings of dissatisfaction (Seidman, 1985).

Obviously, a faculty member's level of confidence can also affect performance. Ross (1994) in a recent study based on Bandura's (1977) theory of "self-efficacy" and Rotter's (1965) theory of "locus-of-control," found that administrative control of course offering and format, and a hierarchical institutional decision-making process may undermine confidence. Issues arising from administrative controls also appear to discourage faculty involvement in faculty development efforts.

Even with effective faculty development programs in place and a participatory decision-making process, obstacles to vitality exist. Instructors often report that the repetitious elements in teaching the same courses over and over for years can reduce motivation and enthusiasm. Suggesting solutions to the practices that lower morale, Clark, Corcoran, and Lewis (1986) determined that respecialization and retraining can restore vitality of faculty members who have taught the same courses repeatedly over many years. The need for change is supported by Cross' (1981) theory of adult learners. She indicates: "It is difficult to think of any social change presently occurring that would not require increased attention to lifelong learning. Education has a generally supporting and sometimes critical role to play across a broad range of human endeavors, from improved skills to enrichment of life for the individual" (p. 9).

Faculty members can be expected to understand and endorse the role of education in improving skills and enriching life, yet find that opportunities and institutional resources for respecialization or academic development may not be available to them where they teach. Baldwin (1993) recommends procedures that expand opportunities without respecialization. He suggests that faculty members break out of narrow career paths by teaching a course with a new peer. He contends that teaching in a different milieu by



crossing departmental boundaries as required in interdisciplinary team-teaching, refreshes faculty and expands curriculum.

### Mentoring, Modeling, and Peer Coaching

Collegial contact with peers through modeling and collaborative discussions about teaching strategies and curriculum planning can help overcome gaps in the education of faculty. Opportunities for practice and peer feedback are essential. Reciprocal feedback among peers has a substantial impact on the acquisition of new knowledge, new skills, and enhancement of the experience (Ross, 1994; St. Claire, 1994). Gailbraith and Shedd (1990) maintain that observing other faculty in the classroom is valuable. Feedback on methods of improvement from one's peers is equally valuable. Several studies have looked specifically at models for developing the coaching-mentoring skills of faculty. In one study of model programs, Reiman and Thies-Sprinthall (1993) suggest that mentoring and cognitive coaching process may be crucial keys for developmental growth, and for conceptualizing the complexities of the teaching and learning environment. Garmston (1994) elaborates on cognitive coaching as a peer coaching strategy for faculty development. He focuses on collegiality, risk taking, honest communication, and experimentation among instructional teams to advance school renewal. Cognitive coaching modifies the teacher's capacity for self-assessment and adjustment. This activity occurs through dialogue with an assigned peer coach. The coach engages the peer's mind through a process much like Socratic questioning.

Hearing about their colleagues' instructional problems and solutions apparently make faculty feel less isolated and more confident about their ability to make substantive changes. Discussion as a problem-solving approach involving a collaborative group of peers can be effective in improving teaching and learning skills. Veenman, Van Tulder,

and Voten (1994) wrote in support of this theory, after finding that for some faculty sharing ideas with peers resulted in significant improvement in the teaching and learning process, and in knowledge utilization. Clearly, discussion and application are two crucially important aspects of faculty growth and development (Van Tulder, Van Der Vegt, & Veenman 1993; Veenman et al., 1994). These studies appear to provide strong support for collaborative peer encounters to facilitate personal, social, and professional development of faculty.

Mentoring is another approach frequently proposed to provide collegial support and diminish the sense of loss and isolation prevalent in community college instruction. Benefits derived from utilizing these approaches are not limited to junior faculty; senior faculty participating in these processes also benefit (Luna & Cullen, 1996). Although mentoring, modeling, and peer coaching are believed to be a low-cost and effective solution, community college faculty workloads and time constraints may make them prohibitive (Seidman, 1985). St. Clair offers an alternative. She recommends integration of peer support within the framework of instruction (St. Clair, 1994). This approach allows faculty to gain knowledge and skills through on-the-job training.

#### Coordinated Studies Programs and Peer Collaboration: Historical Antecedents

Methods of mentoring, modeling, coaching, and peer collaboration have been re-instituted in educational settings. In Washington State over the past 18 years, many colleges and universities have reconfigured elements of the curriculum to enhance teaching and learning through learning communities. These collaborative group problem-solving interchanges enhance opportunities for mentoring, modeling, and peer coaching among faculty. Although the terms *collaboration* and *learning communities* may be conceived as buzz words for the 1980s and 1990s, these notions have been prominent in the educational

setting for many years. In reviewing the historical foundations of education, this writer found that the instructional approach encompassed in these two concepts can be traced to the works of two pioneers of innovation, Alexander Meiklejohn and John Dewey.

Dewey (1916/1968) spelled out the essential aspects of collaboration and application in learning. He endorsed problem-centered approaches to intellectual development and experiential learning. The collaboration model can be traced to Dewey's (1938/1968) student-centered principles, a philosophy called Progressivism. Known as a pragmatist, Dewey believed that the group process would succeed in nurturing students and teaching them to be open to the perspectives of others.

In this same period, Meiklejohn (1932) challenged the value of "breaking knowledge into pieces" (p. xi) in justifying the creation of the experimental college. He lamented the fragmentation of liberal arts courses, the isolation of faculty members and the lack of sustained opportunities for faculty development. As a corrective, he recommended "an integrated course of study welded into one 'scheme of reference,' with faculty from different fields working together in intellectual comradeship and trying to understand in some unitary fashion all the elements in a teaching situation" (pp. 43-45). He also saw this enterprise as a training arena for new teachers coming into their roles rigorously prepared for scholarship with no pedagogical training.

Tussman, a student of Meiklejohn, began experimenting with learning communities as lower division instructional formats at Berkeley during 1965. In 1970, The Evergreen State College developed CSPs based on Tussman's model (Gabelnick et al., 1990). This instructional model is believed to "alleviate the lack of meaningful connection between courses; [meet] the need for greater intellectual interaction between students and faculty; and [compensate for] the lack of sustained opportunities for faculty development" (Smith &

MacGregor, 1992, p. 25). Students and faculty who have participated in learning communities praise them (Gabelnick et al., 1990).

### Significance of the Study

#### The Community College Role in Educational Reform

Several nationally known educators, among them Gardner (1993), Parnell (1994), Perkins (1992), and Angelo and Cross (1993), credit the community college with the potential for generating multiple pathways to learning and developing students' intellectual wealth. They view contextual learning, one of the pathways, as an essential means of connecting course content to life applications. Contextual learning experiences are organized around issues and themes rather than disciplines or subjects. In solving problems, students will begin to understand the connections between what they are learning in the classroom and the problems or social issues society confronts (Gardner, 1993; Parnell, 1994; Perkins, 1992).

Community colleges have been deeply involved in problem solving efforts since the social revolution of the 1960s. This problem-solving approach has become a key component in this system of higher education. The approach is consistent with the college mission, providing equitable education for a large segment of society, regardless of academic skill (Cohen & Brawer, 1972). Central to success in carrying out this mission in community colleges is the work of faculty. Obstacles to success still stand. Despite the increasing importance of community colleges' role in educational reform, the instructional format "continues to be plagued by the inherited production-line rigidity of the secondary education system and the discipline-based curricular patterns of the universities" (Myran et al., 1995, p. 2). Solutions to these problems may be in the hands of faculty. Their ability to

facilitate learning must be developed. An understanding of the context in which faculty conceive the inner workings of the teaching and learning process is essential (Cohen & Brawer, 1972; Seidman, 1985).

### The Coordinated Studies Program as Educational Reform: Effects on Faculty

Gabelnick et al. (1990) believe that learning communities are a key element for educational reform. They state that the approach helps instructors conceptualize effective pedagogical practices. Faculty indicate teaching in learning communities can be an avenue for instructional development. A team of faculty members describe their experience in these words:

Learning communities allow teachers to alter the structure of the traditional curriculum and give teachers great autonomy to reorganize their teaching with their colleagues. Learning communities provide faculty members with new perspectives on their disciplines and a new window on pedagogy through which they can directly observe how other skillful teachers think and act. The modeling, mentoring and learning inherent in this situation are invaluable in faculty development. (Gabelnick et al., p. 80)

These statements represent articles of faith that are based on anecdotal observations of faculty. They are assumptions that ring with the sound of truth. Confirming data have yet to be documented, however. Little is known about the actual outcomes of this collaborative process and the effects of empowerment, leadership, renewal, professional growth, and institutional climate, the elements in revitalizing faculty (Tollefson, 1990). Institutional research and an empirical study has been conducted on the learning community phenomenon, however. Seattle Community College has initiated formal evaluation processes to examine the value of coordinated studies experiences for students as well as faculty (Finley, 1990). In addition, a doctoral study was conducted on learning communities in Washington State community colleges by Tollefson (1990). He investigated the perceptions of faculty concerning the strengths of learning community structures on

both faculty and students, in comparison to conventional courses. At the conclusion of his study on learning communities, he stressed the importance of future studies to assess the impact of this curricular intervention on professional development of faculty (Tollefson, 1990). Most of the research on the learning community environment has focused on the effects of this educational endeavor on students, however (Tinto, 1996; Tinto et al., 1994). Few empirical research studies have investigated its effects on faculty.

### Benefits of Further Research

This study will inform the research and practice of faculty instructional development by determining if CSPs are effective and if they are a viable approach to personal, social, and professional development of faculty. The relevance of this study is its potential for ascertaining a new way of conceptualizing the contributions of CSPs to community college instructional development models. It suggests a need to examine more closely the effects of this medium of teaching and learning on faculty. CSPs have potential for conserving both faculty time and institutional resources by integrating the processes of teaching and learning, and instructional development into one enterprise. In this milieu, responsibility for instructional development is placed in the hands of faculty.

### Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study is based on the theories of social constructivist epistemology. One notable contemporary social theorist, Gergen (1985) states: "the process of understanding is the result of an active, cooperative enterprise of persons in relationship" (p. 267). Social constructivism is grounded in social learning theories. Such theories re-entered the educational setting in the 1930s at Yale University

when Clark Hull offered a graduate seminar related to this topic. A major focus of early social learning theory was the process by which society attempts to transmit appropriate behaviors to the learner. This focus contrasted with theories of learning which has dominated educational philosophy. Traditionally, American philosophy has focused on the right of the isolated autonomous individual whose development is facilitated by the environment (Piaget, 1968). Rorty (1982) wrote that the origins of this viewpoint date back to Plato. According to Plato's theory of "objective reality," humans utilize an intricate reasoning process to seek "Truth" (Plato, trans. 1982, p. 1). This perspective on life is questioned by social theorists whose belief systems and psychological theories arise from viewing humans in social arrangements.

Vygotsky (1978) viewed the mind as inherently social. In the Vygotskian contextualist view, humans are embedded in a social matrix and behavior is learned in this socially-historically-culturally interrelated context. Working from a similar understanding, social psychologist Bandura (1977, 1989) examined the concept of modeling. He believed that most learning comes from observation and instruction. This process, "abstract modeling," is strengthened through "vicarious reinforcement" as learners attempt to reproduce the behaviors they have seen and receive feedback telling them how closely their actions match those of the model. He further states: "After the capacity for observational learning has fully developed, one cannot keep people from learning what they have seen" (Bandura, 1977, p. 38).

Convinced that social teaching and learning processes are effective in instructional development, Dewey (1916/1968) proclaimed his findings regarding active learning in a social learning environment. Meiklejohn's (1932) Experimental College was established on the same set of premises. Holt (1993) found that long before Dewey or Meiklejohn,

Aristotle set forth conclusions coming from observations of humans interaction: "Imitation is natural to man from childhood. One of his advantages over the lower animals being this, that he is the most imitative creature in the world, and learns first by imitation" (as cited in Miller, 1993, p. 370).

Social learning theories underlie the conclusion that CSPs advance effective pedagogical practices modeled by peers. According to the accounts of faculty who have taught in this mode of instruction, the social and intellectual stimulation experienced in this genre of teaching and learning, revitalizes, empowers, and renews. The experience is academically challenging and affects faculty members' intellectual development (Gabelnick et al., 1990). CSPs enable faculty to mentor, model, and observe successful strategies in the teaching and learning process. Formal knowledge of learning styles is broadened and effective pedagogical practices are made more effective. The opportunity for collegial relationships and feedback on pedagogy through peer coaching is built into the structure of this team-taught ethos. They may well prove the antidote to isolation and loneliness experienced in the single-subject classroom (Gabelnick et al., 1990).

One faculty member commented: "I feel less isolated when I teach in a coordinated studies program. I have a better feeling of being part of an academic community and have learned to respect more the disciplines of other faculty" (Finley, 1990, p. 12). The phenomenon under investigation is the impact of teaching in CSPs on the personal, social, and professional development of community college faculty.

#### Definition of Terms

Allocentricism. The ability to understand and view issues from the standpoint of others within heterogeneous group problem-solving discussions. A broad-minded approach



to perspective-taking. A capacity to value diversity in points of view and to empathize with the attitudes, beliefs, values, situations, and conditions of others (Garmston, 1994).

Cognitive coaching. A process in which an enlightened, skillful peer through mediation, enhances the cognitive processes, perceptions, decisions, and instructional behavior of a faculty team member. Peers engage in exercises similar to Socratic questioning to challenge and stimulate the intellectual development of each other and to inspire in-depth reflection on planning, behavior, and results (Garmston, 1994).

Collegiality. Ability to establish positive relations with members of the campus community and serve in a mentoring, supporting role to students and peers. To be open and accepting of others, and to share in the campus initiatives through involvement and support. Possession of strong interpersonal skills in interactions with others. Active participation in professional organizations, articulation efforts, community activities, and college governance. Highly visible in campus community through ongoing service on college committees (Dubois, 1993; Higgins, Hawthorne, Cape, & Bell, 1994).

Collaborative learning. An umbrella term for a variety of educational approaches involving joint intellectual efforts of students and teachers collectively. The assortment of these approaches includes cooperative learning and learning communities. Students work in groups of two or more, jointly searching for understanding, answers, or meanings, or generating a commodity. Key elements are active learning through social interactions and group problem-solving exercises through cooperation and communication to build commonalities and connections for the common good (Bruffee, 1984; Smith & MacGregor, 1992).

Coordinated studies programs. A type of learning community with an interdisciplinary, team-taught format. An active learning milieu in which the curriculum is

radically restructured and transformed around broad, contextual themes. The curricular structure is altered to provide an abundant unit of study, creating a block of time for collaborative learning and allowing other more complex educational endeavors to evolve. By bringing instructors together, the ethos provides faculty with a unique opportunity to learn content and pedagogy from peers in several disciplines (MacGregor, 1991).

In-depth phenomenological interviewing. Understanding the experience of other individuals and the meaning they draw from their experiences in context. This method combines life-history interviewing and focused interviewing informed by assumptions drawn from the topic under study. Open-ended questions form primary method of data-gathering. Questions are designed to generate a series of reflections, one leading to another. The goal is to encourage the participant to reconstruct his or her experience in the context of the topic under study (Schultz, 1967; Schuman & Dolbeare, 1982; Seidman, 1991).

Instructional development. The theory and practice of promoting improved faculty performance throughout their careers, intellectually by building content knowledge and developing understanding of theories in pedagogical practices. With the development of social and personal domains institutional effectiveness is enhanced.

Learning communities. An umbrella term for structural approaches to curriculum reform that embodies multiple courses or disciplines. The courses may be linked, clustered or team-taught with curriculum content purposefully restructured around themes. Problem-solving skills are taught in the framework of content and context, enabling students to find greater coherence in what they are learning. The model is designed to build both social learning and social community of students and faculty through increased intellectual interactions within the community (Smith & MacGregor, 1990).

Locus-of-control. The affect of organizational climate on the effectiveness of faculty. The extent of faculty involvement in the planning development of institutional mission, vision, and goals can affect the overall campus climate and motivation of faculty. A generalized expectancy regarding the source of reinforcement for behavior. There are two separate orientations in this construct. One is the external orientation, the belief in chance, destiny, and powerful others. The alternative is an internal orientation, a term applied to the thinking of individuals who see in the relatively permanent characteristics within themselves the explanations for their actions and rewards (Rotter, 1984).

Mentor. Person who serves as a guide or sponsor, looks after, advises, protects, and takes special interest in a protégée's growth and development. In contrast, a professionally centered, reciprocal relationship between two individuals in which the more enlightened and experienced individual assists in the professional development of the upwardly mobile or intellectually developing peer's life and work (Levinson, 1978, 1986; Sands, Parson, & Duane, 1991).

Metacognition. A self-reflective improvement process in which the instructor steps back from the teaching role to undergo personal evaluation and synthesis. This process allows faculty members to take a microscopic view of their teaching pedagogy to better understand and become more aware of their strengths and liabilities in the teaching and learning process. This method allows them to examine the impact of approaches on student learning and to determine why they may or may not be effective (Garmston, 1994; Reiman & Thies-Sprinthal, 1993).

Pedagogical knowledge. Awareness of effective instructional tools to facilitate student learning. This perception includes the following cycle that instructors undergo in the curriculum development and instructional delivery process: (a) planning phase, the

decisions-making process for identifying outcomes and envisioning student success; (b) interactive phase, the mental functions made during the teaching act to guide the pace of instruction; (c) reflective phase, the evaluation process in which teachers look back compare and analyze the decisions made during the planning and teaching process; (d) application phase, in which instructors abstract from what has been learned during their own critical self-reflection and then project the learning to future lessons (Chen & Ennis, 1994; Garmston, 1994; Grossman & Richert, 1988).

**Productivity.** High aspirations and desire for change. Diversification in the professional lives of faculty and continued engagement in their work. These are motivating factors that instill the desire for continued development to master new fields of knowledge and develop new professional skills. Attributes include the acquisition of new responsibilities, alternative roles, opportunities, experiences, and the support of on-going learning (Baldwin, 1983).

**Renewal.** The demonstrated effort of faculty to develop improved performance in a variety of domains, including the intellectual, personal, social, and the pedagogical. The broader approach encompasses the relationship between what faculty teach, what they think about what they teach, what they think about themselves personally and professionally, what they think about their college, and how all of this relates to the teaching and learning process. Feelings of self-efficacy and empowerment regarding roles and status. Self-directed initiative for seeking scholarship and intellectual development to broaden discipline focus and scope (Bell & Gilbert, 1994; Campion, 1994; Hanson & Rhodes, 1982; Mathis, Halliburton, Marincovich, & Svinicki, 1988).

**Scholarship.** The systematic pursuit of a topic, an objective, rational inquiry that involves critical analysis. It requires the precise observation, organization, and recording of

information in search of epistemology and order within chaos. Scholarship is the umbrella under which research falls. Scholarship results in a product that is shared with others and may be subject to the evaluation of expert judges. The product may be a book review, an annotated bibliography, a lecture, a review of existing research on a topic or a speech that is a synthesis of cognition on a topic. Other ideas include artistic endeavors, creative pedagogy community service or engagement with novel ideas (Mahaffey & Welsh, 1993; Marswood, 1995).

Self-efficacy. The level of personal contentment the individual experiences based on efforts expended to accomplish a goal. The extent to which the individual's achievements and contributions affect the overall success of the institution. The belief of faculty, in their own well-being and ability to develop knowledge, skills, and grow intellectually. The ability to adapt to change and embrace new paradigms with high levels of confidence, self-esteem and goodwill (Bandura, 1977, 1989; Bessey & Stiehl, 1993).

Social constructivism. A phenomenon that is based on certain realities seen in the nature of knowledge. Specifically, that reality, knowledge, and constructs are generated by communities of collaborative groups achieving common ground in their thinking. These groups develop distinct mores, cultural modes of functioning, conventions, and ideals. They strive to perpetuate their own construct of reality and epistemology. The social construction of meaning-making is paramount (Bruffee, 1984; Gergen, 1985; Kuhn, 1970).

Vitality. Value-added, quality concerns associated with careers over the long term. High motivation and self-directed skills development at different career stages. Proclivity toward seeking internal opportunities for vertical and lateral mobility. Affinity for teaching and ongoing curriculum development. Desire to retain relationships that promote a sense of community and sponsor-mentor generative activity. Faculty members with such

characteristics participate in shaping the direction of their unit or the institution at large (Mahaffey & Welch, 1993).

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

In this chapter, existing literature on major issues and their relationship with ambient factors in instructional development will be examined. There are seven major themes that will be presented in this literature review. The first theme will unfold with an examination of the learning community phenomenon, focusing specifically on one model, the CSP. Evidence regarding the CSP and its impact on community college faculty instructional development as well as opposing viewpoints to this position will be presented. Personal, social, and professional development, salient elements believed to be prevalent in CSPs will be investigated. The second theme develops with a focal point on the theoretical framework, social constructivism: the philosophical foundation of learning communities, its historical antecedents, and other theoretical underpinnings of learning communities. Constructivism will be compared with individualism: the traditional approach in education. The third theme advances with an investigation of the role of mentoring, modeling, peer coaching, and cognitive coaching in faculty development. Theme four, will include an analysis of the historical foundations of collaborative learning as a form of instructional development, in contrast with self-directed development. The barriers to diffusion of collaborative processes and other innovations will also be reviewed. The fifth theme will evolve from a look at traditional community college faculty development models and obstacles to their success. Contributing factors to limited faculty participation and the impact of institutional control on instructional development will also be reviewed. In the sixth theme, faculty demographic profiles, workload situations, isolation, and the impact of these considerations on morale will be reviewed along with the relationship of such factors

to faculty performance and level of participation in instructional development. Faculty renewal, vitality and productivity, and faculty motivation will also be scrutinized. The seventh and final major theme will disclose the epistemological basis for qualitative research approaches and examine the benefits of phenomenological interviewing as a method for empirical research. This expanded framework provides essential information on the promising components of instructional development from the perspective of faculty and the value of qualitative research in studying these issues.

### The Learning Community Phenomenon

#### Re-emergence as Instructional Models: Five Major Types

Higher education institutions nationally are creating learning communities as an avenue for educational reform and for the rejuvenating effects they have on faculty. A 1995 survey conducted by the Washington Center for Improvement of Undergraduate Education, determined that 120 colleges and universities in the United States and Canada reported utilizing this instructional model. The term *learning community* is used very broadly considering the many variations and designs among education institutions. It is an umbrella term for the many varieties of this curricular structure. According to Gabelnick et al. (1990), there are five major types of learning community curricular models. They are:

1.       Linked courses. Two paired courses which are listed in the schedule so that a cohort of students enroll. The courses meet separately; however, the syllabi and/or assignments may be coordinated.
2.       Learning clusters. An expanded form of the linked-course format. A broader cohort community is formed by clustering three or more courses that become the



entire load for the student for a quarter or semester. Though taught as discrete courses, they may integrate related material.

3. Freshmen interest groups (FIGs). A model that links three courses around premajor topics with a peer advising component. Each FIG cohort registers for all three courses and are a subset of 25 students in the larger classes. The arrangement is designed to give freshmen an immediate support system in a large college setting.

4. Federated learning communities. A more complex and academically ambitious model designed to build curriculum coherence and community for students and to provide considerable faculty development. Its objective is to overcome the isolation and anonymity of a large research university. As in the FIG, three courses are linked together by an overarching theme in which subsets of students become cohorts. At the same time, cohorts enroll in an additional three-credit seminar led by a master learner. This individual, a faculty member from a discipline other than the federated courses fulfills all of the academic responsibilities as the students in the three courses and is released full-time from other regular teaching responsibilities.

5. Coordinated studies programs. Team-taught interdisciplinary enterprises involving two to five faculty members with transformed curriculum built around a societal issue or theme. These programs become the quarter or semester load for both the instructors and the students, since they are engaged full-time the program (Gabelnick et al., 1990).

Learning communities have two main objectives. First, they aspire to render intellectual coherence by linking or integrating disciplines and building relationships among subjects, or by teaching a skill (e.g., writing or speaking) in the context of one or more discipline. Second, they strive to build both academic and social community among faculty

members and among students by enrolling them in a block of courses concurrently, or having them meet for a block of time as a cohort in an integrated curriculum program (Gabelnick et al., 1990).

### The Coordinated Studies Model

This study focuses on the more radically restructured of the learning community curricular frameworks: the coordinated studies program. The CSP structure allows instructors to break open the traditional class schedule by allowing longer blocks of time for extended learning experiences. This model of learning community is an intentionally transformed curriculum that aims toward greater coherence by integrating three or more courses (Gabelnick et al., 1990). Within this enterprise, there is increased intellectual interaction among faculty and students through collaborative, active and contextual approaches to knowledge and understanding. This form of scholarship, comprised of two or more faculty members, utilizes an interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary team-taught approach in which the subject-matter is thematically connected. For example, in the 1990s, Seattle Central Community College offered an 18-credit CSP entitled "The Global Village" combined the disciplines of economics, ecology, English composition, and literature. Though separate courses are listed on each student's transcript, the program was conducted as one coordinated curriculum. This 18-credit program explored such important issues as the ways that people in the world are interconnected by written communication, by global economics and by ecology. Faculty teams and student members of the cohort came together for 18 hours each week to wrestle with problems that require creative and active participation. The goal was to determine how everyone in this community could become a part of the world solutions. In addition to lectures and book seminar discussions, the program includes field trips, workshops and other collaborative group projects.

## The Coordinated Studies Program: Impact on Faculty

### CSPs and Faculty Instructional Development

Instructional development is essential to build effective pedagogical practices into the culture of community college teaching. A review of the literature indicates that the experience of faculty in CSPs may transform ideas about instructional development (Gabelnick et al., 1990). Gamson (1994) wrote that learning communities have the greatest potential for development since by design they require that two or more faculty members coordinate their curriculum planning and teaching. This coordination makes teaching and learning more public and visible for every faculty member involved (Gamson, 1994). The learning community encourages instructional development through transfer of knowledge among faculty members. Two educators, Smith and Hunter (1988) citing their CSP teaching experiences, asserted that the process of planning pedagogical approaches and course content with peers facilitates professional development. They found that faculty observed and learned from each other throughout the quarter. The two also drew from their experience confirmation of the benefits derived from "fishbowl-book seminars" like those pivotal to Meiklejohn's and Tussman's enterprises. When faculty teams come together in a fishbowl to discuss a book while students observe, these seminars proved intellectually stimulating and a positive learning experience for the instructors.

Subsequently, a team of educators investigated the outcomes of this instructional environment from the perspective of faculty. During 1990, the team conducted interviews with learning community teams at selected community colleges within Washington State. The team reported that faculty recounted exhilarating intellectual and social encounters with students and colleagues. Community spirit and support increased collegiality. Faculty examined their own professional orientation and were elated by the enrichment, the

cognitive growth, and the perspectives through which they viewed their disciplines. The connections, modeling and pedagogical experimentation that occurred among colleagues were seen as an invigorating experience without parallel. Faculty also valued the autonomy and self-directed improvement which CSPs engendered (Gabelnick et al., 1990).

Corroboration of the many positive outcomes came in a study by Finley (1990). The researcher conducted a formal evaluation of CSPs at Seattle Central Community College in 1989. The process involved interviews with 34 faculty who had taught in the CSPs. Personal and professional benefits were reported by these faculty members. Some of them indicated that their experience left them feeling intellectually stimulated and open to risk-taking in trying new teaching and learning techniques. Each member in this faculty group involved in this evaluation process had an average of more than 18 years of teaching experience; some had previously reported experiencing burn out. Several indicated that the stimulation and support resulting from team-teaching experiences in CSPs revitalized them and dissuaded them from leaving the profession of teaching all together. By alleviating some of the distresses in instructor-centered teaching approaches, they were relieved of the burden of being the expert and found that they became more involved in learning. Others reported that they gained new confidence in their teaching pedagogy.

Faculty stated that team-teaching is much more rigorous work because of the challenges experienced and the vast amount of time needed to coordinate and transform the curriculum collectively. Yet, they determined that the advantages far out-weighted the formidable challenges. Additional support for the belief that the CSP experience broadens teaching horizons came from other findings in Finley's research. She found that most faculty who teach in CSPs appear to be cognizant of the social imperatives facing society, such as the need for multicultural understanding and the need for a more participatory

democratic society. She indicated further that faculty expressed excitement about what collaborative learning had helped them to discover in themselves. In discussions about their feelings, instructors said they were stimulated to reflect on their own continually evolving knowledge. They were excited too in observing successful teaching strategies that facilitated student learning (Finley, 1990).

In an earlier study, Romer (1985) had maintained that the interdisciplinary aspects in the learning communities provided both students and faculty with integrative elements of the course. Faculty were able to synthesize the knowledge they had acquired and to conceive something intellectually and contextually more complex.

A decade later, Brody (1995) expanded on the advantages instructors discovered in the CSP milieu. She wrote that it allows peers to build new knowledge by challenging one another's assumptions and misconceptions. In addition, she found learning communities to be advantageous for less experienced faculty members. She suggested that these collaborative interactions were beneficial in facilitating the assimilation of new members of the faculty to the innovative approaches practiced by more experienced, creative members of the profession.

Smith (1988), in her article on a resourceful approach to faculty development, discussed the methods used in the acclimation of faculty to new cultural perspectives on pedagogy. Specifically, she examined the acculturation of the CSPs at Seattle Central Community College. Experienced faculty from Evergreen State College team-taught in CSPs with faculty from this community college. Smith viewed this process as one of the most powerful means of transferring knowledge and instructional strategies among faculty and between institutions. She found that team-teaching in coordinated studies provided veteran instructors with the opportunity to serve as peer mentors in the classroom. At the

same time, the veteran instructors reported being revitalized in this process. The variations in perspectives provided by the newcomers was the source of this revitalization. The newcomers were able to observe and adopt resourceful pedagogical practices. Both new and veteran instructors related to one another as experts and learners meeting new challenges, acquiring transformed discipline insights and new pedagogy (Smith, 1988).

Smith and Hunter (1988) viewed key components in CSPs, such as mentoring, modeling, peer coaching, and metacognitive analysis as successful social, personal, and professional development strategies. These programs also provide effective procedures for adopting and diffusing instructional innovations. In a related study, Gailbraith and Shedd (1990) analyzed the impact of engagement in discussions about teaching strategies, curriculum content, and collaborative efforts, such as team-teaching, modeling, peer support, and collegial contacts on inexperienced instructors. They found these processes to be invaluable mechanisms for growth.

Although each of these reports provides indications of intellectual development, vitality, productivity, collegiality, and improved pedagogical practices in and among faculty, the information came primarily through solicited opinions of faculty regarding their experiences. None of these solicitation processes provided empirical evidence that teaching in CSPs and participation in other mechanisms for peer support produced personal, social, and professional development experiences. They present anecdotal support for the conclusion that such measures are effective in developing the knowledge of teaching. Clearly, further evidence of empirically based support regarding the impact of mentoring and modeling, and collegial support in peer relationships on instructional development is needed. Such research may provide useful information on the impact of CSPs on faculty.

### Potential Barriers to Instructional Development in Coordinated Studies

Cohen and Brawer (1972) agreed that general education curriculum needed a faculty working together to integrate the curriculum vertically to avoid fracturing along disciplinary lines. However, they said they doubted that community college faculty were prepared to teach integrated studies programs. The two authors asked how graduate studies and faculty development programs could broaden the professional knowledge of faculty in developing interdisciplinary models. Most existing graduate programs have a single-discipline focus for specialized teaching and research. Bloom (1987) expressed related reservations about the expertise of faculty for teaching in interdisciplinary programs. He argued that such programs should engage only the best minds among faculties in the various disciplines in order to alleviate the intellectual excitement missing in professors as well as students. He faulted the interdisciplinary programs as being too remote from the faculty with power in the academy and distanced from what faculty regard as their main function as professors. He contended that many CSPs lack unity. He went on to charge that faculty members are unable to discuss intellectual issues because of shortcomings in their academic preparation (Bloom, 1987). In contrast, MacGregor (1990) maintained that the potential for rich intellectual stimulation of faculty is present within the CSP. The collaborative experiences become a learning process in the company of peers. She observed that the advice and guidance given by colleagues, together with the occasion to observe excellence in pedagogical practices, had significant impact on faculty. MacGregor further asserted that the professional development opportunities in learning about other disciplines through the context of an individual's subject open eyes and stimulate insight.

### Related Empirical Research on Coordinated Studies

Cognizant of the importance of educational research to present what is known about this phenomenon, empirical research was investigated. Empirical research is a process of obtaining knowledge through observation and experimentation. It uses data-collection methods through scholarly and scientific inquiry, based on theories or hypotheses (Rudestam & Newton, 1992). Attempting to link theory and the empiricism, Baldwin (1983) conducted a quantitative study with college and university faculty. Theoretically, quantitative study is an attempt to make rigorous measurements of variables, and test for the presence of hypothesized relationships. Baldwin sought evidence for the correlation between variety and productivity in faculty careers, focusing on Levinson's (1978, 1986) landmark study on adult development through career paths. His research supported Levinson's findings. He learned that interests, activities, problems, and goals of college teachers vary at successive career stages. Baldwin also discovered that collaborative teaching opportunities rejuvenated faculty, enabled them to expand their knowledge and to enhance their professional fields. Faculty continued to be enthusiastic about teaching even after the collaborative experience ended. The most beneficial team-teaching experience reported in this study was interdisciplinary teaching across departmental and divisional boundaries. Unfortunately, this study described neither the research methodology nor the analysis process for establishing validity and reliability, making it difficult to interpret the significance of his findings.

A 1984 published report from the U.S. Department of Education, National Institute of Education, evaluated the outcomes of learning communities which were organized around specific intellectual themes. This research, conducted by the Study Group on Conditions of Excellence in Higher Education, provided accounts suggesting the value of



learning community experiences for faculty. Faculty said this instructional format helped to overcome their isolation from other colleagues and from their students. These courses were described as building group identity, cohesion and comradeship among faculty. Instructors further indicated that they developed capacities for integrating knowledge from several disciplines.

Tollefson (1991) conducted a study on learning communities in Washington State community colleges to investigate perceptions of faculty and students regarding the strengths of learning community structures. Subjects were asked to compare learning communities to conventional courses. This study used quantitative research methods, to analyze feedback solicited through questionnaires and descriptive surveys. The researcher found that learning communities play a significant role in energizing and empowering faculty and increasing their content and pedagogical knowledge. The study suggested that additional research be conducted to further examine the effects on faculty. Tollefson conceded that the study was limited in its capacity to gain insights into the phenomenon of collaborative interchanges in learning communities and their impact on faculty. For example, no correlation was found to be statistically significant because of the small size of the population sample. He contended, however, that his study reinforced the observations expressed by Smith and Hunter (1988) on the instructional development components for faculty in learning communities.

Through this literature review, Tollefson's (1991) study was the only empirical research found that addressed the faculty development aspects of learning communities. To examine this phenomenon more closely, it is essential to review research on the tangential elements believed to exist in this instructional format, such as mentoring, modeling, peer coaching, and collaborative learning.

## Basis for Theoretical Framework

### Constructivist Foundations of Coordinated Studies Programs: Meiklejohn and Dewey

Dewey's (1938/1965) and Meiklejohn's (1932) insights into the social learning process, integrated curricular coherence and team teaching, provided the basis for the inception of the CSP. This model goes back over 64 years and is viewed as the most direct progeny of Meiklejohn's Experimental College. The full-time commitment, team-taught integrated curriculum, collaborative approach, intellectual synergy, and problem-centered pedagogical practices were pivotal hallmarks in Meiklejohn's experiments. He wrote:

It must be possible, it must be arranged, that all of the members of the teaching force shall have genuine and intimate intellectual acquaintance with one another. This is another way of saying that the teachers, as they attempt to educate their pupils, must themselves be gaining education from one another, and from their common enterprise. They must be trying to create the wisdom which they wish to impart. (p. xvi)

He theorized that this environment would produce a more intelligent, coherent faculty with the ability to collaboratively master the art of teaching. Meiklejohn believed that interactions among faculty in development of curriculum and group-thinking activities in the classroom would educate faculty, and would provide models of master teaching for new and experienced college instructors. In his enterprise, the classroom is an instructional development arena where teachers learn from each other through modeling, while providing a rich learning environment for students. He viewed the aim of education in his *scheme of reference* as cultivating collective wisdom, insight, and intelligence in students. This unification of the curriculum through an integrated program of study and scholarly investigations would provide both students and teachers with a greater understanding of society's issues. Meiklejohn was convinced that instructors and students would be imbued with principles implicit in the structure of this teaching and learning enterprise. At the core

of these basic tenets are: utility, justice, altruism, civic responsibility, and a sense of community (Meiklejohn, 1932).

The coordinated studies framework also encompasses social constructivist theories of Dewey (1916/1968), a twentieth century philosopher and educator. He played a major role in the establishment of a theoretical foundation for understanding knowledge acquisition. This philosophy, known as social constructivism, asserts that knowledge is developed through a socially-based epistemology (Rorty, 1979, 1982).

Dewey's contribution to the coordinated studies framework is evidenced in a teaching and learning process that is student-centered and involves active learning. In 1916, he wrote:

In its contrast with the ideas both of unfolding of latent powers from within, and of formation from without, whether by physical nature or by cultural products of the past, the ideal of growth results in the conception that education is communication-- a constant reorganizing or restructuring of shared experiences through the principles of continuity and interaction. A widening of the area of shared concerns and the liberation of a greater diversity of personal capacities which characterizes a democracy. (pp. 21-25)

Dewey's progressive school was an educational milieu which recognized that learning is inherently a social and contextual experiential process. The environment he created promoted a close relationship among students and teachers and reduced fragmentation in the curriculum. Like Meiklejohn, Dewey had a special interest in modeling, collaborative educational processes, systematic inquiry, experiential learning, expanded intellectual capacity, individual empowerment and responsibility to the community (Dewey, 1938).

Modern day theorists such as Kuhn (1970) support Dewey's ideals of social learning. Kuhn's theory of scientific inquiry was viewed by Gergen (1985) as the foundation for contemporary social constructivist thought. It sparked the recent inquiry

concerned with explicating the processes by which people come to account for the world in which they live. Kuhn's manifestations regarding the scientific revolution were a departure from the hypothesis-testing, theory-building process utilized by positivists to conceive knowledge. This process known as dualism is postulated as having facilitated the underlying culture and implicit values of individualism and competition in the educational environment and perpetuating the single-discipline, compartmentalized focus which permeates the education system (Astin, 1987). Kuhn theorized that scientists do not add to consistently evolving collections of truths through induction or by building and testing general hypotheses; rather, they transform old paradigms of thought by adopting new ones. He countered that the terms by which the world is understood are social artifacts, products of historically situated interchanges among individuals. From this constructivist position, the process of understanding is the result of an active, cooperative enterprise of persons in relationship (Kuhn, 1970).

Through Meiklejohn's student Joseph Tussman, a new instructional model was created at Berkeley in 1965 that was directly influenced by Thomas Kuhn. Kuhn's theoretical perspective regarding the acquisition of scientific knowledge is reflected in this framework. The Berkeley model became the actual precursor to coordinated studies as currently conceived; the model became the cornerstone for other educational reform efforts. Tussman later developed the rationale for structuring curriculum around programs. His ideas took root through his followers at the Evergreen State College in Washington State in 1970 when CSPs were officially created.

These programs require the creation of community among faculty through coordinated curricula built around a problem, a societal issue, or theme. This creative

pedagogy and curricular adaptation is the model for CSPs as currently offered in numerous community colleges in Washington and other states (Gabelnick et al., 1990).

### Social Constructivism in Comparison to Traditionalism

Social constructivism contrasts with typical western thinking. For more than 300 years, western culture's comprehension of knowledge formation has primarily been grounded in Plato's Theory of Recollection, the belief that the ability to recognize truth is innate. Plato's philosophy became the pinnacle for the works of Locke and Descartes whose theories support the position that knowledge is based on rationalist or positivist perspectives. Positivists and rationalists believe that knowledge is externally determined, hierarchical and individually attained. Plato's theories support the traditionalist approach, attainment through a competitive, individualistic ethos as manifested in the education system (Rorty, 1982). In contrast, Nietzsche maintained that "truth evolves and is known just as much as may be useful in the interest of the human herd" (as cited in Rorty, 1985, p. 1). Based on Nietzschean conviction, social constructivism suggests that knowledge is negotiated collectively toward new cognition by individuals challenging perceptions, biases and presuppositions of each other. This process is called "socially justifying belief" (Rorty, 1985, p. 2).

Gergen (1985) contrasts the process of social interchange in human understanding with the scientific realism and dualism of the positivists' position. Positivists view realism as a process in which the individual arrives at knowledge through observable reality or measurable facts. Dualism is based on the belief that there is a fixed point of reference from which one can measure truth. He describes social constructivism as a contemporary movement with a historical framework embedded in Aristotle's reflections on the human's natural imitative tendencies and the role of sensory experience. Other antecedents are

Kant's perspective on the rational capacities of the mind, Kurt Lewin's (1935) and Morton Deutsch's (1949) motivation and social interdependence theory, that individuals build their world with learned social constructs. Schultz (1967) describes these insights as "ideal objectivities" which the individual learns as a member of a community. Theoretically, each person is indoctrinated with the same "interpretive schemata," specifically, the language, science, myth, and religion of his or her culture. Though the meaning of the experience is individualized, the experience does not occur in a social void. O'Donnell (1990) explains the link: "The individual's experience is connected to the collective experience of the community, by virtue of sharing a socio-historical context of politics, economics, and traditions" (p. 53).

Social psychologists, Vygotsky and Bandura among them, developed theories that accentuate social constructivism. Vygotsky's (1962, 1978) theory of intellectual development became known as "contextualist thought," a belief that the intellect is developed through problem-solving under the guidance of others more knowledgeable, in concert with peers. Bandura (1977) argued that individuals acquire knowledge through observation of someone modeling a behavior, attention-retention processing and the effects of self-efficacy, a belief in one's competence (Bruffee, 1986; Gergen, 1985).

Gergen concluded that social psychologists such as Vygotsky and Bandura acquired a new interest in the work of symbolic anthropologists concerned with the social construction of the world. Clifford Geertz, a prominent figure in this field, observed that liberal education must conceive of cognition, motivation, perception and imagination not as internal mental affairs but as directly social affairs (Geertz, 1983). He wrote: "Human thought is consummately social: social in its origins, social in its functions, social in its applications" (Geertz, 1973, p. 76).

Holt (1993) analyzed the assumptions about knowledge made throughout the twentieth century. She investigated factors which contributed to the historical debate regarding the value of constructivism and the value of traditionalism. The debate centers on collaborative learning versus competition and individualism. Holt explains why collaborative pedagogy rejects the orthodox lecture pedagogy. Adherents to collaborative pedagogy question the belief that the acquisition of knowledge is transmitted to the learner by the teacher. They contend that knowledge is created by the learner. Believers dispute the idea that social relations between the learner and the teacher are hierarchical rather than reciprocal and that authority is maintained rather than relinquished or redistributed. The thinking of adherents parallels the pragmatist philosophy Dewey advanced in the 1930s, as manifested in his classroom practices: an "interactive" knowledge constructivist venture.

Contemporary critics who have analyzed Dewey's problem-centered and student-centered approach to learning challenge the assumption that it is a solution to the fragmented, discipline-focused curricula dominant in the existing system of education. Rather than crediting Dewey's philosophy with eliminating fragmentation and incoherence in the curricula, Hirsch (1987) criticized it. He attributes fragmentation and lack of coherence to Dewey's content-neutral pedagogical perspective. Hirsch argued that specific content transmitted to the learner is by far the most important elements of education. He reasoned that a human group must have effective communication, which requires a shared culture, and that shared culture requires understanding of specifics. His solution to the current problems in education is a shared cultural literacy, through scholarly pursuit of truth as found in the "Great Books." Taking a similar position, Bloom (1987) argued that curriculum should focus only on generally recognized classic works to overcome the intellectual crisis in education. He too, saw truth pursued through Great Books. This view

was shared to some extent by Meiklejohn, who created in his enterprise a process known as book seminar in which students and faculty discussed literary works (Meiklejohn, 1932).

Bloom sees value in social learning if in the process substance and rigor are not lost. He acknowledges, however, that students find the departmental structure of education to be bewildering. Recognizing that most professors are specialists, he laments that too many are concerned exclusively with their own fields. Too few concern themselves with the ways that disciplines relate to one another. Some disciplines compete with others. The substance in some contradicts the substance in others. He admits that a core curricula of what he terms "composite courses" taught in collaboration might force specialized professors to broaden their perspectives (Bloom, 1987).

Patrick Hill is recognized nationally as a strong proponent of peer collaboration and for his creation of the "Federated Learning Community" as a mechanism for faculty development. He also deplores the traditional process of segregating subject-matter into solo courses. He warns that this practice is detrimental to students and to the instructional development of faculty. In developing a rationale for learning communities as a mechanism for faculty mentoring and peer support he said:

The learning community responds to the lack of relationship or coherence among most courses. The individual, isolated course standing on its own deprives the students and the teachers of the widest system of coherent curricular support which would relate the disciplines to each other and reinforce the significance of what is being taught...Few people have focused on what it does to the teacher. It deprives the teacher of a support system. (Hill, 1985, p. 2)

### The Role of Mentoring and Modeling in Faculty Development

The concept of mentoring dates back to ancient Greece and Homer's epic poem "The Odyssey." The mythological figure "Mentor" was asked to guide the son of a friend. In recent times, the term has been popularized. Journal articles have advised their readers



in business to select mentors to smooth promotion on career paths. Sands et al. (1991) researched this popularized concept of guidance in higher education. They identified four types of mentoring in educational settings: (a) role-modeling/teaching; (b) encouraging and positive feedback, or peer coaching; (c) socialization to the institution; and (d) advocacy. The theoretical base in support of this component of faculty development can be found in conceptions of human development. Bandura's (1977, 1989) social learning theory described the principles of modeling and identification. Erikson's (1959, 1986) notion of identity transformation, stage theory, emphasized the importance of key relationships during different stages of development. Levinson's (1978, 1986) contextual-dialectical theory described the reciprocal and contextual changes within an individual and the importance of key relationships during various stages of these developmental changes. Another key theory is Maslow's (1970) motivation theory which emphasized relationship-seeking and competence-seeking behavior within one's hierarchy of needs (St. Clair, 1994). A mentoring-modeling relationship is by definition, one that promotes positive changes. Consistent with that understanding, Svinicki (1996) determined through research that the power of peer example completes the expectancy-value motivation model for success. When faculty saw peers skillfully performing in the classroom, their expectations for personal success increased.

#### Perspectives of Peer Mentoring and Modeling

St. Clair further stated that the specific purposes of faculty-to-faculty mentoring at community colleges are to provide models for teaching excellence, for group identity, and to facilitate socialization into the community college culture. After critically reviewing literature on mentoring in community colleges, she found limited empirically supported evidence of studies specifically addressing the benefits of mentor relationships on teaching.

Most of the research that she found on community colleges examined the traditional view of this concept: the mentor as guide and protégée (St. Clair, 1994). However, the number of studies focusing on reciprocal mentoring relationships have increased. For example, one such study was conducted by Miller and Nadler (1994) who examined retention measures for community college faculty. To acculturate and retain new faculty through faculty support systems, they said, a formal process must be in place. Such support is vital for experienced faculty, to enhance productivity and quality of life. Sands et al. (1991) reached similar conclusions following research on reciprocal transactions among faculty. They said that mentor relations among colleagues provide sources of support. As an example, they cited findings that reciprocal relationships among peers are established. Further, they said peer review demonstrated effective instructional strategies and promoted faculty development. Such support created productive and collegial climates.

Another study concluded that the reciprocal benefits of mentoring are not always assured. Investigating the effects of a formal mentoring program at the University of Albany, Xu and Numan (1987) found that the benefits of mentor relationships may not always be reciprocal. The researchers used a survey approach to assess a faculty mentoring program with primary goals of university socialization, research program development, teaching, and advancement toward tenure. While most mentees in this study found the program valuable and important for teaching, mentors did not feel they had gained personally from the experience. Although this study attempted to assess the merits of mentoring, it did not specifically discuss the method used to determine the beneficial effects of mentoring on teaching. In addition, the study was conducted solely at the university level and was restricted to one institution; therefore, the survey population was not representative of the larger community of faculty at either universities or community colleges.

St. Clair (1994) suggested that additional research be conducted to determine the validity of mentoring programs, adding that the development of effective instructional strategies was essential for community college faculty. Typically, many community college faculty are not taught pedagogical strategies. Some of these faculty members model the teaching methods used by faculty in the institutions where they received their academic preparation.

The ability to observe modeled excellence in teaching has been viewed by some faculty members as pivotal to their own instructional development. Yet this opportunity is not often available for many community college faculty. Robbins (1991) stated:

The physical characteristics of schools impose barriers to communication about successful instructional and curricular practices. As a result, many well-kept secrets exist in individual classrooms, and year after year, instructors leave their marks on students' educational experiences but not a trace on the teaching profession. . . . Despite hundreds of years of collective expertise in individual schools, few avenues exist for instructors to tap into this expertise. (pp. 10-11)

It is not generally the norm for instructors to observe each other in the classroom except during the tenure and post-tenure evaluation processes. At other times, faculty members visiting the classroom of others feel as though they are intruding. Glickman (1990) describes the situation in this manner: "Teaching is rooted in a tradition of isolation. From the original one-room schoolhouse to current structures, described as one-room schoolhouses repeated every few yards down the corridor" (p. 68). Weimer (1990) wrote, "Classroom doors are shut as tight as bathroom and bedroom doors but teaching is not a private activity. It happens in front of observers every single time it occurs, so much of teaching can be learned by observing it" (p. 15). This protocol of isolation is not true in the legal and medical professions. Collegial interactions and joint work are expected in these professions (Robbins, 1991). Theoretically, teaching in CSPs appears to overcome the

perceptions of isolation and intrusion, making the instructional process public and supportive.

### Peer Mentoring among Community College Faculty

Harnish and Wild (1993) studied the impact of mutual mentoring through classroom observations as an intentional instructional development activity or as an intervention. The study examined, as well, the dynamics of peer mentoring where both are equals. Equality is equated with mutuality where colleagues or peers give and receive. These arrangements offer mutual benefits. An exchange between a protégée and a sponsor or guide without reciprocity was seen as unequal. Participants in this research were faculty involved in a Title III peer mentoring project. The project was designed to utilize the strengths of peers who had demonstrated effectiveness in instruction at Niagara County Community College. The study was a 5-year longitudinal analysis focusing on 20 to 30 grant-supported faculty projects each year. The data were case studies and videotaped interviews as well as pre- and post- self-assessment measures of faculty. These two researchers found that faculty perceived learning as a two-way process, allowing both to explore new teaching strategies. The researchers drew other conclusions showing the benefits of mutual mentoring. Self-selection is essential for a more intense peer mentoring relationship. Forced matching is detrimental. Cross-disciplinary and interdivisional teams were found to be most effective. The peer mentoring approach seemed to be more collegial than most mentoring relationships. Participant teams used modeling, discussions, observations and feedback. Faculty gained greater understanding of other disciplines and acquired sympathetic understanding for the issues confronting these disciplines by observing presentations of peers. Dialogue increased among senior faculty and support for new professionals became common practices. The teams continued to work together after the project was over. This

peer mentoring process was viewed by the research team as a powerful intervention strategy in the improvement of instruction, and as an essential process for supportive, collegial relationships across disciplines and divisions.

### Models and Principles of Peer Coaching in Instructional Development

Harnish and Wild (1993) described peer coaching, a formal mutual mentoring process which has taken hold in some community colleges. Peer coaching which emerged in the early 1980s, is a process of skill and theory presentation, modeling or demonstration, practice, structured or open-ended feedback, and in-class assistance with transfer (Showers & Joyce, 1996). It is based on Mezirow's (1990) theory of "transformative learning," which is grounded in social constructivism. He contended that individuals validate, construe, and reformulate the meaning of their experiences through human interaction and communication (Mezirow, 1990).

Joyce and Showers (1980), and Showers (1982) conducted studies to determine how teachers learned instructional strategies and how institutions successfully disseminated innovations. They suggest that teachers who had peer coaching relationships in which individuals shared aspects of instruction, planned together, and pooled their experiences were more effective teachers. These teachers practiced their skills and strategies more frequently and applied them more appropriately than their counterparts who worked alone to expand their repertoire. Peer-coaching teams exhibited greater long-term retention of new strategies and more appropriate use of new teaching models over time. In their investigation, they discovered an essential component of the peer coaching paradigm. The coach must be an expert peer with extensive knowledge in the content or skill area being learned, in order for successful transference and implementation to occur (Showers & Joyce, 1996). Similar research was conducted by Veenman, Van Tulder, and Voten (1994).

According to their studies, there is no empirical evidence that training transfers from the stand-alone workshop to the classroom. They sought to determine the effects of inservice education on classroom transference. Further objectives of the study were to determine the essential characteristics for effective implementation of educational innovations. Veenman et al. (1994) inferred that follow-up sessions at intervals after initial workshops with the expert acting as a coach stimulated the learning process for instructors and their adapting capabilities. This development had positive effects on instructor performance and student learning.

Garmston (1994) in his research on the use of peer coaching in faculty development practices, differentiated among the variety of models and approaches utilized in education (e.g., technical coaching, collegial coaching, challenge coaching, team coaching, and cognitive coaching). While fresh labels and intricate adaptations appear nearly every year, all of these peer coaching models are permutations of three basic models. These models are: (a) technical coaching, (b) challenge coaching, and (c) collegial coaching. Garmston focused on collegial coaching to examine the impact of this process on faculty. Collegial coaching is a faculty team effort aimed largely at improving and perfecting existing instructional practices.

The primary benefit in collegial coaching was that it helped the instructor to retain an instructional innovation. Garmston (1994) described the major goals of collegial coaching as refining teaching practices, enhancing self-efficacy, deepening collegiality, increasing professional dialogue, and helping instructors think more deeply about their work. One type of collegial coaching, cognitive coaching, focuses on the development of reflective analysis skills of instructors. The goal of this reflective process is self-perpetuating improvement of teaching. This process is most often conducted by self-

selecting teams of instructors. He believes that self-selection is a motivational factor which is key to an instructor's personal interest and desire for change (Garmston, 1993).

In the cognitive coaching process, an instructor problem-solves with a peer who uses a Socratic questioning process to probe and intellectually engage the faculty member. These metacognitive functions enhance instructors' perceptions and expand their frames of reference. Ultimately, the richest rewards of cognitive coaching are intrinsic: satisfaction in personal and intellectual growth, pleasure at assisting a colleague, and deepening friendships (Garmston, 1994).

Intrinsic satisfaction is often alluded to by faculty who have taught in CSPs. They imply that similar debriefing and problem-solving sessions with team members aid in reflecting on effective pedagogy, expand understanding of content knowledge from multiple perspectives, and formulate friendships (MacGregor, 1990).

Several other researchers have conducted studies on the impact of cognitive coaching or guided reflection to promote instructor development and the impact of such skills development on the teaching and learning process. This research appears to support Garmston's (1994) theories. Thies-Sprinthall and Sprinthall (1987) described characteristics of teachers who function at higher levels of cognition: the ability to empathize, to symbolize experience, and to act in accordance with a disciplined commitment to human values. Based on these researchers' findings, such teachers have greater success in facilitating student learning. In a follow-up study, Reiman and Thies-Sprinthall (1993) examined guided reflection to promote the development of teachers. They found high correlation between transfer of training in innovations and the instructor's level of cognitive complexity and level of moral development. Garmston (1989) studied university-level instructors who were cognitively coached in a year-long peer coaching program. He

maintained that instructors improved in critical self-reflection and demonstrated increased use of certain cognitive skills related to exemplary teaching. Increased self-confidence and gains in student learning were reported.

A similar cognitive coaching process is a widespread practice within the Japanese culture. This process is used by Japanese companies as a corporate strategy for continuous improvement. Role-models are used to perpetuate the new culture, through the diffusion of sound management principles in training employees. Robinson and Stern (1995) in their article on the Management Training Program (MTP) and its derivative courses, provide a comprehensive description of an existing human resource development process in Japan. The format is designed to enhance higher intellectual thinking among institute participants. Underlying this process is the theory that good instructional development utilizes an expert coach guiding the process, practice, self-reflection, and conceptualizing the new skill, improving the method, and applying the new skill. Structured like Garmston's cognitive coaching process, the MTP utilizes Socratic methods to stimulate thinking and to develop the participant's analytical skills. MTP includes an experiential process by having participants teach a portion of the course to the others. Participants gain the advantage of applying new skills in this process.

An approach similar to that of MTP is applied in the development of Japanese classroom teachers. Research conducted by Stigler and Stevenson (1991) led to favorable findings. The two carried out a comparative study of mathematics teaching in Japan, Taiwan, and the United States. Their study found that in Japan and Taiwan, a systematic effort is made to pass on the accumulated wisdom of teaching practices to each new generation of teachers. Practices are perfected through the provision of opportunities for teachers to learn continually from each other. As in MTP, human relations, peer



involvement, and continuous improvement are essential elements. Peer coaching, collegial relations, mentoring, and feedback are fundamental in their instructional development practices. They work in teaching teams to plan lessons, do peer observations, and prepare under the guidance of master teachers. This study reported that teachers in Japan and Taiwan demonstrate more collegial relations with peers, feel better about gaining the knowledge they need to be successful teachers, and give more positive responses about staying in the profession than do teachers in the United States.

Mentoring, modeling, peer coaching, and the permutations of these basic models combine to form a common, fundamental theme of collaboration in the process of instructional development. Researchers have investigated the role of collaborative learning in the development of instructional innovations and the impact of the group process on individual knowledge construction. Collaboration is an essential component in the CSP. An understanding of collaborative learning will help clarify the underpinnings of social constructivist thought. Examination of the notable factors in collaborative learning is interrelated with an understanding of the potential development aspects of CSPs and other learning community models.

### Collaborative Learning and Its Historical Foundations

While collaborative learning gained prominence among American college instructors in the 1980s, its origins go back to the middle of this century (Bruffee, 1984). The term was coined and the idea conceptualized in the 1950s and 1960s by Mason, James and Smith, a group of British secondary teachers, and by Abercrombie, a biologist teaching medical students in London. During the Vietnam era, these instructors were committed to democratizing education (Bruffee, 1984).

Bruffee maintained that collaborative learning has its foundation in social constructivism, indicating that this form of instructional development is based on the premise that learning occurs among persons rather than between persons and objects of study. Reinforcing Bruffee's position, Rorty (1979) demonstrated that we must understand how knowledge is established and maintained through discourse of "communities of knowledgeable peers."

In later work, Bruffee (1986) viewed scholarship and research and our role as classroom instructors as essentially and directly "social affairs." He pointed out that the work of scholars and teachers is derived from the epistemological tradition that all academic fields of study have followed since the seventeenth century, a belief that the structure of knowledge is based on a universal foundation, background or framework. He indicated that social constructivism, on the other hand, assumes that thinking is an internalized version of talking, and that thought is not an individual process but a vernacular language of a community of knowledgeable peers. His theory leads to the conclusion that knowledge is a social construct. Bruffee argued that some teachers who have adopted social constructivist assumptions using collaborative learning have found that they better understand what they are attempting to do. Their greater comprehension has enhanced the teaching and learning process. He conceded that research on the effects of collaborative learning in college and university education is limited.

#### Collaborative Learning in Instructional Development

Although Bruffee's (1981, 1984, 1986) reflections relate largely to constructivist views of knowledge, understanding, and ways that collaboration affects student learning, other educators have recognized the potential of collaborative learning for faculty instructional development. This milieu of instructional development includes more than an

interest in teaching, which in the past has been the dominant focus of faculty development. In addition, the term instructional development does not have some of the negative connotations associated with the term "faculty development" (Wulff, 1995). The more expansive terminology "instructional development" was defined by the American Association of Higher Education in the late 1970s as the theory and practice of improving faculty performance in the personal, social, and professional realms (Scott, 1990). This eclectic approach to growth and development through collaborative efforts provides positive role models, and opens avenues for renewal, rejuvenation, penetrating intellectual stimulation, and organizational development (Menges, 1985). This understanding is based on the findings that collaborative instructional development "reframes instructors' work and their institutional relationships by turning teachers back into learners" (Smith, 1988, p. 173). Tetenbaum and Mulkeen (1986), in their analysis of collaborative approaches to instructional development, defined learning as,

a problem-centered, shared activity across experiential levels. Student teachers, neophyte teachers, experienced teachers and master teachers all contribute to identifying and solving genuine work-related problems in their school setting through a collaborative process. (p. 632)

This model of development recognizes that teachers are capable of assessing their own development needs and are professionals who can best learn from one another.

This expanded understanding appears in Brody's (1995) definition of collaborative learning. She noted that the concept has a particular epistemological orientation in social constructivism. She wrote that it creates an avenue for assessing the attributes of group discourse and a way to view learning as development. Collaborative learning has become synonymous with change in the instructional life of higher education in the last few years. She contended that the ideas behind collaborative learning can assist teachers, staff

developers and administrators in examining the learning context that stimulates successful educational strategies.

Several studies have indicated that faculty interactions across discipline boundaries result in enhanced intellectual skills. One researcher, Dial-Driver (1993), looked at the effectiveness of a collaborative project in stimulating intellectual interest by bringing a collective orientation across disciplines and departments to a group of community college faculty. During the three terms of the grant-funded project, faculty met once a week, discussing, synthesizing, and evaluating assigned readings and their written reflective papers. She reported that this cross-disciplinary approach to learning enabled participants to conceptualize relationships between and among disciplines. Faculty indicated in this curriculum transformation process, that they had developed increased feelings of scholarly community and collegiality across campus. They also developed an appreciation and awareness of other disciplines and affirmed their own disciplines in innovative ways. The validity of these findings may be questionable since her study did not include pre-assessment of participants to measure changes in perceptions.

Mathis et al. (1988) researched related theories. In an empirical longitudinal study of a regional program at Stanford University. This faculty renewal program was designed to facilitate faculty performance in a variety of realms, including the intellectual, personal, social, and pedagogical. Participants came to the institution from community colleges and baccalaureate institutions in Washington, Oregon, and California. The faculty members, at various stages of their careers, shared a desire for revitalization. The program involved a summer session of book seminars and periodic weekend reunion sessions for discussion of assigned readings with interdisciplinary themes. Interviews were conducted with a cross-section of participants and all were surveyed over the 6-year period of the project. Mathis

and his team found that collaborative learning in faculty development approaches result in significant gains in understanding regarding pedagogical theories, intellectual ability, content knowledge and comprehension of the interrelations among disciplines. Faculty reported improvement in pedagogical practices with greater respect for collaborative and cooperative learning. They developed enhanced networking skills and set more focused personal and professional goals (Mathis et al., 1988).

Recently, Bell and Gilbert (1994) conducted a 3-year qualitative research project using interviews, surveys, and classroom observations to investigate personal, social, and professional development of 48 participants involved in a teacher development project. The program consisted of workshop activities led by an expert and weekly 2-hour meetings devoted to problem-sharing. The teachers provided each other with support and feedback, and utilized reflective processes for self-evaluation. They also made a series of visits to each other's classrooms. A constructivist view of learning underpinned the program. Bell and Gilbert provided an overview of the adult learning process as it relates to teacher learning and development by focusing on three domains of development. They defined the domains as:

1.      Personal development. Ability to accept problematic aspects of one's teaching. Ability to effectively deal with restraints and to achieve internal locus-of-control (feelings of personal empowerment, in decision-making and in solving problems arising from teaching). Alleviating the "Atlas Complex" (need to be central and responsible for classroom learning) (Finkel & Monk, 1983).
2.      Social development. Seeing isolation in the classroom as problematic. Trusting and valuing relationships and collaborative ways of working with peers. Seeking

and initiating coordinated instructional development activities to support others, to gain new insights and to share talents. Having a sense of community and facilitating social activism.

3. Professional development. Engaging in cognitive development and effective classroom practices:

a. Intellectual development. Clarifying existing beliefs regarding discipline knowledge. Obtaining input and new information through discussion with peers, readings, formal research, and scholarship. Constructing new understanding by linking new information with existing ideas. Seeking epistemology through consistent, formal measures and adopting a social constructivist perspective. Developing metacognitive awareness by reflecting on and accepting new constructs and using newly accepted understandings in a variety of contexts with confidence. Sharing this expertise and new understanding with others. Presenting allocentric [through perspectives of others] views on issues.

b. Pedagogical development. Adopting the role of teacher-as-researcher and teacher-as-learner in assessing instructional practices. Clarifying concepts and beliefs about teaching and learning. Obtaining new suggestions for teaching activities, considering them, visualizing, and planning for use in teaching. Adapting to innovations, sharing classroom experiences with others, obtaining feedback, evaluating the new activities, and training others in the new innovation.

Bell and Gilbert (1994) believed that a loose and flexible sequence is involved in these three domains of development, a sequence demonstrated over time in the instructor-learning and growth process. They theorized that these characteristics are demonstrated through various facets of development labeled initial, second, and third. They determined that radical educational reform will require instructors to engage in the "renegotiation of the

culture of teaching rather than going it alone." They maintained that "social learning is essential for innovations to become permanent practices" (p. 494). Bell and Gilbert concluded that peer collaboration, metacognitive coaching, reflective analysis, and practice in the presence of peers were successful avenues for development within all three of these domains — personal, social, and professional.

The place of experiential learning activities and collaborative group interaction in instructional development has been examined by other research teams as well. Veenman et al. (1994) determined that practice activities, discussion, collaboration, and information exchange among instructors appear to be an important aspect of learning. Sharing ideas with other instructors results in improvement in classroom instruction. The process does not end with adoption of these procedures. It is not complete without follow-up meetings at intervals after the training for information-sharing and problem-solving, once instructors have had time to try out the innovation. Romer (1985) has expressed similar opinions regarding collaborative models of faculty interactions. She indicated that such interactions with peers can challenge faculty members, sometimes provoking a considerable reorientation of their pedagogical perspectives. Learning is significantly enhanced through opportunities to practice the desired skills, she believes. The learning process is facilitated when knowledge is shaped by the intellectual activities and perspectives of several faculty meeting collectively to discuss teaching and learning.

#### Collaborative Learning in Contrast to Self-Directed Development

Some educators disagree with the conclusion that peer collaboration is most effective for faculty development. Researchers have compared self-directed instructional development to group-centered instructional development. They have argued the case for self-direction, on the basis that social development may deprive faculty of individual

autonomy. Candy (1991) conducted research on self-directed learning in teachers. She determined that this concept has a four-faceted construct and is both process and goal-oriented. These elements are: (a) personal autonomy — a disposition toward thinking and acting independently, (b) self-management — the willingness and capacity to conduct one's own education, (c) learner control — individual decision-making regarding the value of an educational opportunity, and (d) autodidaxy — personal noninstitutional pursuit of learning opportunities in the natural societal setting.

The underlying assumption in this framework is that faculty are personally accountable for their professional development, have individual needs, and seek ways to foster self-management of their learning about teaching strategies. Faculty are viewed as having a predisposition for knowing what they need to learn about teaching strategies and will select related strategies for that learning. She theorized that this predisposition is the basis for certain faculty avoiding participation in development programs to learn about instructional innovations (Candy, 1991). Cranton (1994) countered this theoretical perspective by arguing that the facets described by Candy are motivational factors for the adult learner. The motivational factors are misinterpretations of Knowles' (1980) theoretical model called "andragogy," that described the self-directed adult learner. According to Cranton, the assumption that adults prefer self-directed learning gained early prominence with Plato's theory of "Reality and Truth" in individual intellectual development. She stated that Candy's assumption that instructors are best served through individualized approaches to professional development may be relevant in instances where such development is discipline-focused. Cranton maintained that faculty avoid faculty development programs because the case for innovation is not supported by comprehensive theoretical foundations or empirical research supporting these theories.



Boice (1991) agreed that faculty are self-directed learners within their own disciplines, but he argued that when working as instructors they tend to describe improvement from the perspective of a lecturer. Instructors see improvement as: "preparing better lectures with more organized content" (p.164). He added that they are inclined to stay with the initial style that they develop as new teachers, a style that is generally based on the performance of their professors in undergraduate and graduate school. Cranton (1994) supported Boice's position, basing her argument on the observation that instructors learn effective pedagogical practices as reflected in Mezirow's (1990) theory of "transformative learning." She concluded that this theory leads faculty to view learning as a process for becoming aware of one's assumptions, and revising these assumptions based on hearing the perspectives of others on these issues, and then engaging in critical self-reflection. This procedure is enhanced by participation in informal instructional development strategies to exchange information with colleagues.

#### Barriers to Diffusion of Innovations and Collaborative Processes

Although collaborative interactions may be viewed by some proponents as an essential mechanism for diffusion of innovations, others point out the difficulty in wide-spread implementation of such processes. Gamson (1994) analyzed the challenges and barriers to institution-wide collaboration among faculty. She indicated that since faculty normally do not talk with other instructors about their teaching, there is little opportunity for collaboration on faculty development issues related to teaching and learning innovations. This lack of communication makes it difficult for new practices to spread throughout the institution beyond those who are currently utilizing them. Additionally, she pointed out that many faculty lack skills in collaborative processes and need to focus on social development to learn the highly refined skills of designing, facilitating, and

participating in group work. She commented further that without professional development in collaborative processes, group problem-solving processes among faculty often fail because of competitiveness, jealousy, and territoriality. Brody (1995) supports Gamson's position on the status of collaborative learning practices among faculty. She commented that whether educators are scholars or practitioners in community colleges or in graduate programs, they are aware that too few conversations occur among their colleagues regarding the uncertainties, ambiguities, and ethical dilemmas of teaching. Faculty find it difficult to seek others outside of their particular academic or occupational field and therefore, lack the enrichment that comes from cross-disciplinary interaction and cross-professional dialogue. Failure to engage in collaborative discussions is viewed as the main reason that so many known innovations fade into obscurity or face ridicule.

Some educators have determined that the failure of innovations can be attributed to a number of other factors. Alexander, Murphy, and Woods (1996) ascribed the failure of innovations to practices and behaviors that are significant. They conducted a study to examine unsuccessful attempts in implementing successful teaching approaches. Alexander et al. discovered among instructors two conditions that inhibited success. First, practitioners do what they know — the human tendency to demonstrate only those skills or behaviors that are fully understood in addressing fundamental issues in teaching and learning. Second, practitioners know about what they do — a recognition that limited knowledge adversely affects the adoption of an innovation. They argued that under this second rubric, mastery relies on a firm understanding of the innovation and engagement in collaborative discussions with peers. Extensive knowledge about related research and theories underlying these innovations must be provided in the instructional development process. This process must include the how and why for implementation to occur. The

importance of providing faculty with background information on empirically- established theories and research findings in helping them address solutions to specifically identified problems in pedagogical practices was also stressed by Richardson and Moore (1987).

These findings maintain that collaborative learning processes and the provision of extensive knowledge regarding underlying theories are effective faculty development approaches. However, none of these studies considered the essential components for successful collaborative experiences. Blui (1991) examined these components using the case method. She investigated a peer collaboration program at an urban community college to determine the crucial elements in the group process for effective peer collaboration. Characteristics such as trust, reflectivity, reciprocity, support and mutual benefit, honesty, respect, candidness, and peer control were found to be important practices for successful collaborative experiences. Participants reported transformation of their teaching and deepened powers of reflection and decision-making. This process is recommended by these participants as a viable form of faculty development, particularly for encouraging adoption of more effective teaching practices.

One issue which impacts faculty availability for collaborative discussions among peers is lack of time due to workload. However, some educators have found ways to overcome this barrier. Collaborative discussions are further enhanced by team-teaching in interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary instructional programs. Smith (1988) maintained that interdisciplinary studies models such as learning communities are most effective in diffusing innovations and enhancing opportunities for collaborative encounters. Strategies that are utilized in this model such as exposure to relevant theories, provisions for practicing new techniques and receiving feedback through coaching while applying that practice appeared to promote development (Menges, 1985). However, in spite of what may

be known about successful approaches to instructional development, traditional models with poor track records remain dominant in community college settings. A review of various approaches to faculty development will provide better understanding of these issues.

### Community College Faculty Development Models

#### Impact of Traditional Models and Obstacles to Success

As community colleges undergo rapid change, strong faculty development programs are of vital importance to survival and effectiveness. Colleges are impacted by funding, student demographics, and public accountability (Smith & Beno, 1995). These dilemmas, however, do not result from limited commitment to faculty development. A study examining community colleges investment in faculty development found that the national average expenditure per institution exceeds \$90,000. Yet it appears that the amount spent on instructional development does not always equate to achievement. Richardson and Moore (1987) surveyed community colleges regarding indicators of effectiveness, determining that the vast majority had formal faculty development programs. The two researchers used as indicators, measures of change in both faculty and student performance. They maintained that instructional development programs were not effective. Further, the two found little evidence that such programs were being used as a major instrument for institutional change and improvement that is linked to the college mission and goals.

Some educators are convinced that the deficiency of faculty development efforts can be traced to program format. One researcher in this category, Angelo (1994) wrote that "critics of faculty development programs believe that the typical model of learning implicit in most faculty development efforts contributes to their failure. The most commonly

practiced approach is a quantitative, additive model" (p. 3). Its underlying assumption is that by participating in a number of development activities, regardless of their relevance, coherence or content, instructors will somehow improve. Smith and Beno (1995) wrote that the problem is compounded by use of the least effective methods of instructional development (e.g., workshops, newsletters). In a survey of 386 community college faculty, less than 10% desired local workshops (Maxwell & Kazauskas, 1992). Those findings help support the earlier conclusions of Jennings, Barler, and Bartling (1991). They determined that professional development officers tend to be disillusioned about the quality of the program while faculty are only moderately satisfied with the offering. Negative focus is another barrier. Development activities typically focus on overcoming teaching and faculty deficiencies rather than on methods of improving learning and approaches to intellectual development. This negative focus can unintentionally leave faculty feeling threatened about their status and professional autonomy. Most development programs diminish rather than help faculty develop self-awareness for diagnosis and improvement (Jennings et al., 1991).

Negative focus is often coupled with an oversight, the failure to recognize the importance of discipline-specific "ways of knowing." A survey indicated that faculty instructional goals differed more by academic discipline than by any other characteristic. Therefore, faculty are skeptical about the possibility that a person from outside of the discipline will comprehend discipline-specific teaching and learning issues (Angelo & Cross, 1993).

Siskin (1994), using interviews along with observational and survey data, conducted a study which examined the context of teaching in American high schools to determine the factors influencing teaching and learning. She found that instructors described a sense of subject orientation and departmental isolation in the schools. Efforts to

create new collaborative interdisciplinary models by restructuring the schools for teacher interaction have been impacted by school funding. She concluded that there were four critical aspects of school organization: (a) departments represent a strong boundary in dividing the school; (b) they provide a primary site for social interaction and professional community; (c) they have considerable discretion over professional development, and the micro-political decisions affecting what and how teachers teach; and (d) as a knowledge category, the discipline determines the languages and world-views of those who inhabit its realm.

A later study by Grossman and Stodolsky (1995) found evidence to support the finding that instructors belong to distinctive subject subcultures characterized by differing beliefs, norms and practices. Further, the subject-matter undergirds the organizational structure in the form of academic departments. Essentially, through undergraduate and graduate majors, subject-specific method courses and professional organizations, the discipline defines the identity and career-long professional development of instructors. Grossman and Stodolsky found that understanding subject-matter differences is crucial for successful faculty development efforts. Disciplines are to education as nations are to the earth. The faculty member who is the single instructor in a discipline may have a flag, but in isolation finds no one else to speak the language of the discipline. Neither study discussed the plight of faculty members in community colleges who may be the only instructor in a respective subject, although both appear to validate the conclusion reached by others regarding the importance of discipline-department identity. Discipline-based interactions and professional affiliations are certainly important to community college faculty but do not provide day-to-day sustenance essential for alleviating isolation and loneliness. Seidman (1985) documented the loneliness and isolation faced by many

instructors in the community college system who have no discipline peers within their departments. Interdisciplinary dialogues and cross-divisional peer interactions may be the only recourse for faculty in such situations.

### Barriers to Faculty Participation

A major barrier to involvement in instructional development activities arises from faculty members' lack of awareness of how well they are doing. In reality, most faculty think they are doing better at teaching than they probably are — a misconception that works to reduce their inclination to seek assistance. A survey of community college faculty members found that many believed their own teaching was above-average (Blackburn et al., 1980). This lack of awareness stems from inaccurate information about student learning and limited comparative perspective since faculty rarely observe their colleagues' teaching. However, a later discipline-specific study contradicted these findings. In a survey of 250 full-time faculty in the discipline of teacher preparation, faculty expressed the highest need for development in the area of teaching and learning (Pasquale, 1991).

A common obstacle to faculty participation is the focus on extrinsic rather than intrinsic motivational factors which are most often prevalent in faculty development programs. Incentives of public praise or cash awards seldom promote teacher effectiveness (McKeachie, 1979; O'Connell, 1983). Relevance of the program appears to be an important variable for greater involvement of faculty.

Faculty involvement in the process of planning and evaluation of the instructional development program is essential for viable programs. Smith and Beno (1995) found that many professional development officers do not solicit feedback from faculty regarding the topic selection, focus of the programs, and level of success in achieving the goals of the program. A study conducted by Jennings et al. (1991) found that only 50% of the

community colleges surveyed had a formal evaluation process for their development programs. Programs that consistently conduct research and evaluation processes are limited, an acknowledged weakness of faculty development programs in community colleges (Harnish & Wild, 1992, 1993; Smith & Beno, 1995). Faculty ownership and involvement in the direction of instructional development programs appear to increase participation and enhance program success.

### Institutional Impact on Instructional Development

Perry (1980) maintained that institutional climate, personal characteristics of faculty, and their impact on behavior play a major role in the level of cooperation and participation of faculty in the institution's instructional development efforts. He conducted a study to examine these conditions in relation to situational factors. He theorized that behavior of faculty needs to be examined within an organization; therefore, it is important to consider how organizational structure, rules, policies and the decision-making process affect behavior. The findings suggest that institutional climate affects faculty participation and institutional effectiveness. What were offered as suggestions by Perry become firm conclusions in the research of Seidman (1985). Seidman found that faculty autonomy in decision-making and relationships between faculty and administration play a major role in shaping faculty members' level of participation. Bureaucratization in the community college can expand and deepen the sense of isolation and affect faculty morale. Smith (1988) stated that the bureaucracy in community colleges has undermined faculty's sense of personal power and sense of community.

Other conditions that affect faculty participation in development include the process for recognition and rewards, respect and consideration, showing of warmth and support from administrative leaders and peers, locus-of-control, and participatory governance.



Faculty independence in decisions regarding instructional design, format and delivery shapes institutional climate. That in turn often encourages involvement in instructional development (Foley & Clifton, 1990).

### Community College Faculty Profile, Workloads, and Availability

#### Profile on Community College Faculty

A national profile on community college faculty provides a background for Washington State statistics. Nationally, the median age for full-time community college faculty is 50. The full-time and part-time mix is 35 % full-time and 65 % part-time. Women are 42% of this total population and men are 58 % (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, American Association of Community Colleges 1994 Annual Report).

The 1995 annual report from the Washington State Board for Community and Technical Colleges shows similar data for faculty. The median age for full-time faculty is 49. The full-time/part-time mix is 53 % full-time and 47 % part-time. Gender distribution for full-time faculty positions stands at 44.5% women and 55.5% men. The average number of years of service for full-time faculty both locally and nationally is currently 10 years, but the turnover rate is increasing as growing numbers of faculty reach retirement age.

The national average salary plus benefits for community college faculty is listed as \$54,936 by the American Association of University Professors (1994). Numbers consistent with the national norms appeared in the 1995 report of the Washington State Board for Community and Technical Colleges. In Washington, as well as nationally, the average salary with benefits for full-time faculty was \$55,508.60. Faculty salaries are low in

comparison to most of the private sector counterparts with similar years of formal education and professional experience. Low salaries coupled with deterioration of rewards, lowered quality of work environment, and loss of social status contributed to an increasing turnover rate and reduced success in recruiting new faculty (Scott, 1990).

### Community College Faculty Shortage

Community colleges nationally are facing an impending faculty shortage. Current surveys conducted by the American Council on Education indicate that faculty shortages reached a critical level in 1991; one-half of the community colleges experienced faculty shortages in one or more disciplines. Many community college faculty have been in their positions for 20 years or more, entering the system during the great expansion of the 1960s (Mingle, 1993). Community colleges experienced a faculty turnover rate of 50% over a 5-year period. Accordingly, by 1993, three out of five full-time community college instructors were new hires. The larger part of this turnover was attributed to retirements. But resignations among dissatisfied younger faculty in some academic disciplines and vocational programs constitute a significant number as well (Higgins et al., 1994).

This situation is further exacerbated by increased competition for funding. Many community colleges, reacting to pressure from funding sources to down-size the institution, elected to re-staff faculty vacancies with part-time instructors. A rapid increase in the number of part-time faculty is radically transforming the full-time/part-time ratio of community colleges (American Association of Community Colleges, 1994). Adjunct faculty bring enormous dedication to their teaching positions, seeking to prove their competence and believing that their diligence will be rewarded. However, their limited availability inhibits involvement and consistent contact with full-time faculty. Further, their limited

availability and adds to the burden of full-time faculty for student mentoring and support, committee-work, and college service (Frey, 1995).

### Faculty Workload Issues

In recent national surveys on faculty workloads, Mingle (1993) found that the national average student/faculty ratio for community colleges was 25:1. Similarly, the ratio in Washington, reported by the Washington State Board for Community and Technical Colleges (1995), was 24:1. Community college faculty reported spending an average of 47 hours a week in all activities and an average of 15.2 hours a week in the classroom. Faculty reported working more hours than ever before. These studies, whether at the national or state level, are remarkably consistent and show an increase over the past four decades in total hours worked. If the definition of work is extended to include work-at-home related to teaching, the total hours represents an impressive time commitment (Mingle, 1993). The findings show that community college faculty are as dedicated as those in earlier times, and are possibly more committed to take part in a diverse range of activities. Expectations, however, increase. They are called upon to do more, and to become better at doing more.

### Community College Faculty Morale

#### Isolation and Disengagement

Instructors face a dilemma. Even as they are summoned to devote more of themselves to their work, they find the conditions for work deteriorating. But the problems accounting for the instructor's dilemma have not been articulated on community college campuses. Seidman (1985) found one answer in the culture of the institution: "Teaching is often an isolated and lonely endeavor for community college faculty. To admit that one has

problems or is feeling severe stress or to articulate successes and hopes for the future is not a common experience in faculty lives" (p. xii). The overall picture in community colleges is that of an isolated, aging, stable faculty with reduced chances for mobility and diminishing opportunities for professional development through sabbaticals and other opportunities to engage in research and scholarship. This general picture contrasts with the sizable segment of younger, lonely, and unsettled faculty with short-term commitments — 5 years or less — to the institutions in some disciplines and in vocational programs. McBride, Munday, and Tunnell (1992) conducted a study of community college faculty and isolation, based on a 1985 Carnegie Foundation survey of 5,000 newly hired faculty members at community colleges. Forty percent indicated that they would consider leaving their positions in 5 years because of dissatisfaction. The study of McBride and Tunnell indicated that a high degree of job ambiguity and role conflict correlated with job dissatisfaction.

Frey (1995) found that faculty work under more stress, with declining vitality and under less collegial conditions. Morale is adversely affected by increasing numbers of under-prepared students, pressure for higher grades, apathetic peers, retrenchment in higher education, low salaries, declining institutional support and absence of opportunities for peer interaction. At the same time, faculty are denied an adequate role in the making of decisions that govern their conditions.

These morale issues and dilemmas are not new outcomes for community college faculty. Seidman (1985), in his qualitative studies conducted over a 3-year period, presented a penetrating, detailed view of the work of community college faculty across the United States, in their own words. He described a college faculty member's stressful day-to-day experiences in which time to think, plan, engage in research and scholarship and respond to student papers is almost nonexistent, because of commitments and expectations

associated with student-centered teaching. From his interviews emerged a vision of community college faculty members stuck in an ambiguous and powerless position in the higher education hierarchy. Their ambiguous position stems from a lack of collegial contact with discipline peers. This ambiguity is what the researcher calls the false dichotomy between career education and academic curricula (Seidman, 1985). These findings have implications for the status and power of community college faculty. Inequities in collegial relations and fragmented curricula threaten to make a serious problem worse.

Baldwin (1983) found that community college faculty are locked into narrow career paths with few challenges and little change in their basic responsibilities. In a recent study conducted by Campion (1994), many community college faculty reported that they had been in the same positions for more than 20 years. These faculty indicated discontent with their work and desire for new challenges and experiences. Possible reasons for the discontent can be extracted from an earlier study. Smith (1988) described the plight of community college faculty who in many instances are broadly trained but relegated to "repetitive mind-deadening redundancy in their work which is a hidden disease slowly eating away at faculty vitality" (p. 173). Some community college faculty have said that they have fewer opportunities to develop and advance their intellectual interests because of a lack of emphasis on research and scholarship outside of sabbatical leave awards (Seidman, 1985).

#### Faculty Vitality and Motivation

Faculty perceptions regarding locus-of-control and the degree of structure imposed are seen as important determinants of vitality, motivation, and effectiveness. Rotter and Mulry (1965) wrote that: "Locus-of-control is a generalized expectancy regarding the source of reinforcement for behavior and is believed to be a relatively permanent dimension

of personality" (p. 598). The extent to which a faculty member attributes personal behavior to be effective in controlling his or her environment can affect underlying attitudes, expectations, perceptions, and motivations within the institution. Individual autonomy, responsibility, and a feeling of being valued can contribute to a sense of well-being and foster positive attitudes. When adjustments are forced by external circumstances instead of arising from personal interests, the likely result is hostility or withdrawal (Menges, 1985). Foley and Clifton (1990) found that high motivation has internal orientation. Those faculty members who are unmotivated and disengaged are believed to have external orientation- a belief that the power of others, fate or chance affects their behavior. Bandura's (1977, 1989) theory of self-efficacy holds that an individual's behavior and ability to perform certain kinds of work depends on his or her belief regarding personal capabilities and the degree of self-direction. O'Hara (1990) found that self-esteem is the central variable influencing faculty motivation.

Although some studies have determined that community college faculty workloads may be demanding, stressful and demoralizing (Baldwin, 1983; Campion, 1994; Seidman, 1985), other studies have found that the greatest internal source of faculty motivation arises from the work itself. Many faculty find satisfaction in associating with students and in the opportunity to contribute to student development. Piland and Frase (1992), in a survey of 273 full-time community college faculty, found that faculty enter and remain in their profession for one altruistic reason, to help others learn. Higgins et al. (1994) in a study of full-time community college faculty members in general education, occupation, and technical programs, found that 75% said that the most important reason for remaining in their position was a high regard for teaching. The study began with identification of 285 faculty as highly committed to their institution's mission. Teaching experience ranged from

6 to 30 years. When asked to identify characteristics of successful teaching at the community college level, 94 % of the faculty rated communication and interpersonal skills as the most important. Ability to relate to peers and to students followed. Rated third was high intellectual development in the discipline. Ninety-six percent valued teaching at the community college level over the baccalaureate institution because they preferred the emphasis on teaching. They also expressed high regard for autonomy and preferred self-directed elements in their work.

#### Faculty Productivity and Continued Development

Campion's (1994) observations of community college faculty came in his study of productivity-high aspirations and a desire for change and diversification in one's professional life. He examined the effects of a project that provided graduate-level courses as continuing education for faculty. The project was a partnership between community college and graduate schools that provided work site courses on community college education and innovative pedagogical practices to faculty. He asserted that such programs facilitate faculty productivity.

Hansen and Rhodes (1982) maintained that graduate-level programs for community college faculty should focus on problems related to community college education. While they found that the doctoral degree is the most effective form of faculty motivation and development, they conceded that the pathway is inaccessible to most instructors. These two researchers cited the following barriers to graduate school attendance: (a) the full-time attendance requirement of some graduate schools, (b) availability and accessibility of degree programs, and (c) the high cost of attendance. Sydow (1994), surveying community college faculty, found that most preferred the graduate degree as a source of motivation and productivity.

These studies (Campion, 1994; Hansen & Rhodes, 1982) did not include faculty demographics; therefore, it is unclear whether the subjects represented a cross-section of faculty in relation to gender, years of experience and age. Barriers in access, as Hansen and Rhodes described, reduced the number of community college faculty able to take advantage of graduate study. They also found that community college faculty who had already received doctorates were less likely to seek renewal through post graduate work.

Awareness of these limitations has stimulated interest in research focusing on faculty performance and productivity. Some may assume that few older faculty have the energy for seeking respecialization, to seek professional development in an additional specialty area or to pursue graduate education. Much of the speculation on how aging affects productivity has rested on observations made outside of education. These concerns have motivated interest in research focusing on faculty role performance and productivity. Lawrence and Blackburn (1988) examined these issues in education. Questions about faculty role performance have focused on the impact of life-course changes, age group differences, physiological changes, and the psychological-sociological aspects of human aging. The study focused on specific characteristics. These attributes included intrinsic motivation, professional reputation and instrumental benefits, peer expectations, and other elements of social reinforcement. These elements were examined in a longitudinal study for their potential correlation with faculty productivity. The research indicated that highly productive, motivated faculty maintained their level of participation when they: (a) viewed their contributions to the profession as psychologically beneficial, (b) received social reinforcement from the institution and their peers, and (c) were highly respected in the profession. Not surprisingly, faculty who experience failure were not ongoing participants in the social systems of the profession and the college. Age, the researchers concluded, is



neither a predictor nor an inhibitor of faculty productivity. A controlling, bureaucratic environment impacts the productivity level of faculty at any age.

#### Scholarship as Renewal, Vitality, and Collegiality

Teaching, as the founders of the 2-year college system envisioned in their mission, was the first responsibility of faculty (Cohen & Brawer, 1972). Research was relegated as peripheral interest. That lower priority was questioned by Seidman (1985) who argued that opportunities for research and scholarship are essential means of renewal. However, he acknowledged that community college faculty cannot be expected to conduct research without reassigned time and workload shifts. "They have reached or exceeded the tolerable limits of volunteerism under the guise of disciplinary success," he wrote (p. 261). In describing results of his study, he indicated that separation of research and teaching leads to decreased self-respect. To find satisfaction and recognition, faculty directed their interests away from the college. One major explanation for these contrasting perspectives arises from the variations in how research and scholarship were traditionally defined and how they are defined today. A more comprehensive definition of scholarship is recognized by some community college educators. Marshood (1995) broadly defines community college faculty scholarship as, "any activity encompassing integration, application and presentation of knowledge in the core activities of curriculum development, service and teaching" (p. 52). He equates scholarship with professional activity, research and publication, artistic endeavors, engagement with novel ideas, community service, and creative pedagogy. Engagement in scholarly work, he contends, improves teaching, combats boredom, and enhances the faculty member's self-image. Boyer (1987) outlines a similar view of scholarship for community college faculty, stressing teaching and learning processes in his definition. He contends that faculty scholarship enriches the knowledge that is brought to

the classroom and cultivates an overall college atmosphere of intellectual vitality and effervescence, the heart of effective teaching. A broadened view of scholarship appeared in Seidman's study. He saw scholarship as an avenue for revitalizing faculty who may have become disengaged from their academic discipline or technical field and as a way of aligning the educational mission of the college with higher education and the needs of society (Seidman, 1985).

Mahaffey and Welch (1993) studied the effects of applying this broader definition of scholarship and research to measurements of vitality of community college faculty. They examined the value placed on scholarship by faculty, their level of achievement, level of campus involvement, career mobility, gains in respect, and recognition of peers. Their study also assessed the benefits of teaching and job satisfaction. Ninety percent of the subjects indicated that they liked to engage in research and scholarship. Subjects implied that scholarship affected their creativity, enthusiasm, and teaching effectiveness. The majority identified the most rewarding or pleasurable blend of faculty time as a combination of teaching, student-and-colleague interactions, and discipline or field-related scholarship. Faculty who actively engaged in scholarship were most often involved in articulation between 2 and 4-year colleges and universities or in partnerships with business and industry. Mathis et al. (1988) maintained that scholarly pursuits and acquisition of content knowledge in another discipline area resulted in increased enthusiasm for teaching, interest in networking, and regeneration of personal and professional goals. They found that cross-divisional interdisciplinary team-teaching provides faculty the opportunity to acquire new knowledge in another discipline. Team-teaching has proven beneficial whether it brought together senior faculty with years of teaching experiencing burnout or dissatisfied younger faculty. This finding is shared by faculty with teaching experience in CSPs who

attest that despite the demands imposed by rigor of the new venture, the multidisciplinary research and scholarship are rejuvenating. Involvement in planning and developing curricula for these programs have provided them with new knowledge, insights and perspectives (MacGregor, 1990).

### Epistemological Basis for the Research Method

#### Qualitative Versus Quantitative Methods in Empirical Research

Empirical research in education provides evidence to determine whether a phenomenon is useful in resolving an issue or problem. Better ways to accomplish goals may result. Empirical research involves firsthand collection of information or experiential assembling of knowledge. Empiricism includes hypotheses or theoretical frameworks, methods and scientific data generated by either deductive or inductive research (Rudest & Newton, 1992).

Debates concerning the epistemology of educational research have recurred with increasing intensity since the 1970s. These debates often center on issues related to quantitative versus qualitative approaches to research (Cziko, 1989). Quantitative research is most often viewed as a logical, positivist approach to educational research, while qualitative research is an exploration of phenomena in their natural environment. In qualitative methodology, data collection is *rich description* of occurrences not easily manipulated by statistical procedures. The qualitative methodology lends itself to understanding behavior from the participant's point of view. Two methods that most embody these characteristics are "participant observation" and "in-depth phenomenological interviewing" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992).

Critics argue that some quantitative methods such as survey questionnaires, designed to assess people's attitudes, opinions or ideologies, disregard the contextual and experiential basis of the encounter. Personal opinions and viewpoints are grounded in an individual's presuppositions and lived experiences. To analyze how a conception is formed, it is necessary to understand life experiences. In-depth phenomenological interviewing as a research method draws out meaning from an individual's experience. The individual is given to reflect on and reconstruct the experience (Seidman, 1991).

#### Phenomenological Interviewing: Empirical Research Method

In-depth phenomenological interviewing operates on the assumption that an individual can extract meaning from an experience after reflecting upon the details of that experience (Seidman, 1985, 1991). An interviewer's assumptions regarding the way an individual will conceptualize the experience affect performance in this encounter. The theoretical framework for this process has antecedents in the phenomenological perspective illustrated by Schultz (1967), and Schuman and Dolbeare (1982). They contend that meaning can be authenticated after an individual reflects on the fundamental elements of an experience. Significance and meaning are derived by the person who encountered the phenomenon. The individual alone can identify relations between actions, assess their significance, and subsequently connect and appraise the meaning of the experience. This act of synthesis occurs when the individual turns a reflective glance towards the experience, Schultz (1967) maintained. By understanding the meaning that humans have made of an occurrence we come to grasp the intricacies of a phenomenon. This phenomenological method challenges the positivist tradition of scientific research. The positivist perspective assumes that there is an objective, social reality that operates according to laws similar to the natural laws of physical science (Gergen, 1985; Kuhn, 1970).

In integrative social science research, as Schultz (1967) sees it, the researcher accepts another's assumption of reality, insisting that this reality cannot be encountered and understood, except through another's perspective which is accessible. Contrary to the positivist paradigm, in which the researcher assumes a nonpartisan role, the integrative investigator acknowledges and attempts to validate what has been encountered by others, from their point of view. The positivist researcher claims that the data collected through quantitative methods are value-neutral (Fay, 1975).

Qualitative research accepts the presence and the importance of the researcher, acknowledging the interaction and potential to influence the participant. Accordingly, it is essential that the researcher be open and candid regarding his or her goals and intentions and be cognizant of personal, social, and political biases (Patton, 1990).

Another characteristic of quantitative research emerges in the reporting of data and the establishment of validity and reliability. In the positivist framework, data are reported as findings. These findings may become statements of generalizations and act as universals. Validity and reliability may be claimed if the study can be replicated in multiple successful experiments.

In the interpretive paradigm, data are reported as narrative descriptions of the situation, such as ethnography and/or verbatim text units drawn from in-depth interviews. In this form, the phenomenon may be understood from the perspective of the participant. Generalizability of the data depends on the researcher's ability to draw on other studies to show representativeness and only occurs in instances where participants can make connections to their own situations (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Common-sense in understanding social interactions and human communication is crucial in qualitative

research. Understanding the context of cultural perspectives from the insider's view — "thick description" is essential in data analysis (Wax, 1971).

The adequacy of the research method depends on the purpose of the research and the questions being asked. In the qualitative approach, emphasis is on understanding the social context in which events occur and their meaning for the participant. The primary way a researcher can investigate an educational process through interviewing. In this process of gathering data, in-depth phenomenological interviewing allows participants to reconstruct what they have experienced. This process provides the best access to an understanding of the participant's perspective (Cobb, 1987). As Seidman stated:

In-depth Interviewing's strength is that through it we come to understand the details of people's experiences from their point of view. We can see how their individual experience interacts with powerful social and organizational forces that pervade the context in which they live and work, and we can discover the interconnections among people who live and work in a shared context. (p.103)

### Summary

This chapter has reviewed literature on the current status of community college faculty and instructional development issues. Traditional faculty development models, barriers to success, limited participation and preferred formats were discussed. The impact of collaborative approaches to faculty development in the context of social learning theories was examined. This context provided a framework for the CSP as a potential mechanism for instructional development. The literature in this chapter emphasized the anecdotal evidence that faculty who team-teach in CSPs benefit personally, socially, and professionally. In addition, literature attesting to the mentoring, modeling, cognitive coaching, and peer collaborative encounters common in the coordinated studies experiences

was examined. Limited research shows that CSPs may serve as successful instructional development innovations.

The theoretical basis for the research methodology used in gathering the data was provided. A discussion of the theorists responsible for developing this research design and the contributing factors which led to its creation was also presented.

## CHAPTER III

### THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study was conducted to produce a better understanding of the impact of team-teaching in CSPs on the personal, social, and professional development of faculty. To produce an understanding of this impact, 10 community college faculty were interviewed through a phenomenologically-based data gathering process (Schultz, 1967; Schuman & Dolbeare, 1982; Seidman, 1985, 1990).

Eight of the participants had more than 5 years experience team-teaching in CSPs, which facilitated the acquisition of rich description (i.e., participants with substantive experience). Two participants with less than 5 years experience were included to provide an examination of the mentor-modeling and the socialization aspects of CSPs. Among the 8 with extensive experience, 1 was used to pilot the study and another was selected to make possible the negative case analysis. It is recommended in qualitative research that a search be conducted for alternative constructs or cases which do not fit within the pattern (Patton, 1990). Participants were interviewed both individually and in CSP teams. Three CSP teams were interviewed in this study.

This chapter presents an explanation of the basis for selection of both sites and the participants. It also presents an overview of the process of data collection and analysis and explains the manner in which the findings will be organized. In addition, it describes the activities utilized to increase credibility, reliability, and trustworthiness of the methodology.



### Research Setting, Background, and Participants

During 1995, I was involved in a 6-month internship project through The Washington Center for Improving the Quality of Undergraduate Education. This center was created in 1984 through state support and grant funding, to lead a statewide (Smith, 1988). The purpose of the internship project was to survey faculty development initiatives in Washington State community colleges. My dual role as a community college administrator and project participant in this statewide survey provided access to potential campus sites and provided an avenue for establishing rapport with faculty contacts at these colleges. Faculty and administrators were interviewed regarding the instructional development programs in place at these 10 campuses. These contacts assisted me in meeting prospective participants for my own study.

The sites. In the State of Washington, there are currently 23 community colleges and 9 public and private baccalaureate institutions offering learning communities as an instructional model. Of these 23 colleges, two of the campuses from the Seattle Community College's multi-campus district, Seattle Central and North Seattle Community College, were selected. The two were selected because the CSP format has been a part of their curricular offerings for more than 10 years. Seattle Central Community College has the longest history among community colleges in offering CSPs. In addition, the inception of CSPs at the community college level occurred at this institution in 1984 through a cooperative partnership with Evergreen State College. This partnership is believed to have successfully promoted faculty revitalization, curricular reform, and inter-institutional articulation. Seattle Central was attracted to Evergreen's distinguished interdisciplinary

curriculum and collaborative teaching and learning approach. Evergreen's interdisciplinary team-taught instructional format originated in 1970 with the creation of the CSPs. Two faculty members from Seattle Central went to Evergreen for a quarter to learn pedagogical practices in this program by teaching in a CSP with Evergreen faculty members. Two Evergreen faculty members came to Seattle Central to teach with faculty to help acculturate them to this instructional model. These faculty exchanges led to a new collaborative interdisciplinary program at Seattle Central Community College modeled after The Evergreen's curricular efforts. Since that time, Seattle Central has become nationally known for collaborative pedagogy and interdisciplinary faculty planning retreats. At the time of this study, the typical coordinated studies team at Seattle Central Community College was made up of veteran instructors with 8 to 10 years experience teaching in CSPs and new teachers who were mentored and coached by the veteran teachers through this teaching and learning schema. Two coordinated studies teams and a negative-case source were selected from this campus.

North Seattle Community College, the other participating institution in this study, was also tied to The Evergreen State College. The CSP model was first introduced to North Seattle Community College through a faculty exchange program with Seattle Central Community College in 1984. The faculty member involved in this exchange was one of the original instructors sent to The Evergreen State College to team-teach in a CSP. This individual, with over 10 years of CSP experience, is one of the participants in this study. The coordinated studies team of three faculty members from North Seattle Community College was selected to provide a possible contrast to Seattle Central Community College's two teams. My intent was to determine if the instructional development experiences cited in Finley's (1990) survey of CSPs at Seattle Central are unique to the culture of that campus.

The survey reported that faculty experienced a sense of affiliation, intellectual stimulation, and revitalization, and adopted newly-acquired pedagogical practices from team-teaching in CSPs.

Selection and orientation of participants. Each participant was contacted in person. Prior to the initial contract, they were each provided with the Informed Consent Form which outlined in detail the study, the expectations and role of the participant, how the data would be used, assurances of confidentiality, and authorized use of the data collected in this research project (see Appendix A). In the initial meeting, the purpose of the research project was described and research procedures were explained. Participants were advised of the time requirements, the sequence and focus of the interviews, the procedures for transcribing the interviews, and the dissemination of the research material. During this contact with each participant, other relevant information was collected through use of a participant application form. The information on this application enhanced communication and provided the necessary basic data about the participant. The form included the participants' home and work address and telephone numbers, the number of years of teaching experience and CSP experience, and the best time to reach them. The form also listed preferred dates for the interviews. At this initial meeting, each participant was given a copy of the interview protocol for both the first and the second session (see Appendix B).

Characteristics of the participants. Efforts were made to include a representative group from the total population of community college faculty who teach in learning communities in Washington State. Strategies used in selecting participants were influenced by what Patton (1990) describes as "purposeful sampling" chosen for "information-rich" cases. Specifically, the subjects were selected from a population of faculty who had taught

in this instructional model for 5 or more years, garnering significant experience in CSP instruction. Four of the participants in this study were among the original community college faculty pioneers who became involved in CSPs in Washington State. Two of the participants with less than 5 years of experience were selected to provide understanding of the mentor-modeling, and acculturation process believed to occur in teams made up of new and experienced faculty members in CSPs. This model of socialization was practiced at Seattle Central Community College. Instructors from suburban and urban community college settings, representing more than one ethnic group were selected. The population also reflected both men and women. Specifically, 3 of the participants in this study were women and 7 were men. Seven were Caucasian and 3 were of African-American descent. Ages ranged from 35 to 60 years. Faculty members in this study represented disciplines in the social science, humanities, and math-science fields.

Two CSP teams were selected from Seattle Central Community College. In one of the teams, both participants had 8 years of CSP experience. The other team of 3 faculty was composed of a veteran with 10 years of CSP experience and two new instructors who had 2 years of CSP experience. The third team was selected from North Seattle Community College. Two of the 3 participants in this team had 10 or more years of CSP experience and one had 8 years of experience.

Patton (1990) made a case for including as a negative case source, a participant whose experience may be contrary to that of others. For the most part, he maintained, "a person who knows only one side of a matter knows little" (Schuman & Dolbeare, 1982, p. 215). The participant from Seattle Central with over 5 years of CSP experience was identified by other faculty as an individual who had chosen not to continue teaching in this instructional format. The negative case analysis was conducted to enhance credibility,

providing an opportunity for other explanations, for considering other possibilities and for openly addressing other alternative experiences. Information gathered from this participant identified as a possible contrarian- one whose perspectives contradict the other participants, has been included in the study.

A pilot of this study was conducted with a faculty member from Shoreline Community College who had 10 years of teaching experience in learning community courses. Piloting included testing of the interview questions and process to insure that data collection would be undertaken without problems attributable to poorly worded or incomprehensible interview questions. Data collected during the interview process with this individual were also used in this study.

Setting for the interviews. All participants were interviewed on their campuses, since this location provided a familiar environment and a neutral setting for gathering data. The interviews were conducted in a milieu which was convenient, familiar and private, and one in which the participants felt comfortable. Seidman (1991) recommended selecting an additional setting for one of the interviews. He argued that the additional settings enhanced the reliability of the information gathered and contributed to consistency in what is said by each participant. For this reason, the individual interviews were conducted in the office of the participant, while team interviews were conducted in a neutral, private setting such as a secluded conference room.

### Establishing Trust and Rapport

A positive relationship had to be achieved to warrant trust from participants. Because of the time commitment and energy required of both the participants and the interviewer, steps were taken to make arrangements work efficiently and to concentrate

communication on the interviews. Scheduling of the interviews prevented cancellations. Scheduling also enhanced and simplified the pacing of the data collection process.

I acknowledged my obligation to protect the interest of the participants. Success with the participants depended on their level of trust and confidence in the researcher's ability to fulfill an investigative role (Locke, Spirduso, & Silverman, 1993). Assurances were given regarding the handling of the information and the precautions taken to insure anonymity and confidentiality. Participants were informed of the format in which the material from their interviews would be shared with the public. The tapes and transcripts were accessible only to the professional transcriber and to the researcher. All tapes were destroyed upon completion of the transcription and data entry process. Copies of the transcriptions were provided to the participants following each interview. Pseudonyms are used in the reported findings to disguise the true identity of the participants (Seidman, 1991).

### Data Gathering Process

In-depth phenomenological interviewing is a research model based on work by Schultz (1967), and Schuman and Dolbeare (1982). This process has been modified by Seidman (1985, 1991). Seidman operated on Schultz's assumptions that one makes meaning of experiences after reflecting on the essential details of those experiences. Seidman's (1991) interviewing model follows a sequence of three, 90-minute interviews, spaced 3 to 5 days apart. Seidman's recommendation is to structure and sequence the interviews so that participants can reconstruct the experience and then reflect on the meaning of the experience after focusing on the "constitutive" (fundamental) details of that experience. In contrast, Schuman and Dolbeare (1982) recommended that the number of interviews and

the length of each session be determined by the amount of time necessary to gather the desired data from the participants. They suggested that the final interview be conducted with the participants in small groups. In addition, they said that the period between interviews should be sufficient to determine if the passage of time changed the participant's views on the issues. An adaptation of these two models was developed for this data collection process. The interviews conducted with the participants ranged from 55 to 90 minutes. The intervals between interviews ranged from 3 to 17 days, based on the availability of the participants and the complexity involved in coordinating the team-interview session.

During college visits, the participants were observed as they interacted both formally and informally in campus settings with colleagues, administrators, staff and students. Institutional research and grant reports, articles, tenure reports, newsletters, and other written documents were reviewed to gain perspectives on the participants and the college culture.

#### Field Note-Taking and Journaling

I kept field notes during observations to acclimate to the campus culture. This process aided in understanding the essence of coordinated studies as a curricular model and to provide a framework for guidance in the field. Group dynamics diagrams were constructed to note social interactions of participants with other individuals, identify key players, and reflect nonverbal communication. I was able to keep track of notable occurrences among people and to learn terminology or concepts unique to the participants' special program language. This provided contextual understanding of phenomena which would have been overlooked without careful and casual surveillance and timely recording. Such descriptive information was reported in a journal kept throughout the data-gathering,

analysis, and coding process. I attempted to capture what Patton (1990) described as "the insider's" (those with experiential knowledge of the phenomenon) point of view through the recorded interpretations, comments, and detailed, concrete descriptions written during this study. These perspectives were recorded through comprehensive journal entries providing a chronology of events from field notes and the data collection. This journaling process also allowed for reflective analysis and recorded reactions to what was being experienced during each interview and in the field (Patton, 1990). I was able to consider biases and presuppositions that could have distorted reality and slanted the perspective. This process included thematic analysis, observation of patterns in participant viewpoints, and provided an opportunity to gain insight into the behavior manifested. Further, it alerted me to issues that called for further clarification in the second interview sessions with the coordinated studies teams.

### The Interviewing Process

Data were collected through two in-depth phenomenologically-based interviews with each participant. Through active listening and thematic analysis, I attempted to understand the value and benefits of teaching in this instructional model in relation to the personal, social, and professional development experiences encountered by the participants. This face-to-face process provided an opportunity to appreciate the experiences of faculty, to observe facial expressions and body language and to be immersed, both in the culture and intensity of the moment (Oldfather, 1994). The interview protocol ranged from 55 to 90 minutes, providing an adequate amount of time for participants to reconstruct their instructional development experiences. They were able to reflect on the impact of CSPs on their instructional development and to reflect on its meaning. Both of these interviews had a distinct purpose and focus, which was guided through open-ended questions. According to



Marshall and Rossman (1994), the qualitative research approach demands flexibility so that the participant's responses are not influenced or distorted by leading interview questions. Steps were taken to refine and adapt these open-ended questions and to increase the prospects for gathering relevant information for this study.

The first interview focused on the background of the participants and the quality of their formal education in providing them with knowledge, skills, and abilities in effective pedagogy. They discussed job satisfaction, their level of college involvement and their relationship with peers prior to CSP experience. Participants described and assessed their instructional development experiences as well. This information was used to "craft a profile." The profile is composed of excerpts of interest from the participant's two interviews which were kept in context and condensed into a "thematic narrative" telling their story (Seidman, 1991, p. 92). This process was accomplished through use of NUD\*IST, which stands for Non-numerical Unstructured Data Indexing Searching and Theorizing. This qualitative data analysis software program facilitated retrieval of narrative segments. The purpose of these profiles is twofold. First, it presents the comprehensiveness of the participant's experience and the meaning made of that experience. Second, a profile presents a person's experience as a narrative providing knowledge, insights, and a path to an understanding grounded in the concrete detail of the experience (Seidman, 1991).

The focus of the second interview, conducted with the participants in CSP teams, allowed them to synthesize and evaluate the impact of CSPs on their personal, social, and professional development by sharing their stories with each other.

In the phenomenological interview, the open-ended questions allowed for the essence of the instructional development experiences to be re-interpreted as a whole. While participants were encouraged to reflect on their experiences through an open-ended, in-

depth process, it was crucial that the framework of each interview maintain the focus as originally designed (see Appendix B). Providing participants with the interview protocol in advance maintained this structure and allowed for the interview to occur with very few words from me. This was essential for the sense of purpose established by me. The success of the interviews depended heavily on the ability to maintain a critical balance between the provision of an open environment for the participants to tell their stories, and an environment where conversations can be lifted out of the established social relationships that had been developed within the teaching team (Seidman, 1991).

Fifteen interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed by an individual with skills in transcribing data to a computer-based word processing system. Each transcript was prepared within a week and copies were provided to the participants to give them the opportunity to "see the talks and think about them" between interview sessions (Schuman & Dolbeare, 1982, p. 208) (see Appendix C and Appendix D).

#### Data Coding, Categorizing, and Analysis

Walcott (1994) classifies the process of making meaningful sense of qualitative data as description, analysis, and interpretation. Seidman (1991) describes this process in qualitative data analysis as reducing, sorting, and categorizing data into meaningful chunks. This chunking process allowed me to search for thematic connections and parallels in the reflections of the participants. This exercise, which Corbin and Strauss (1990) entitled "open coding," was done manually and occurred shortly after each interview. Open coding is the first stage of examining, categorizing and comparing data. This labeling process also allowed for the development of participant profiles (see Appendix E).

A more elaborate coding process, the basis for breaking down large volumes of text from each interview into categories, was performed after all of the interviews were conducted. According to Strauss and Corbin (1994), this procedure is called "axial coding" which allows for the researcher to focus on one category at a time in order to identify subcategories. The final stage involved "selective coding" through which core categories related to the phenomenon of the study, along with auxiliary classifications, are examined.

This intricate process was achieved through use of qualitative analysis software called NUD\*IST. The software creates a document database and indexing system for a research project. Having all interviews accessible in one database file made it easier to retrieve data, and make connections. Through this process, patterns were identified and epistemological perspectives were examined and tested for consistency. Lenzo (1995) pointed out the difficulty in the interpretation of both written and spoken language inherent in any communication project. NUD\*IST simplified this process through its on-line data storage system. This system is called an "index tree," a schemata of organized codes in categories and tributary subcategories developed through this data analysis process. The categories within the indexing tree are called "node addresses" (see Appendix F). Through this efficient database storage system, entire transcripts and smaller text units were analyzed for comparing statements made from one interview to the next to search for internal consistency and authenticity. Wolcott (1994) wrote:

So the greater problem for the first-time qualitative researcher is not how to get data but how to figure out what to do with the data they get. . . . One way of doing something with data in rendering an account is to stay close to the data as originally recorded. The final account may . . . repeat informants' words so that informants themselves seem to tell their stories. The strategy of this approach is to treat descriptive data as fact. The underlying assumption, or hope is that the data "speaks for themselves" [sic]. (pp. 9-10)

NUD\*IST software allowed for "words, organized into incidents or stories, to be organized in a concrete, vivid, convincing and meaningful flavor" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 312). Order was created by constructing the stories of participants in text units organized as profiles for viewing particular contexts. The object of investigation then became the story itself, limiting description to the first-person accounts by participants regarding their experiences (Riessman, 1993).

### Coding Schema

Bell and Gilbert's (1994) schema of coding categories and characteristic outcomes was used to classify the data in this study. An examination of possible similarities between their findings regarding peer collaboration in instructional development and the findings of this study was conducted. In their conceptual matrix, Bell and Gilbert determined that over time, teachers demonstrate variations within the domains of personal, social, and professional instructional development. These variations were manifested in three facets: initial, second, and third. The narrative statements of the participants used to demonstrate various facets and aspects of development in Bell and Gilbert's report were closely examined, since I had similar research goals. Through such analysis, common themes and connections discovered in these excerpts were related to the narrative statements in the stories from the study participants. Based on what initially appeared to be convergent findings, a decision was made to apply the Bell and Gilbert schema to this study. The conceptual matrix used in coding and analyzing their qualitative study has been utilized in the data analysis process for this study.

### Credibility of the Researcher

Tierney (1989), reflecting on the realities facing the scholar conducting qualitative research, set forth his position on claims of objectivity:

Broadly stated, conventional researchers assume that a theory is a set of law-like propositions that are empirically testable; that knowledge is objective and capable of being studied from a neutral stance; and that a researcher's values ought not to influence one's findings. . . . Since I do not assume that knowledge is objective, then I also must reject the notion that research is value-neutral or external to an inquirer. Instead, I intend to make explicit my values and premises. (pp. 3-4)

In qualitative inquiry, the researcher is the instrument. Action and speech and the ways in which we disclose ourselves to others can influence their actions and behaviors, since we exist in a web of human relationships which can affect others. In recognition of this reality, measures were taken to carefully monitor interviewer-observer effects on the participants and to reflect on what those effects were. Trying to understand who we are, our values and what we believe, all are essential in qualitative empirical work. Our self-knowledge, values, and beliefs are tied in an absolute way to how we perceive the words, actions, and behavior of the participants (Schuman & Dolbeare, 1982).

In qualitative empirical work, the researcher should never claim objectivity, even though the reported data are the words of the participants, and an honest attempt was made to be accurate and fair. In reality, answers in the interviews are in part the response to questions that the researcher thought were important. In addition, there were many pages of text for each interview; thus, the coding process probably had as much to do with preconceptions as it did with conscious decisions. Words of the participants identified as important reveal facts not only about the participants, but also about me, the researcher. A concerted effort was made to be impartial in positions taken regarding the data, in

subjecting the data to intellectual rigor, and in applying professional integrity at every stage (Patton, 1990).

It is essential to identify what the researcher brings to the study in terms of qualifications, experience, and perspective. I have gained "native" knowledge (based on observations and anecdotal evidence) as an administrator in a community college in which learning communities are offered and through my involvement with The Washington Center for Improving the Quality of Undergraduate Education since the late 1980s. This knowledge, combined with a very comprehensive literature review related to social constructivist processes in instructional development of faculty, has led to formal knowledge and personal beliefs regarding CSPs. My insights and understanding regarding this phenomenon and its impact on the development of faculty are demonstrated in the conceptual framework (see Appendix G).

#### Additional Techniques for Assessing Trustworthiness

An assessment instrument developed by Lincoln and Guba (1985) was utilized in evaluating this qualitative-research analysis process. The evaluation process was an attempt to establish integrity, validity, dependability, confirmability, and accuracy of the findings in this qualitative study. The following elements from their instrument were used as a checklist to measure the trustworthiness of this study.

The reflexive journal. A journal of reflections was kept during the process. It included detailed, comprehensive and thorough construction of the methodology process, findings, recordings of observable behavior, comments, and notable events related to the study. The journal detailed the participant selection, interviews, observations, data analysis and interpretation, and research review process.

Member checks. The typed transcripts were shared with the participants, showing which excerpts from the interviews had been marked as important to seek validation and concurrence from the participants.

Peer briefing. A copy of these findings was shared with the associate dean of Humanities and Social Science at Seattle Central Community College. She had firsthand experience as a faculty-team member in CSPs. This educator also co-authored a journal article on the CSP phenomenon. She was asked to indicate whether her interpretations of the data were consistent with mine.

Referential adequacy. A comparative analysis was done on an empirical study conducted by Tollefson (1990). His study, which focused on the effects of learning communities on students and faculty in Washington State, utilized quantitative research methodology. I contacted Gary Tollefson in May 1996 to discuss his findings and the findings of my own study. Likewise, I contacted Beverly Bell and John Gilbert through e-mail in October 1997 to discuss my findings in relation to their research on teacher development through collaborative processes.

Triangulation. "Triangulation is a good research practice through which multiple methods, data sources and researchers are used to enhance the validity of research findings" (Mathison, 1988, p. 13). This structure enhanced the probability of validity in consistency checks conducted with knowledgeable sources. Triangulation means that consistency is found from three convergent perspectives on this phenomenon. This process was followed in an attempt to corroborate the findings for the establishment of possible links (Patton, 1990).

The results from a survey of faculty and administrators from 10 community colleges in the state of Washington through The Washington Center for Improving the Quality of Undergraduate Education proved useful in this study. From these interviews, it was discovered that all 14 of these participants made statements confirming their beliefs that learning communities serve as an excellent format for faculty development. This provided documentation from educators who have either local knowledge (those with anecdotal evidence) or firsthand knowledge (those with actual experience) of the phenomenon. All had either personal experiences in the learning community instructional model or knowledge as instructional administrators. Although in the form of anecdotal evidence, their narrative accounts have corroborated the findings in my study. These data were used as the first point of convergence in the triangulation process.

The second convergent point was an interview with the codirector of The Washington Center, Jean MacGregor who, because of her own knowledge and expertise, has been one of the consultants conducting instructional development institutes and retreats on learning community teaching and learning models. She has gained her knowledge from experience teaching in CSPs at Evergreen State College. I interviewed Jean on August 19 1996, to seek corroboration of my own analysis of the research in this study.

Collaborative work with a member of my cohort who conducted a similar study in Oregon State was the third point of convergence in this process. There is a growing recognition in education and other fields regarding collective ways of knowing and social theories of development. Collaborative research forms play an important role in the interpretive process. Subjecting interpretations to the insights of other researchers provides critical views essential in building sound findings (Wasser & Bresler, 1996). Pincus (1996) explored the impact of participating in an interdisciplinary faculty teaching and learning



community on professional development of community college faculty. Contrary to the typical team-taught or linked instructional ethos, her conceptualization of learning community was faculty encounters in collaborative problem-solving sessions on effective pedagogical practices. Meetings were held on March 20 and 22, 1996, to compare data and reflect on our research findings. We discussed the work periodically, throughout our data-collection and analysis process, and we met again on August 27, 1996, for further comparison of our findings. She has since written a culminating memorandum, summarizing findings in her study related to areas of my study (G. S. Pincus, personal communication, October 28, 1996) (see Appendix H).

Generalizable. As a beginner in qualitative research, I selected the phenomenologically-based interviewing approach to gather and present the data. This method allowed the informants to speak for themselves. This provided an honest accounting with minimal interpretation and few inferences regarding the faculty members' spoken words and observations. Lenzo (1995) cautioned the beginning researcher to expect difficulties in solidifying experiences and interactions with participants. Turning experiences into words, sentences, and paragraphs rhetorically appropriate and meaningful is a challenge of a high order.

Some investigators believe that the development of a grounded theory or theoretically informed interpretations is the most powerful way to meet the demands of epistemology. The process of formulating a theory and deductions is believed to explain the phenomenon and to provide a framework for action (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). In qualitative analysis, multiple studies contribute to theory development. Lincoln and Guba (1985) stress the importance of drawing on other studies to show representativeness or,

alternatively, conducting a series of mini-studies to demonstrate that research findings are generalizable.

Most of the evidence regarding the impact of CSPs on the development of community college faculty is descriptive. Many educators with team-teaching experience in CSPs and other models of learning communities have told stories that seem to validate findings of positive instructional development. Little empirical research attesting to the soundness of conclusions was found, however. Recently, Pincus (1996) presented findings in her qualitative study on interdisciplinary faculty teaching and learning communities as a form of peer collaboration that seem to be consistent with my findings. In addition, Tollefson (1990) referred to the community college faculty development aspects of learning communities in his quantitative empirical research. The qualitative study conducted by Bell and Gilbert (1994) on peer collaboration and observation in teacher development, presented findings which appear to corroborate my findings. In spite of the similar evidence presented in these studies, significant additional empirical research is needed for generalizability of these research findings.

### Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

#### Delimitations

This study was limited to community college faculty with team-teaching experience in CSPs from two campuses in one multi-campus district. It focused strictly on the instructional development aspects in this genre of teaching and learning based on faculty perceptions. Although there are many variations of learning communities offered nationally, this study focused exclusively on the coordinated studies model in Washington State.

### Limitations

Conditions that imposed limitations on the study included:

1. Logistics and the length of time available for conducting the research restricted the size of the population to 10 faculty, including 1 faculty member who participated in a pilot of the study, 1 negative-case source, and the 8 faculty members who comprised the three coordinated studies teams.
2. The researcher is new to qualitative empirical research methodology and is positively biased towards social constructivism and collaborative approaches to instructional development.
3. This same positive bias was shared by the individuals selected as participants in this study, including the person designated as the negative-case source.
4. Analogous findings were not sought on instructional development within other models of learning communities or other avenues for peer collaboration since the research focused strictly on CSPs.

## CHAPTER IV

### FINDINGS

In-depth interviewing has led me to a deeper understanding and appreciation of the amazing intricacies and, yet, coherence of people's experiences. It has led me to a more conscious awareness of the power of the social and organizational context of people's experience. Most important and almost always, interviewing continues to lead me to respect the participants, to relish the understanding that I gain from them, and to take pleasure in sharing their stories. (Seidman, 1991, p.103)

Empirical research regarding the positive effects of CSPs and other models of learning communities on student learning is growing (Tinto, 1996; Tinto et al., 1994). This instructional ethos is seen as "effective in cultivating students' integrative abilities, analytical and synoptic skills, and capacity to deal with complex issues from a multidisciplinary perspective" (Gabelnick et al., 1990, p. 65). However, as faculty continually examine their experiences in CSPs, some fundamental questions arise regarding the efficiency and effectiveness of this enterprise in facilitating their own instructional development. Through phenomenological interviewing, I attempted to examine these issues. My research objective was to discover in the words of faculty, how they describe the impact of teaching in CSPs on their personal, social, and professional development.

I was also interested in discovering how faculty evaluate the development experienced in CSPs. In comparison to traditional models of instructional development, how would they rate the effectiveness of this approach to instructional development? In what ways does this experience affect their view of the institution in relation to locus-of-control in decision-making responsibility regarding issues of curriculum and instruction? What impact do CSPs have on their level of job satisfaction, morale, and affiliation with their colleagues and with students? I was also interested in discovering whether the

observations of faculty would be consistent with Meiklejohn's (1932) contention that collaborative interdisciplinary team-teaching in such enterprises assists new and experienced instructors in learning from each other to master the teaching process. Would it cultivate insight, intelligence, advance ability in perspective-taking and stimulate a sense intellectual comradeship among faculty? It was hoped that this research process would lead to a greater understanding of the impact of CSPs on participants and their work and their perceptions regarding instructional development.

### The Faculty Participants

Profiles were crafted (Seidman, 1991) in order to individually portray each participant in this study, all of whom teach full-time at community colleges in Washington State. Significant excerpts (text units) from the interviews were selected and combined into narrative accounts. The sources of the text units can be identified by the interview document title which is the code-number identification for the participant. The excerpts from these sources are identified by text unit numbers (e.g., document title B3: text unit numbers, 4-24). This narration gives the reader further insight into the personal characteristics and individual experiences of the participants. In their own voice, faculty describe personal views of instructional development, their status as community college instructors, and their level of preparedness to teach. Demographic information about the participants is shown in table on page 104. Pseudonyms are used to identify the participants to maintain confidentiality. At the time of the interviews the participants ranged from 35 to 60 years of age, their years of teaching experience spanned from 7 to 35 years and their

CSP team-teaching experience extended from 2 to more than 10 years. The gender distribution of the participants is 3 women and 7 men. Three of the 10 participants are African-American and 7 are Caucasian.

#### DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION ON THE PARTICIPANTS

ID Code	Pseudonym	Gender	Age	Ethnicity	Discipline	Division	Tching Exp	CSP Exp
A1	Michelle	F	53	Afr-Am	English-Lit	Humanities	16	9
A2	Loretta	F	35	Cauc	Psychology	Soc Science	7	2
A3	Gwendolyn	F	45	Afr-Am	Sociology	Soc Science	10	9
B1	Joseph	M	57	Afr-Am	Math	Math-Science	11	6
B2	Jerome	M	37	Cauc	Music	Humanities	17	2
B3	Jason	M	51	Cauc	History	Soc Science	26	11
B4	David	M	47	Cauc	Chem-Geol	Math-Science	20	8
B5	Meredith	M	62	Cauc	English-Lit	Humanities	31	10
B6	Daniel	M	61	Cauc	English-Lit	Humanities	35	10
B7	Cameron	M	43	Cauc	English-Lit	Humanities	17	10

Jason is a history instructor in his early 50s with 26 years of community college teaching experience. He was instrumental in introducing the coordinated studies model to his campus. He has had over 10 years of experience team-teaching in CSPs.

I had no formal preparation in pedagogy. The first years of teaching were such eye-opening experiences. I was learning much more than the students were. I attended workshops but they only focused on the mechanics of teaching. After 15 years of teaching, I realized the stress that was on me. I remember my division chair . . . asking what I was going to teach next year. I thought, "Gees, here comes History 101 and 102. What boring stuff!" . . . Since I was the only history teacher on staff, I was really intellectually bored and socially lonely in the classroom. (B3: 4-30)

I got out of teaching in the early 80s and became the faculty development coordinator. I did this for 2 years and by 1984, I was seriously thinking about not going back to teaching. During that year, I did an exchange with a colleague in history from another institution. . . . It was at that point that

I bumped into coordinated studies. I was one of the faculty members who was sent to Evergreen State College to learn from experts in coordinated studies. Although I was always actively involved in campus activities, I realized through this experience that I really did not have relationships with my colleagues and that the students were on another level. But in CSPs it was different. It was being engaged collaboratively with students and fellow faculty around the creation of new ideas. . . . This was a dramatic increase in my development. (B3: 4-56)

Loretta is a psychology instructor in her early 30s who has just been tenured. She has had 7 years of teaching experience, entering the profession while completing her doctorate. Her prior experience was in youth service agencies. She has taught in CSPs for 2 years.

You get no training in teaching other than watching your teachers who didn't get any training in teaching except by watching their teachers. Yet, in this field [psychology], there is so much information about pedagogy, cognition, learning styles and experiential learning. (A2: 4-17)

I applied for a full-time position and was hired here 3 years ago. I wish I had more opportunities to talk to faculty. Having such great mentors in the tenure process coming into my classes who were very willing to share ideas and pedagogy was gratifying. But It would be wonderful to have a formal mentoring process for sharing information now that I am tenured. I am involved on a number of campus-wide committees, but it is still pretty lonely. However, my first experience in coordinated studies during my second year of tenure also alleviated my loneliness. I was encouraged by my dean to teach with these two great teachers, [Gwendolyn] and [Cameron]. She tries to match new faculty with instructors who are very experienced in this approach. It certainly alleviated the loneliness, but I miss it when I'm not teaching in a coordinated studies course. (A2: 17-63)

Meredith is an instructor in his 60s who has taught English and literature for over 30 years at the community college level. Prior to college teaching, he taught at the high school level. He entered the community college system shortly after completing his masters. He has 10 years of CSP experience.

After over 20 years, I had begun to experience a growing dissatisfaction with the drudgery of paper grading from all of the composition courses that you are expected to teach. The paper grading burden gets heavier as you grow older — all of my colleagues say this. This is compounded by the simple tiredness in the repetition of teaching the same courses over and

over again each year. The way you partly keep alive is to teach new things, but that means attempting to master new materials alone, which has become more a source of anxiety than it used to be. (B5, 4-16)

I am one who consistently serves on many campus-wide committees. But other than that, there is little opportunity for discussions outside of ones discipline, as mitigating against that is that old phenomenon of time. As I look back, my graduate coursework did not include enough direct teaching in pedagogy. So I learned by trial and error and modeling my own professors. My best learning experiences have been over the past 10 years in CSPs. I could not have survived 30 years of teaching had it not been for CSPs. (B5: 20-65)

Gwendolyn is an instructor in her mid 40s who teaches sociology. She has over 9 years experience teaching at the community college level and worked in social service programs prior to entering the teaching profession. She has recently earned her Ph.D. from a university nationally known for its interdisciplinary studies curriculum. Gwendolyn has over 8 years experience in CSPs.

I gravitated toward teaching because I see teaching as social activism. I was selected for a full-time tenure position here about 9 years ago. My rapport with colleagues is very high and I am actively involved in many committees. I have created a number of new courses. My only concern is that the salary is low. It is difficult for a single person to live on this income. (A3, 8-37)

I had no formal education in learning how to teach. Most of what I learned came from modeling what I observed from a mentor professor in graduate school, my mother and my grandmother. Most of my teaching experience at this school has been in CSPs. I had the honor and pleasure of being introduced to CSPs with two excellent teachers, [Cameron] and [Michelle], during my second year at this college and have been teaching in this format ever since. I selected my graduate school on the basis of this format. The university where I received my Ph.D. uses this same instructional model. (A3: 26-67)

David has 20 years of community college experience teaching chemistry, geology and other science courses. He is in his mid-forties and has 8 years of experience teaching in CSPs. His greatest frustration is that few math-science instructors are willing to try team-teaching in CSPs.



I have been at this college for 20 years and I am the only geologist here. I teach chemistry and oceanography courses as well. I consider myself as active and involved. Since I have been at this college, I have increased the science course offerings in astronomy and geology. But, I have very few opportunities to interact with colleagues outside of science and math and even within department interdisciplinary discussions are limited. There is a lot of interaction on the personal level but not on the academic level. (B4, 4-26)

My knowledge in teaching pedagogy comes from the mentors that I had in graduate school. But it has been mostly trial and error and working with what has proven to be effective. But CSPs changed all of that. They have been the best opportunity for interactions with peers outside of the division. The intellectual discussions with my peers are very rewarding. I have often said that I now teach the course through CSPs that I wish I had in undergraduate school. (B4: 47-52)

Michelle, an instructor in English and literature in her early 50s with over 15 years of teaching experience at the community college level, has over 8 years of CSP experience.

I taught part-time at a community college for about 6 years while I was raising my family. There was a period when I wasn't sure that I wanted to continue teaching. I was becoming more and more dissatisfied with teaching because I didn't feel I was part of the actual faculty. I was given sections to teach and could continue or not — it didn't appear to matter to them. I questioned for the first time if teaching was really for me. That's when I left teaching to do administrative work at a university. I did that for almost 7 years but I realized that my heart was in composition, literature, writing. I felt that I was losing touch with my own creativity. A faculty position opened at this college and I was hired on a full time basis 9 years ago. (A1: 4-7)

When I look back at my graduate studies experience, my formal background trained me in all the mechanical things for teaching writing and literature. What I think was missing was a lot of creativity, but I learned to be innovative in CSPs. Coordinated studies is like having good company with a close friend. Someone to toss ideas off of, learn from and to stimulate you intellectually. (A1: 45-47)

Jerome is a music instructor in his mid-30s with 3 years of community college teaching experience who has just completed the tenure process. He taught at the high school level for 14 years prior to his full-time position at his current institution. He has had 2 years of experience teaching in CSPs.

I received graduate education at a university in California after teaching high school for 14 years. One favorite professor of mine encouraged me to major in world music. I was able to get my current teaching position at this innovative community college here in this city 3 years ago because of that very wise advice. (B2: 3-4)

I have a positive relationship with my colleagues, but for me, a new full time hire, I am isolated over here in this cavernous music and performing arts building with probably the biggest faculty office on this campus. I am the only music teacher at this school and I wish I had on-going contact with more of my colleagues. If it wasn't for [Cameron] who served on my tenure committee and continues to mentor me, I would be blind on this campus. [Cameron] asked me to teach in a CSP with him and [Gwendolyn] last year. I believe that all new teachers need that form of faculty development. I taught with him and [Loretta], another new instructor, again this year in a CSP. I really believe in them. For anyone who gets involved in one, you learn more about your own discipline through others' eyes. I was so impressed with my first experience that I expressed my gratification in my tenure report to the board. And I want it on your tape. Coordinated studies — it just rounds you, it is wonderful! (B2: 16-38)

Joseph is a math-computer science instructor in his late 50s who previously had teaching experience at the elementary level before becoming a professional in the private sector, where he worked for over 30 years. He entered the community college teaching profession 6 years ago and he has 5 years of coordinated studies experience. He has chosen not to continue teaching in CSPs; he was interviewed as a possible negative-case source.

I taught elementary school for 5 years, then in 1965, I left the profession to work in the private sector. I moved to Seattle and in 1990. I was hired in a tenure track position to teach mathematics at this college. Although I have had some formal course-work in teaching in graduate school, I developed my pedagogy pretty much through trial and error and observing my former teachers teach. (B1: 31-40)

I was one of the faculty members who worked on the CITIES grant to infuse technology into academic courses. The course that we developed from that grant was the first CSP that I was involved in 5 years ago. I stopped teaching in CSPs because it is hard to get students through the math levels. I haven't yet figured out how to bring out the various segments of math effectively in the context of other disciplines. But, I have acquired some effective pedagogical approaches from my colleagues in CSPs. (B1: 31-54)

Daniel is an English-literature instructor with 35 years of teaching experience. He is over 60 years of age and is retiring because of his health, but wants to continue to teach periodically. He has over 10 years experience team-teaching in learning communities.

I got into teaching by sheer accident. I was supposed to be substituting for only a week, but my teaching career has lasted 35 years! For 30 of those years, I have really enjoyed teaching at this college. We have some great courses. I was involved in the original interdisciplinary courses that we created in world history-humanities during 1965 and that is when I first fell in love with team-teaching. It was team-teaching of a kind, but it was not the really shared teaching that I did later on in learning communities. One thing that has become difficult over the years is the drudgery of grading all of those English papers night after night. This burden is shared when I team-teach with another instructor so there is a sense of relief that I am not doing it all myself. (B6, 4-14)

I never had any formal training in teaching, It was strictly on-the-job training and the school of hard knocks. I wish I had courses in learning styles and cognitive development, it would have made me a better teacher. . . . The main reason that I am retiring is because I am going blind and I want to spend quality time with my wife. I want to travel and teach study abroad courses. If I could continue to teach here, I would prefer to teach with colleagues rather than in single-discipline courses because it enhances the excitement of teaching. In learning communities we all talk, we all listen and we all share information and specialties and that is a really, really fine experience. (B6: 19-56)

Cameron is an English and literature instructor in his early 40s with 17 years of teaching experience in the community college system. He had his first coordinated studies experience as a part-time instructor over 10 years ago. He acquired his full-time teaching position at his current institution, a year after that experience.

I became frustrated with teaching and after 5 years of part-time teaching, I quit to open up a bookstore. I continued to teach occasionally in the evenings, but for the most part I wrote and managed my business. When my daughter was born, I needed a more steady source of income, so I returned to my part-time teaching position. It was at that time that I became involved in that college's very first CSP. I didn't stay at that college because a position opened up at this campus which was well-known for its focus on coordinated studies. I was grateful to be hired here. (B7: 4-8)

I had no formal training in teaching. I had to learn by observing good professors in college and my own trial and error methods. But I have had

extensive teaching experiences in CSPs. It was the best way to learn. When I look back over the past 10 years, I have learned quite a bit from observing my peers. You are planning curriculum with three or more other faculty members on a weekly basis and prior to the quarter. That is real faculty development. I believe that we should get professional development credit for teaching in CSPs. I just find them extremely stimulating and helpful. (B7: 29-66)

### CSPs Compared to Traditional Models of Instructional Development

Over the years, much attention has been given to strategies which promote development of faculty in pedagogical practices. Menges (1985) wrote that environmental factors under which faculty members are likely to learn about and develop new instructional strategies include the following conditions: (a) exposure to relevant theories, (b) provision for practicing the new approaches and receiving feedback on the practices, and, (c) opportunities to be coached while applying the new approaches in the classroom. Traditional models of faculty development do not typically utilize these methods. Participants in this study were asked to compare their traditional development experiences to the instructional development experiences in CSPs. Jason draws this analogy regarding faculty development models.

In comparing it to the earlier workshop format which focused on pedagogy — how to grade papers, and exams, how to teach using overheads — coordinated studies was learning from experts. Learning new content knowledge and new intellectual experiences. I have learned some of the strengths I have that I was not aware of before. Having peer feedback in CSPs reinforce the strengths that you have. (B3: 22-56)

Gwendolyn vouches for peer collaboration in instructional development.

I have participated in faculty development workshops but they are of little use. My colleagues have been the greatest influence on my teaching. I am convinced that scholarship is collaborative and that I need colleagues because they are my sustenance. They help me grow intellectually and keep me honest. We represent a community of learners. Coordinated studies can also extend across college campuses through a faculty exchange program. (A3: 26-67)

Angelo (1994) found that the "quantitative, additive" approach (presenting a large volume of faculty development activities regardless of their relevance) contributes to their failure.

Jerome reinforced research findings of Angelo.

Most of the faculty development workshops I experienced were an absolute waste of time. It was as if administration felt that they had to adhere to a certain quota foregoing quality for quantity — one a month was the usual format — just cranking um' out — but they were meaningless for faculty. They could have done some needs assessment with faculty to see what we wanted but that didn't happen. . . . Faculty need opportunities to share their pedagogy with others. The only place that it happens effectively is in CSPs. It gets us into the classroom together on an ongoing basis which was most helpful to me as a new tenured instructor. (B2: 34-60)

Daniel's comment also appears to support Angelo's (1994) findings. He sees traditional modes of faculty development to be of little use.

I have not been one to enjoy conferences and workshops that focus on teaching techniques. They don't always apply to your unique classroom situations; however, observing my peers with excellent approaches has been the best source of faculty development for me. And I am more knowledgeable because of what I learned about their disciplines. I remember when I taught with the geology teacher, I was in hog heaven! When I look at mountains and the ocean and lakes, I see things so differently. I have become a much better teacher and intellectually brighter over the 10 years that I have taught them [learning communities]. (B6: 19-56)

Cameron also shared this perspective.

Coordinated studies is the best development and much more effective than conferences or workshops. I find a new way of teaching concepts every time I teach with other faculty. It makes you more willing to take risks and to try new approaches because if you screw up, there are other faculty there to help pull it together and to help you problem-solve on what went wrong and how to fix it afterwards. (B7: 29-66)

Joseph, the negative-case source, had positive opinions regarding the instructional development aspects of CSPs in comparison to other models of faculty development.

I am in a different mental position when I am in a CSP as an instructor with my two or three peers and with over 70 students sitting out there in front of me than when I am in a workshop of my peers where I am essentially absorbing knowledge and not necessarily trying to impart at the same time.

So I would say that the CSP environment would be the most long-lasting in terms of intellectual growth and the best faculty development. Because I am getting instant feedback from what I am doing as opposed to the workshop where I don't know if it is going to work when I go back and try it. (B1: 34-66)

#### Faculty Expectations: Locus-of Control in Curriculum and Instruction

According to Frymier, "it is the bureaucratic structure of the workplace that determines what professionals do far more than personal abilities, professional training or previous experience" (as cited in Garmston, 1994, p. 173). Faculty value self-direction and autonomy in decisions regarding curriculum and instruction, a luxury not often granted at the community college level. Instructors are often relegated to teaching the same few courses year after year and are required to adhere to rigid transfer requirements that dictate the content of these courses. These restrictive requirements make teaching monotonous, impose repetition, and discourage creativity. Typically the result is hostility or withdrawal (Gabelnick et al., 1990). Seidman (1985) maintained that a major issue for community college faculty is institutional climate and its effects on morale. Foley and Clifton (1990) also found that community college faculty have consistently expressed dissatisfaction regarding the bureaucracy and hierarchy in education, viewing them as factors inhibiting personal initiative and productivity. Successful faculty development programs involve faculty initiative in the focus, format, and direction of the program.

Coordinated studies empower faculty with the freedom and flexibility to reframe and reconstruct their work environment and to participate in an experience that is distinct and creative. In other traditional, compartmentalized courses, they are restricted. In a CSP, they have full autonomy and flexibility to do creative scheduling in allotting the block of

time for the sessions each week, to determine the curricular content, and to alter the structure of traditional courses.

Gwendolyn describes this flexible environment in a similar way.

You know what makes CSPs so good? It is because we can spontaneously change it, and as instructors we are malleable, not to the point of being vapid, shallow or dilettantish. We see this class just like real life. When changes do happen they create new learning for all of us. In addition, the spontaneity is not just left out there to drift or to be on an island, there is an effort always to make connection to the issue. That is important because even in a creative learning environment, students need to feel that sense of grounding, otherwise we feed that attention deficit! (A3: 69-79)

Joseph explains what he experienced in the CSP model in its allowance for autonomy.

It was an opportunity to be innovative and creative. It was an opportunity to design a program from scratch. It was difficult to step outside of the constraints of traditional courses in terms of what we wanted to do with this new program. We essentially had to tear down some mental walls and build the philosophy of our CSP. How it functioned in a new environment was different than how it would function in a traditional environment. I think what made it a great success is the outstanding faculty who had experience in developing CSPs and who were flexible and supportive. We probably changed the program weekly trying to adjust when things didn't go as planned. We would simply re-write it for the next week and when we got to the end, we had a fine product. (B1: 4-14)

Loretta talks about the risk-taking that occurs in CSPs.

It has been most satisfying having the experience of teaching in CSPs. To be in an environment where creativity, applied learning, critical thinking is supported and encouraged — is exciting. Just the idea that you are free to be innovative and can concentrate on the learning process — that is important — that has been very satisfying. There were situations where I would do something in class that was new — things that were real risks. The other instructors would either applaud my success or problem-solve with me to change it. I would not have taken such chances in my traditional classes. And the best news is that this risk-taking is encouraged at this college! (A2: 19-20)

Meredith sums up the essence of this experience in this comment.

I think that in my analysis I would say that teaching in CSPs is not necessarily less hard work and it is not especially more hard work — but it is different work. Just in terms of how much you put out ends up being the same. By the time the quarter is over you are no more or no less tired as

when you teach your regular courses. However, you are a lot more enthused and you bring more of yourself into the course because you share in that ownership. It is something that you helped create so it is a part of you and who you are. It is this ownership that makes it so important. The most important thing about CSPs is that they are new each time you teach them. (B5: 64-66)

A common term in the CSP culture used to describe this autonomy, flexibility, and creativity is "organic" (Gabelnick et al., 1990, p. 80). Comments regarding the organic aspects of the coordinated studies instructional model were prominent in the participant interviews. This valued empowerment demonstrates the significance and importance that faculty place on autonomy. The 10 participants viewed locus-of-control and collaborative decision-making among peers regarding the teaching and learning environment as fundamental. Autonomy and collaboration contrasts with instructional decisions handed down as bureaucratic mandate. The table in Appendix I shows the term organic used by the participants in describing the self-directed freedom granted to instructors in CSP planning, development, and instructional process.

#### Morale, Job Satisfaction, and Relationship with Students and Peers

Many community college faculty indicate that they are attracted to coordinated studies because CSPs provide opportunities to establish supporting relationships with students and reciprocal relationships with peers. CSPs are credited with offering challenging and stimulating opportunities for faculty to work together and establish mentoring, modeling and peer coaching relationships.

Another equally significant issue addressed in these collaborative encounters relates to faculty burnout in teaching the same courses from one quarter to another. CSPs also alleviate the feelings of loneliness and overall morale problems which were reported in Seidman's (1985) study on community college faculty. In many community colleges,



faculty interaction across departmental boundaries is limited and faculty interchanges in relation to pedagogical and intellectual issues are almost nonexistent (Gabelnick et al., 1990). Within departments, exchanges do occur more frequently. But many of the community college faculty do not experience such interactions because they are the only instructors in their disciplines.

Instructors say they experience renewal, enhanced vitality, and collegiality from their involvement in coordinated studies (Smith & Hunter, 1988). In reviewing the narratives of the participants, a reader finds consistent patterns and similarities in the terms describing the value of this instructional model and its effects on faculty. Illustrations of these patterns appear in Appendix I, which displays how frequently concepts like "vitality-invigorating," "renewal," and "collegiality" were used in the participant interviews.

In this study, faculty attest to the significance of burnout, loneliness and low morale by describing experiences confirming that these conditions were alleviated through mentoring and collaborative pedagogy, as Jerome noted.

It was a good ice-breaker for [Loretta] and me, simply because I had never worked closely with her since we are both new. So it was really neat to develop rapport. Also I keep saying that this man is very special to me. It helped me to see more of him, too. I have learned so much from each of them. I am sort of remote over here, as I mentioned in my first interview with you. So when these two would come over here for planning I would say "Wow, therapy, real colleagues!" It is great to have professionals with whom to interact on a frequent basis. (B7B2A2: 78)

David addressed the issue of time constraints.

Well, part of the reason that I kept teaching in coordinated studies is that it is really the only time that I get to see colleagues socially and professionally. I hardly get to even exchange words with other colleagues within the institution. That is one of the reasons that I got into it and keep doing it — the contact with people, otherwise there is just not enough time. Faculty are always racing to the next class. In teaching standard courses, I doubt if I spent a half an hour talking to these guys or any other faculty in the past 9 weeks. We aren't teaching a CSP this quarter and I miss the

camaraderie and friendship. . . . We need these relationships in the higher education community. (B3B4B5: 52)

Daniel discussed his experiences in this manner.

Personally, I experienced a sense of relief. A burden shared is a burden halved, having another instructor to share concerns. . . . It gave me a real sense of confidence that what I was doing made sense. And teaching with other instructors — it gave me feelings of vitality. I couldn't wait to get to class every day. I spent hours in the library reading the subject matter. I became a more eager and a more motivated scholar. (B6: 16-33)

Gwendolyn discussed her increased energy level.

Coordinated studies increases my energy level and removes the draining aspects of teaching the same thing quarter after quarter. . . . The renewal is phenomenal because above and beyond the disciplines, we have a meeting that is community building beyond the classroom. I need change. I love CSPs because it is a change of venue and it is creative teaching. It is kind of melancholy when we're not teaching in CSPs. (A1A3: 37)

Meredith talked about how his morale improved.

I am a happier person whenever I teach in CSPs. I remember my wife commenting: "You've got to teach this way more often. You are a happier person and nicer to live with. You're just up!" I think that expanding your pedagogy, defining your philosophy of teaching, improving as a teacher and all of those things which occur in CSPs — just translates into — almost automatically into job satisfaction. Because for teachers — maybe even more than for any other profession — teaching is pretty much who we are. So all of those things just translate into richer lives. Coordinated studies allow faculty who are caught up in the repetitive tasks of their responsibilities to do something else or approach it in a new and innovative way and that's a morale booster. (B3B4B5: 85)

Some of the participants commented on how teaching in coordinated studies enhances job satisfaction and kept them from leaving the profession. Cameron stated: "It brought me back to teaching in some ways. I left teaching at one time because it wasn't working and I didn't think it was worth it. I came back to teach part-time and chanced on a coordinated studies course. It was the answer to everything that I felt was missing in teaching before" (B7B2A2: 75).

Jason also commented that he would have left his teaching position.

When I look back 10 years ago, I'm not sure that I would have continued to teach. It would have been the same courses taught at the same time in the same format. I just couldn't face that. I was reluctant to try coordinated studies, based on my previous experiences teaching team-taught courses where the instructors cycled in and out to lecture on their subject-matter. We had done this over 20 years ago. You didn't get to see much of your colleagues so it wasn't much different than standard courses. Now I can't imagine not teaching after experiencing coordinated studies. I'm even going back to standard courses with a lot more enthusiasm. (B3B4B5: 82)

As David and Roger Johnson (1991) wrote: "It is the social support and accountability to valued peers that motivates committed efforts to succeed" (p.116).

### Findings Consistent with the Beliefs of Meiklejohn

#### Instructors Learn from Each Other, Cultivate Insight and Connections

Benefits that accrue from collaborative teaching range widely, seen in Einstein's reflection: "It is the supreme art of the mentor to awaken joy in creative expression and knowledge" (as cited in Sullivan, 1992, p. 2). Faculty say that they have the privilege to learn a whole range of modeled effective pedagogical practices from colleagues. The modeling, mentoring, and peer coaching inherent in collaborative, invigorating environments is invaluable to faculty at all stages of their careers (Garmston, 1994). Instructors affirm experiencing intellectual growth, acquiring new content knowledge of other disciplines as well as new perspectives on their own disciplines (Gabelnick et al., 1990). As the participants conversed in teams, new information surfaced in these conversations. They demonstrated reflective skills in re-examining pedagogical knowledge and described how this model of instruction is more intellectually stimulating for them as they gain greater understanding of discipline connections. The dynamics of these cognitive coaching and collaborative relationships that have evolved among them were highly visible

in this team- interview process. There were moments in these conversations when faculty members described feelings of personal gratitude for what they have gained in this instructional model and what they learned from each other.

Jason remarks on the mentoring that he received from Cameron.

If it wasn't for [Cameron] I would be blind on this campus. He has been my mentor and look who I taught with in a coordinated studies course? It was him. He is willing to listen to me and help me through those early hurdles. I am sure that he has had it up to here with me but it has been great! He is looked upon with a lot of respect by other colleagues and the administration as someone who is very good at what they do. . . . So I had my maiden voyage into coordinated studies with him and [Gwendolyn] last year. (B7B2A2: 17-36)

Gwendolyn reflects on discipline connections and intellectual growth through the new perspectives she gained in her discipline.

I see how courses are interrelated and one functions for the other more and more from teaching sociology in the context of other disciplines. I learned from physics that if you look at mass movement, the density of mass movement, the velocity of mass movement, you can learn extensively about people in urban settings — the nature and dynamics of living in such close proximity with others. So if you take a social issue, you can apply it to so many other subject matter concepts. And that is why I like coordinated studies because you can borrow on outcomes. Such conceptualization cross-fertilizes the learning process for instructors and students. (A3: 65)

Daniel expresses personal gratitude for coordinated studies teaching experiences in this commentary.

When I reflect on my prior experiences in learning community courses, I can recall the thrill of going to class every day of the quarter, knowing that you were going to learn something new from your peers and to acquire a new perspective. The anticipation was so exhilarating. Every faculty member young and old should have this experience on a daily basis. You just can't write off the gains of teaching in these environments. I am able to see things from multiple perspectives. It is like putting on a pair of glasses and seeing the world for the first time. (B6: 47)

Jerome shares this observation about how his peers improved his instructional skills.

It is helpful seeing a technique while sitting in the back of the room observing student's reaction to it. Having your peers give you feedback on

an instructional practice is also very helpful. I have learned about other disciplines in the context of the coordinated studies courses as well. So I see CSPs as an excellent arena for modeling good instructional practices and gaining deeper insights on teaching strategies. (B1: 31-54)

### Perspective-taking and Comradeship

Garmston (1994) wrote that "one of the finest manifestations of highly functioning minds include empathy for others, thinking allocentrically (that is, from the perspective of others), collaboration, and creativity" (p. 173). He called these characteristics intellectual skills and argued that they were highly essential for faculty and students. In Meiklejohn's opinion, team-teaching facilitated community, enhanced ability to accept the point of view of others, led to respect for others and instilled comradeship among faculty. Participants in this study reported gains in such perspectives after team-teaching in CSPs.

Meredith relates how team-teaching in CSPs has increased his understanding of what students experience in the classroom setting from their perspective.

Yeah, when it comes to learning about biology or grasping cosmology in astronomy as an English lit teacher, there is no difference between me and the other students in my seminar. We struggle collectively to grasp and make sense of this scientific terminology. It helped me to understand how instructors can make assumptions that what they are teaching is clear to the students when in reality it is only clear to the instructor. I've learned patience and respect for students in this process which forces you to see instruction through their eyes. So it has to change you. (B5: 60-82)

Daniel also describes how learning communities helped him to empathize with students.

I used to believe that students didn't learn because they wouldn't try and really didn't want to learn. But they see many courses as apart from them with no relevance. They don't know why they are studying these things and how it will help them in their future goals. Because I have made gains in my own intellectual skills, I now see the importance of making the curriculum relevant. I attempt to imagine my way into the student's mind. "How does the world look to that student? What does it feel like? How would my words sound if I were inside that student's world?" It makes a tremendous difference when we bring this practice into the classroom. You are better able to excite students! (B6: 85-108)

Loretta expresses the benefits of seeing multiple perspectives.

I was surprised about how the CSP environment radicalizes your thinking in areas where you were closed-minded and biased. It made me more open to opposite points of view. I found myself wanting to read perspectives that are contrary to mine so that I could have a more thorough understanding. I now see these issues from many-faceted positions. I am more concerned about being knowledgeable about issues rather than wanting to be right. (A2: 27-38)

The value of faculty interactions on an ongoing basis is expressed by Michelle.

What really stands out for me in addition to all the learning that I experience in team-teaching with my colleagues is simply the camaraderie, the friendship and the growing respect that I feel for them. I think that I just thrive in the CSP environment. Knowing the excellence that my peers bring to the classroom makes me rise to the occasion. When I hear concepts in a lecture that is new to me, I find myself going to the library to find out more about it so that I understand what is being discussed. (A1: 22-26)

Gwendolyn reinforces this opinion in her description.

Socially, my web of interaction goes even beyond this campus because of the faculty exchanges that I have participated in to spread the CSP model of instruction. The gratitude that I have experienced has grown to be vast, just profound. We have become soul mates and confidantes through these sites of knowledge, sites of collaborative research and sites of partnerships. So we have a wonderful community don't we? All professional relationships should be as reciprocal. It helps your spiritual and physical well-being! (A3: 77-102)

Meredith adds: "CSPs sure have made for some great, long-term friendships and intellectual companionships among faculty and students that have been just terrific!" (B5:

54). Daniel reinforces the opinion expressed by Meredith.

Team-teaching in learning communities is the most powerful and rewarding experience any instructor can have. I have acquired very deep and rewarding friendships with many faculty from teaching in learning communities. Their influences have affected me and how I see myself. These friendships grow deeper each year. Have you heard the Greek term "Agape?" That is what I feel for my colleagues! (B6: 42-43)

Cameron had this to say about the friendships he has gained: "It is kind of like an intellectual, personal and emotional high. Just getting to know each other makes you more

comfortable with yourself and confident in the classroom. And you establish long-lasting friendships with your colleagues that are far more meaningful. A sense of camaraderie" (B7: 78-80).

Meiklejohn maintained that through a collaborative teaching and learning process, reciprocal mentoring relationships would develop. He saw as other advantages the enhanced trust levels among faculty and the stimulation of intellectual synergy, giving faculty a greater sense of purpose and contributing to thinking of a higher order. These excerpted interviews reinforced his observations.

### Impact of CSPs on Personal, Social, and Professional Development

I investigated various aspects of instructional development encountered by the participants in this study in an effort to acquire an understanding of faculty development in CSP experiences. Consistent with Bell and Gilbert's study, I focused on three main domains of development in this study: personal, social, and professional development. The conceptual matrix and related outcomes for the personal, social, and professional development domains organized in a conceptual scheme by Bell and Gilbert (1994) are displayed in Appendix J. Narrative excerpts are provided in Appendix J as manifestations of each of the three domains and various facets of development. Appendix J also provides an in-depth perspective of the many facets of development found among the 10 participants in this study. Appendix K shows the documented development in categories and facet by participant source.

The following descriptions and narrative accounts provide additional examples of the personal, social, and professional development demonstrated by the participants. Within

these three domains, perspectives of instructional development are demonstrated in facets identified by Bell and Gilbert as initial, second, and third.

### Personal Development

This aspect of development is defined as the ability to accept the problematic aspects of one's teaching, to effectively deal with restraints, and to experience personal empowerment and locus-of-control in solving these problems.

Initial. In the initial facet of personal development faculty express professional dissatisfaction and awareness of problems in pedagogical practices. For example, in reflecting back on their teaching experiences before accepting a role in coordinated studies, all of the participants expressed awareness of problems. Daniel comments on what he sees as his shortcomings.

I never took any education classes in college. I learned how to teach through on-the-job training and observing my own teachers using a little of this and a little of that. In some ways, I wish I had classes in child and adult development to learn what you can expect in the way of abstraction at different age levels. So I wasn't really prepared to deal with students who were having problems and struggled in classes. (B6: 18-19)

Another example is pointed out by Loretta regarding the problems yet to be resolved on a broad scale in community college instruction.

Community colleges have open-door concepts but in our traditional courses, some instructors still teach to particular students who do very well rather than providing environments where all of the students can do well. We need to provide the kind of instructional environment in which they can thrive. We can do more to facilitate student success. In our discrete classes, we try to cram as much in as possible and we don't have enough time for students to process the information. (A2: 12-14)



Second. The second facet of personal development involves dealing with restraints that are problematic and restrict creativity, change and risk-taking. Participants discussed their success in overcoming these barriers to change. Cameron explains it this way.

When I started teaching in coordinated studies, I was rediscovering skills that were laying there dormant because I had opted for expediency and efficiency in classroom instruction rather than creativity. Teaching in coordinated studies was a release for me. It meant that I no longer had to teach in ways that were uncomfortable for me to teach but were the acceptable mode of instruction in education. What I think as really important, such as trying something new in pedagogy, probably would not have occurred in my single classes. But in coordinated studies it seemed so natural to experiment with new ideas. You are more willing to take risks. (B7: 48-50)

Michelle commented on her changes in pedagogy.

I find that I am becoming comfortable doing less lecturing. I am always thinking of ways for students to do something to learn. Whereas the traditional teacher felt like it was his or her total responsibility to be sure that the learning takes place. And before you knew it, you were like "Atlas" with this world on your back, and all bent over with the burden of being fully responsible for student learning and yet not communicating well. We were creating one-way process. I think this is called the "Atlas Complex" in teaching. Since coordinated studies, I have students working in groups and applying what they are learning. (A1A3: 82-85)

Third. Facet three of personal development relates to the ability of the instructor to trust in student's self-directed learning. In addition, the instructors value the contributions of students to the course and appreciate what they have learned not only from peers but students as well.

Gwendolyn made this statement about the contribution of students:

So it is not so much role reversal with students in coordinated studies where they become the teachers, it is role integration in which they are viewed as contributors to the learning. What we teach contextually, is the importance of multiple identities and perspectives. There are many ways of viewing an issue or a problem and we try to encourage students to look at the variables. They can have some interesting insights which helps me to see the issue through different lenses. (A1A3: 90-91)

Jason had comparable insights.

For students, the relationships change so that we are also learning from them to a certain degree — not so much as peers but being able to discuss things with them more in a mutual relationship. They don't treat you like the authority and the know-it-all, but share and discuss thoughts and ideas that enlightens the group. If someone tried to talk to you about ideas like that in a regular class, you would think they were trying to butter you up. Students in coordinated studies are candid about their views on issues. It makes for some lively debates. Seeing faculty disagreeing on issues and being open creates a more authentic relationship. (B3B4B5: 55-56)

### Social Development

Bell and Gilbert (1994) defined social development as team-evolvment, trusting and valuing relationships and collaborative ways of working with peers. Overall, a sense of community and social responsibility measures social development.

Initial. Instructors at the initial facet of social development are aware that isolation in the discrete classroom is problematic. Being the only instructor in the classroom does not provide new ideas via modeling, peer mentoring support and peer feedback by way of cognitive or collegial coaching. These practices are viewed by some as necessary for instructional development (Garmston, 1994; Harnish & Wild, 1993). Joseph describes the collaborative environment this way.

You learn from the other instructors in a coordinated studies course, recognizing that their knowledge and experience may be different than yours. So you are essentially, kind of in a student role yourself because you are sitting in the back observing another instructor, where an hour ago it was the reverse because you were up there teaching. You sit there and say, "Well, if I were the instructor I wouldn't have done it that way or Gee! I wish I had said it that way." So you do a lot of introspection. . . . You can search within yourself and say "I like the way she presented that topic, I am going to use that approach when I present mine." Maybe it was that flash of light or spark that said "Well, there is a connection — I do see that differently, I will do this better And I am a better teacher." And I get instant feedback from the other instructors — we do that quite often. "Well gee, Joseph why did you say that? Did you really mean to imply that? Being in that live spontaneous, environment with the opportunity to edit out

pieces and replay parts of it again makes you more willing to take risks that you wouldn't try in a discrete classroom alone with your students. (B1: 24-27,65-66)

Loretta's level of confidence was raised with peer feedback and observation.

Learning communities really gave me the opportunity for my teaching skills to be applied on an even broader scale and also to see how certain teaching practices can be effective with students when done correctly. It gave me an opportunity to see how seminars are conducted in a competent manner. When I saw them done appropriately, I was willing to try them again in the CSP with my two peers to give me feedback on my technique. This helped me to improve the process, and I put seminarizing back in my individual classes with more confidence. I am more willing to try new things in a CSP. It gave me greater assurance regarding my teaching approach, based on the comments of support and compliments from my peers. (A2: 49-51)

Second. Faculty development can be augmented when it occurs in an environment with peers who reflect the basic social values of affiliation (Finley, 1990). Instructors who place value in peer relationships, seek collaborative ways of learning, and engage in reciprocity are demonstrating these attributes. Additional manifestations are group problem-solving approaches in working with colleagues. Each of these characteristics exemplify social development within the secondary facet. Meredith demonstrates such social development in this statement:

So yes, at retreats — this college has been good about bringing us together at least once a year around some themes to talk about one or another aspects of teaching. So, that has been a part of the interdisciplinary discussions we have had. The dialogues and debates which occur at these sessions are gratifying and have challenged my thinking about issues in education related to classroom instruction. (B5: 28-30)

David expressed value in collaboration.

My relationship with colleagues is friendly enough. The only time that it is functioning to the level that is most rewarding is in coordinated studies. I have very few opportunities to interact with faculty outside of my division with the exception of coordinated studies. CSPs have been the best opportunity for interacting and exchanging ideas. The only time that we have together is if we are working on the same course. Otherwise, you

know all of your colleagues informally but you don't get to see them much due to lack of time, even within your department or division. (B5: 15-17)

Third. As instructors recognized the merits of collaboration, they began to actively seek and initiate those activities and relationships with colleagues that further fostered their development (Bell & Gilbert, 1994). These manifestations are normally exhibited in facet three of social development. Such practices included planning sessions to create CSPs and collegial coaching and debriefing sessions at the end of the quarter to assess the teaching and learning scheme. In many instances, these collaborative encounters continued through both formal and informal discussions. Some participants commented on conversations over the telephone in late-night discussions. During an interview with one of the learning community teams, this conversation occurred in relation to this practice. Gwendolyn states:

We have a meeting among the instructors in coordinated studies courses that becomes a sisterhood and brotherhood. In the case of our CSP, a sisterhood that is not just based on some superficial friendship, although we have gone to movies, art exhibits and museums together, seeking curriculum to bring into our courses. That is community-building beyond these walls. That is the possibilities — as Bell Hooks says, "The radical possibilities" in this new kind of creative thinking and planning instructional pedagogy. When we are unable to teach together, or get together to problem-solve, it's kind of depressing. (A1A3: 32-33)

Michelle replies to Gwendolyn by further reinforcing the value peer relationships.

And when you talk about sisterhood, I think that I've told you this on the phone a couple of times in our many late night conversations regarding the courses. When I am working with you or some other instructor that I have frequently worked with, just knowing the quality of the work that you do in your courses and what you expect of students makes me rise to the occasion. I need to consistently seek your advice on ideas that I have to enhance student learning and to better coordinate the direction of our courses. It is great to have someone else to discuss concerns and get feedback on ways to improve what we are doing in the courses. (A1A3: 34-35)

Cameron reflects on his first experience in team-teaching in coordinated studies.

So it was a real eye-opener — that whole experience of talking to other faculty on the team about your discipline and keeping late-night conversations about it. All processes which seemed to make teaching worthwhile. Even though we were putting it in and learning as we went along, it was still really good. I became involved a lot more. I think that coordinated studies tends to be just more of that collegial friendship, a bonding. What it did was add a depth so that you are talking about the disciplines and things related to the course and find out other people's views on them. So you gain a greater understanding of your peers — both their personal perspectives and greater view of their disciplines. Now the interactions are on a different level. (B7: 9-25)

### Professional Development

This domain of development involves engagement in pedagogical practices to gain insight in instructional strategies and growth in cognitive processes to attain higher order thinking.

Initial. Bell and Gilbert (1994) have found that participants at the first facet of professional development seemed to appreciate clarifying the problematic aspects of their teaching with colleagues. However, they also took pleasure in discovering that some of their teaching strategies were viewed by peers as innovative and creative. These instructors utilized classroom research techniques to acquire feedback on teaching approaches. They also adopted the role of teacher-as-learner, viewing classroom instruction in teams with other peers as professional development. Jerome expressed joy in discovering that a colleague whom he highly respected valued his teaching and confirmed the learning he experienced.

[Cameron] is looked upon by our colleagues and the administrative staff here as someone who is very good at what he does. He mentored me on my tenure committee and had observed and given me helpful suggestions during that process. I felt very happy when he said "let's see if we can develop a coordinated studies course together." That made me feel good that maybe he saw things in me that were workable. And so we developed

a CSP together last year along with [Gwendolyn]. That collegial experience was intellectually stimulating and it makes me want to do one each quarter. . . . It is always good to have two colleagues who teach in other disciplines to observe in the classroom. Because they bring insights about your own discipline. So I can incorporate new teaching practices and new knowledge, not only about my subject area but others as well. (B7B2A2: 18-32)

Jason gave expression to his feelings.

I've learned some of the strengths I have that I hadn't recognized before — some of the good things that I do that make other instructors get excited because these methods work well with students. So it reinforces the strengths that you have. . . . In comparing traditional team-taught courses to this innovation and organization of curriculum, former team-teaching — what we called "tag-team" didn't provide the faculty development and it was more of a drain than a source of rejuvenation as experienced in coordinated studies courses. In these courses, you get fed. In the traditional [compartmentalized] courses you give and give but you never get fed like in the CSPs. You are engaged in continual learning, not only in your discipline but in other fields as well in CSPs. (B3B4B5: 29-91)

Second. Instructors who demonstrated learning at the second facet of professional development were engaging in both cognitive and pedagogical development. Intellectually, they were clarifying the role of the instructor in the teaching and learning process, obtaining new information through listening and reading, making connections between new knowledge and information with existing ideas, reflecting, weighing, evaluating the newly constructed knowledge and using the newly accepted understanding with confidence. With respect to their pedagogical practices, they were applying new or improved suggestions for teaching, visualizing, planning for future classroom use, sharing their classroom skills with peers, obtaining feedback about practices and receiving instructional support (Bell & Gilbert, 1994). Meredith gives an example.

I never fail to learn something more about teaching when I teach in coordinated studies. I learn by watching other people teach. For example, the importance of pacing and its effects on students. It is just invaluable. You sit there in the classroom and you spend some of the time in the back with the students. It is a fascinating way to learn. . . . And the other thing, of course, is that you are forced to grow professionally and to review

things. So coordinated studies have provided me the opportunity to read about other disciplines and to learn from my colleagues lectures. I remember the first time that I did this I was so full of new ideas and new perspectives. And it continues to happen. (B3B4B5: 27-31)

Jason comments on his pedagogical development.

In terms of my own development, coordinated studies have provided a dramatic increase in my development. One, because here is a whole new pedagogy — a whole new way of looking at teaching and learning — whole new way to look at the development of knowledge. And second, being able to interact with colleagues from other disciplines and to draw on their expertise. But also, to rethink the curriculum. In this challenging environment I had to develop — I had to learn. I had to find other resources and read new books as we brought a new curriculum to bear on those subjects in these coordinated studies courses. So it is probably in the last 10 years in teaching CSPs that I have truly begun to get a liberal arts education. I have read over 100 books that I probably wouldn't have read on my own. I have learned to understand from the perspective of others and to broaden my own thinking and I have experienced other pedagogues and major renewal. (B3: 46-48)

Loretta gains new instructional insights.

For me it was an understanding of course content and links. Some of the same processes are applicable across disciplines. For example we talk about bio-rhythms, sleep patterns and body rhythms — it made it so much more understandable and interesting to bring music and poetry into the analysis. You see, we have this rhythm in the body that reoccurs much like the music and poetry does. I also learned about the importance of letting go a little bit too. General psych is inclusive of all of these terms and these concepts. I was concerned about how we were going to make them all blend in and fit because it seems like they don't go. And then I did that handout that had all of these terms, concepts and definitions. And I kept looking at that and going, "oh yeah, these things are coming out!" And it helped for me to re-evaluate that orientation which I use in regular classes. I was bound to the idea that we had these concepts to learn. CSPs helped me to break away from that even more. I found that in reality, the concepts that are important, students are getting and that's what happens when you are learning the crucial things in your role as teacher. It was kind of insightful to discover this as a developing instructor. (B7B2A2: 23-25)

Third. Some of the instructors became active in spreading the culture and continued their professional development through research and scholarship, or by facilitating peer development through faculty exchanges, cognitive coaching, mentoring, and modeling, in

order to disseminate the use of this teaching and learning model. Others wrote grants, conducted workshops and wrote articles for professional journals. While they were giving to others, they continued to value what they had received from other teachers with whom they team-taught. These instructors were functioning at the third facet of professional development as described by Bell and Gilbert (1994). Gwendolyn discussed professional gains that she has made through this collaborative experience.

I need change and I love coordinated studies because it is a change of venue — it is creative teaching. It can be extended across college campuses through our faculty exchange program. I am involved in an exchange in which I teach with two other instructors. These exchanges breed important values: a culture of collaboration, intellectual growth and renewal as entities within community. So this change — this exchange is not just based on boredom or dissatisfaction, it is part of the natural process of building a sense of community across college campuses . . . I have been inspired to pursue my Ph.D. through coordinated studies and I am writing a grant for the college. I developed a media project on our college and its programs. We need to write a book about this. (A1A3: 30-69)

Michelle reminds Gwendolyn of the article they wrote and workshops they have conducted as a team.

Yes, let's write a book as the next step from the article we wrote in that journal in 1994. [Gwendolyn], in 8 years, we have conducted a significant number of workshops and done conference presentations at colleges and universities both in-state and out-of-state on the CSP model of teaching and learning. We are in high demand because faculty and students become excited from our presentations and want to learn more. (A1A3: 104-105)

Gwendolyn comments on their workshop presentations.

Our presentations at these conferences has facilitated cross-cultural discourse because we use the same format that we use with students in teaching in CSPs. Participants are able to learn experientially, how to teach in this innovative model. So our web of interaction has extended cross-culturally, across national lines, sexuality lines, class lines, racial and ethnic lines as we spread this teaching and learning culture to other community colleges, 4-year colleges and universities. (A1A3: 106-107)



Cameron provides this reflection on the advantages of team-teaching with new faculty.

Working with new faculty members and bringing them into the college culture is so rewarding for me and it makes them more confident in the classroom. And this time, I thought this program with [Loretta] and [Jerome] was one of the most unified programs that I have ever taught in. This was a nice team with which to work. It became osmosis the way things just flowed together. And I learned so much from these two, even with all the years that I have taught CSPs. . . . I am so devoted to this model of teaching that I feel that all instructors should experience it.  
(B7B2A2: 57-60)

He further comments on what he has done to spread the culture to other colleges.

I frequently am a presenter and workshop facilitator at institutes and retreats which are provided to spread the culture to other faculty in the state. They are provided with information on this model of teaching. I also assist new learning community teams to develop and plan their curriculum.  
(B7B2A2: 57-80)

### Conclusion

In this chapter, I shared the experience of 10 community college faculty members who have taught in CSPs. The schema organized by Bell and Gilbert (1994) was applied in this study to assess the narrative accounts of the 10 participants. Their commentaries show that they see in themselves the achievement of personal, social, and professional development from the coordinated studies instructional model. In contrasting the development experiences of the 9 participants with the experiences of the individual included as the negative case, I found no differences. His interviews documented continued growth experiences from teaching in CSPs in all three domains and in various facets. Appendix K identifies participants who demonstrated development at each domain and within the initial, second, and third facet of development.

Faculty participants, commenting on the effectiveness of the development experiences in CSPs in contrast to traditional models found the CSP approach more

successful. They have also testified to the importance of locus-of-control. Freedom in making decisions related to curricula enhances creativity, they contend. Specifically, the 10 subjects found that CSPs offer the advantages of faculty ownership and autonomy, alleviating the restrictive conditions that bureaucracy commonly imposes on the creation and instructional delivery of traditional compartmentalized courses in community colleges. In describing morale issues and working relationships with colleagues and students, they affirm the advantages of their CSP experiences. Vitality, empowerment, renewal, productivity, and collegiality are addressed in their evaluations. These 10 faculty reinforced the beliefs of Meiklejohn regarding the benefits of a full-time team-teaching enterprise for both veterans and those new to teaching. This reinforcement was demonstrated in participants' references to the camaraderie, peer mentorships, metacognitive coaching, and intellectual growth in this teaching and learning environment.

In the following chapter, the meaning drawn from observations and conclusions drawn from the conducted research are presented. Some of the implications will be discussed and recommendations for further study will be offered.

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION OF OBSERVATIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is tempting to stop at this point, to let the profiles and the categorized excerpts speak for themselves. In the course of interviewing, the researcher asked the participants what their experience meant to them. Now he or she must respond to the same question. What was the experience like, how do I understand it make sense of it, see connections in it? (Seidman, 1991, p. 102)

In this study, I investigated the impact of teaching in CSPs on community college faculty. My goal was to find empirically-based evidence regarding the effects of the CSP genre of teaching and learning on instructional development in three domains: personal, social, and professional. While it is clear that all three of these domains are important, the social development domain became a major catalyst in the transformation that occurred in each faculty participant. Some faculty firmly believe that solutions to problems in the teaching and learning process are best resolved through social constructivist approaches. The prominent role of social development in facilitating personal and professional development of faculty in this study appears to add empirical evidence to this belief.

Four compelling observations with potentially important implications for community colleges surfaced in assessment of the findings in this study. These observations and implications will be presented.

#### Isolation in the Classroom is Problematic

Isolation — the condition found in solo teaching — is unlikely to provide the new ideas, support, and feedback essential for instructional development. In CSPs, instructors establish collegial relations and have a window into effective pedagogical strategies of

faculty peers and a mirror for viewing the problematic aspects of their own teaching. Social constructivists hold that community college faculty have made an important step toward development when they concede that isolation in the classroom setting is problematic (Bell & Gilbert, 1994). One of the most essential elements for improvement in the teaching and learning process is an awareness by faculty of existing problems in their teaching. Many community college faculty do not have a realistic view of their instructional skills. They work behind closed doors where causes and effects of inappropriate and ill-timed instructional practices can remain undiscovered (Maxwell & Kazauskas, 1992).

The tenure process in Washington State community college system is a 3-year process. Under prevailing conditions, the only time another professional sees a faculty member teach in the classroom setting is during this 3-year tenure process. During that time, the instructor on the tenure-track is observed periodically by peers and administrators. The potential for growth and improvement during probation depends at least on two elements: peer observer's knowledge of effective instructional strategies, and their willingness to provide candid feedback. In addition, instructors must be willing to change or the best of suggestions will amount to nothing. Understanding what is effective pedagogical practice is essential as well. Faculty, naturally, can be ambivalent about change. Resistance to adoption of unfamiliar practices is normal. Limited knowledge provides a rationale against adoption of unfamiliar practices. Community college faculty are sometimes uninformed about applicable research on pedagogy and may dismiss its potential value. Therefore, information on successful instructional practices is often viewed with a certain amount of skepticism (Alexander et al., 1996).

Participants in this study indicated that coordinated studies provides a non-threatening atmosphere for instructors to see for themselves; this first-hand experience

helps them to more readily adopt a change. Team-teaching in CSPs is an enlightening experience, increasing faculty consciousness of the ways that their teaching compares to that of peers. A testament to the truth of these propositions comes in the statement that Loretta made in an interview: "I had abandoned seminar to a large extent because it did not appear to work well with students. I saw this process applied appropriately and effectively with students by [Cameron] in CSPs and I was willing to try them again in my other classes" (A2: 49). In a CSP, instructors are able to see effects of an instructional strategy on students while it is being implemented in the classroom setting. The team-teaching opportunity allows faculty to problem-solve and share ideas regarding effective and creative teaching approaches.

#### CSPs Recapture Comradeship Encountered in Graduate School

Community college faculty freely admit that they miss the frequent exchanges that were a part of their academic life as students (Seidman, 1985). This study found that team-teaching in CSPs restores the sentiments of comradeship experienced in graduate school programs with discipline peers. Faculty miss the community of scholars experienced in graduate education and long for the intellectual dialogues which typically occur in this academic setting (Seidman, 1985). There appears to be something gratifying about the opportunity to discuss the latest research, a new perspective, a recent journal article or textbook with discipline colleagues. This same comradeship is often experienced at conferences focused specifically on their discipline or meetings of professional organizations, yet these encounters are infrequent and far too removed from the work-setting. Some faculty attribute the loneliness experienced in their work to their being the only one in their respective discipline, a feeling mentioned by Jason in an interview: "Being

the only history teacher here, there is no one else that I can talk to about my discipline"

(B3: 19). Effective structures for ongoing, meaningful intellectual dialogue and collegial relationships may be essential for high morale of community college faculty.

Efforts to initiate activities which foster scholarly peer discussions are widespread practices among community college faculty who have experienced CSP instruction. They quickly discover that relationships with colleagues across discipline boundaries can be equally as effective as interactions with discipline peers at professional meetings, conferences or in graduate school. Evidence shows that team-teaching alleviates the feeling of loneliness that exists in typical day-to-day experiences of some community college faculty; team-teaching relieves the melancholy that marks the days of some instructors who teach alone in their one-person discipline. Jason added this: "I realized how lonely it is in the individual classroom as I began to experience intellectual stimulation, collegiality, and rejuvenation with colleagues from other disciplines through my involvement in CSPs" (B3: 19). Traditional curricular formats and time schedules make peer discussions around pedagogy and intellectual arguments rare occurrences. In this common setting, there is little faculty interaction across departmental boundaries (Seidman, 1985). Faculty who have opportunities for collaborative encounters with peers engage in reciprocal relationships. Support and feedback are common practices.

CSPs provide an essential community framework for bringing faculty and students together in an educational environment that is normally otherwise individualistic. Following team-teaching experiences in CSPs, instructors altered patterns of conduct, extending interaction across divisions and among institutions through faculty exchanges. When faculty describe what they gain from such collaborative experiences, they tell stories about the bonding, connectedness, and comradeship that takes place among peers. Gwendolyn

described her experience this way: "In CSPs we begin to recognize the value of community bonding — an interrelated connectedness, shared vision, culture, and camaraderie with your colleagues — like a sister and brotherhood" (A3: 39).

Although coordinated studies renders continued collaboration and collegial association, instructors returning to teach in the traditional classroom are overcome with post-CSP depression. Faculty frequently comment on the melancholy and nostalgia experienced when the program ends. They find it difficult to adjust to the traditional classroom. Michelle speaks for others in this interview excerpt: "In comparing CSPs to that old solo thing, it is like being in company with good friends. You don't want to be without that company and when you are absent from that company. You yearn for it" (A1: 47). To overcome this depression, some faculty teams continue discussions after the quarter ends in informal social gatherings of faculty and students. However, class scheduling in the community college setting and the rigorous demands of faculty responsibilities limit opportunities for this newly formed community of scholars to continue intellectual dialogues as frequently as desired.

### Instructional Development is a Social Act

Instructional development evolves more effectively within the venture of teaching itself, in the context of other disciplines, and in the presence of knowledgeable peers. In this milieu, faculty develop personally and professionally.

Graduate school courses or workshops designed to teach pedagogical skills can become meaningless when conceived by faculty as isolated activities. Such professional formats may not be effective in facilitating instructor understanding (Meiklejohn, 1932). Studying the features of collegiate teaching, the methods of instructing the content of study,

and the conditions under which student learning occurs is best understood in the venture of teaching itself. During the teaching moment, mastery of instruction transpires as peers collaborate. Joseph made this observation: "CSPs gave me a better perspective of what it felt to be a student and an instructor almost simultaneously as I observed and experienced the impact of a colleague's instruction on me and the students" (B1: 26). Opportunities for reflection occur while instructors observe the impact of an instructional strategy on students. Instructors clarify existing beliefs as they build new ideas and develop insights. Joseph described this experience as having a tremendous impact on transference of the teaching skill. He contrasted this synchronous teaching and learning environment with the asynchronous learning that occurs from attending a workshop or a class on pedagogical practices. When attending a workshop, doubts raised regarding his ability to retain the new practice when he returns to the classroom are hard to overcome, he said. He further added, faculty may observe sound instructional strategies and even practice them during the workshop or class, but they don't know whether the strategy will work with students when they return to the classroom.

Some of the participants concluded that there is a lack of relevance, coherence, and content in most traditional workshops while in contrast, coherence and integration are found in the CSP instructional model. Coherence appears to be more readily established for some faculty in this contextual learning process rather than in self-directed learning. The participants in this study hold adamantly to their conclusion that knowledge and skills are acquired in a more unified manner within teaching itself and under the guidance of those with understanding of effective pedagogy. Some even felt that observing ineffective or unsuccessful instructional strategies of peers in the CSP environment helped them to see the short-comings of some of their own instructional practices. Meredith gives this example:



"I've learned about pacing in a lecture. The most wonderful and important information in the world can go right past students if it is thrown at them too fast or for so long and so slow as to be dull. I have watched my peers in CSPs teach at a fast, slow and normal pace and have observed the effects on students. In this process, I have learned the effectiveness of pausing to involve students in discussions-something that would not have occurred to me before that observation in CSPs" (B5: 108).

In CSPs, faculty can learn teaching skills and see the effect on students immediately. Pedagogical skills are practiced under the guidance of the team and the instructional strategy is perfected through observation. Opportunities to discuss issues with peers, engage in critical self-reflection, and to receive feedback further reinforces new skills. This process is known as transformational learning (Mezirow, 1990). An experiential learning approach in the classroom setting provides an occasion to observe each other's teaching. Experiential learning is a more effective way to build pedagogical knowledge.

Instructors are expected to instill within students an understanding of the interrelationships of disciplines and to "enhance intelligence: the ability to apply knowledge in any individual situation or to be self-directed in the affairs of life" (Meiklejohn, 1932, pp. 6-7). Yet in the traditional graduate school settings designed to develop specialties within a field, education is fragmented. The relational elements from one discipline to another is a matter left for the learner. CSPs allow faculty from different fields to think together about the varied aspects of the curriculum. David's comment lends credence to this: "I've been saying for a long time that I now know a lot more [from teaching in CSPs] than I did when I got out of college. It is exciting to see the connections you generally make in things you thought were separate whether it be disciplines or questions or things. You understand your own field much better" (B4: 64). Intellectual dialogues with team

members enhance faculty understanding of the connections among disciplines and provide them with a new lens through which to view their own discipline.

Comments of instructors show that learning from others and examining other bodies of knowledge in the context of one's own discipline advanced their ability to make these connections. The new levels of self-awareness and the intellectual growth that they experience in this genre of teaching and learning were confirmed by faculty. Loretta comments: "For me it was an understanding of course content and links. Some of the processes are applicable across disciplines such as bio-rhythms, rhythms and meters, listening and perceptions — from the perspective of English literature, music and psychology. It made more sense in this interdisciplinary context" (A2: 23). Instructors are amazed to discover that they also learn from their students in the CSP environment. Jason remarked: "I was learning from my students, seeing them in seminars, discussing books that I had also read and hearing their insights. This [process] provided new insights for me" (B3: 54). Faculty in this study state that prior to team-teaching experiences in CSPs they were incapable of imparting this knowledge to students in stand-alone courses. Since their own educational experience was cumulative, courses taught as separate subjects rather than integrative, making connections, synthesizing, and seeing the relational aspects among disciplines was difficult.

Through social learning experiences in the CSP, the understanding of professional development is broadened to include responsibility for the growth of peers. Team-teaching in CSPs becomes an avenue for faculty to assume this responsibility. This team-teaching opportunity allows faculty to mentor other faculty and model effective pedagogical practices. Some faculty develop the ability to function as metacognitive coaches, using Socratic methods to assist colleagues in problem-solving exercises regarding instructional

strategies or the interpretation of issues. For example, Joseph illustrated this practice when he gave this example: "I get instant feedback from colleagues when we are debriefing after a CSP session. I am asked, 'Did you really want to imply that? How might you change it to improve it?' It helps me to visualize what went wrong" (B1: 66). In many instances, this role expands to include assistance to other colleagues through workshops or institutes and faculty exchanges to inform peers at other colleges about this instructional innovation.

Cameron stated: "I have been a workshop presenter and facilitator at retreats designed to familiarize faculty with this model of instruction" (B7: 80). Others attend graduate school or obtain grants for innovative projects. Gwendolyn commented: "I have completed my Ph.D. from team-teaching in CSPs with Michelle who helped me improve my own writing skill through her effective instruction. I have also been successful writing many grants which were funded" (A3: 113). Faculty believe that they have become less biased in their viewpoints and are more accepting of the perspectives of others. Some have expressed gratification in developing awareness of the value in diversity and in accepting different opinions. Gwendolyn reflected on her growth: "I have more patience and appreciation for difference. For example, at one time I would have said to a non-native English speaker, 'Would you please repeat that?' Now, I recognize that the ownership is on me to listen" (A3: 108).

The personal development that occurs from this experience is also demonstrated by faculty. Instructors have cited as outcomes of CSP participation enhanced self-efficacy, respect for peers, trust in colleagues, and willingness to engage in candid discussions. Faculty learn to value heterogeneous group discussions, discourse, and difficult dialogue. Joseph stated: "Engaging in difficult dialogue brings about consensus, honesty, respect, and both personal and group identity in this community of students and colleagues. I've learned

to see the community as being more concerned about the group than the individual" (B1: 80). These exercises expand their ability to view issues and situations from the perspective of others (Garmston, 1994). Working in an environment in which faculty accept an understanding of multiple realities is an empowering experience which can increase self-awareness and facilitate the process of coming to terms with others who are different (Tierney, 1993). Such relationships are essential for overcoming the competitive ethos viewed as a divisive force searing faculty relations (Seidman, 1985). Developing a more cooperative campus culture is fundamental for survival of community colleges. Group problem-solving both in and out of the classroom setting is necessary for coping with complex problems confronting society and for strengthening the institution (Myran et al., 1995).

Through working full-time with students and peers, faculty learn extensively about student learning, themselves, and their discipline; they gain new knowledge regarding other disciplines. Instructors realign subject-matter that is often fragmented in the typical educational setting of single-discipline focused curriculum. This realignment process has a major impact on intellectual growth of faculty and the acquisition of reliable teaching and learning strategies far beyond what they may experience in traditional faculty development programs. Faculty interactions across discipline boundaries in CSPs result in personal, social, and professional development.

#### Faculty Experience Rejuvenation and Empowerment in CSPs

After many years of instruction, faculty are overcome by the repetitive motions involved in teaching the same courses. CSPs open the door to a new pathway to inventiveness, a new way to teach. By restructuring the work environment, CSPs enable

the instructor to participate in an instructional venue that is spontaneous and unique. Because the framework for CSPs allows for self-direction, faculty are free of the normal barriers and restrictions experienced in traditional courses.

Instructors commented on change during and after the CSP experience. They expressed excitement about the opportunity to be innovative and creative; they enjoyed the chance to design a program from its inception. Joseph stated: " It was an opportunity to be innovative and creative. It was an opportunity to design and develop a new program — tear down some mental walls — cross some academic hurdles" (B1: 14). They valued the opportunity to step outside of the constraints of traditional courses.

Enthusiasm develops in the CSP instructional program because there is shared ownership in its design and configuration; an important aspect of the experience. Knowing that the administration of the college supports and encourages instructional autonomy: the essence of academic freedom, instructors gain added respect for the institution. The high value placed on autonomy and flexibility in making decisions regarding the curriculum, structure, and format of CSPs is readily evident to those who have had the opportunity to interact with CSP teams. This instructional ethos provides some community college faculty with the locus-of-control which they often yearn for in their work (Gabelnick et al., 1990). In most instances, faculty morale improves and their level of productivity increases from this CSP experience, because they highly value the freedom granted to these teams. Gwendolyn stated: "I can appreciate what we have here. We have collegial relationships — community and collaboration with faculty and administration. I think that coordinated studies helps with that culture. So what it has done is created this space for that to happen" (A3: 28).

The CSP structure contrasts with the traditional course patterns, where format and time span are dictated by bureaucratic requirements at the state level. Community college faculty who experience CSP team-teaching have valued occasions to fashion their enterprise and collaborate with colleagues on purposeful issues to attain a common good (Gabelnick et al., 1990). Shared inquiry, faculty creativity, and locus-of-control contribute to the sense of satisfaction. Instructors see significance in the organic evolvement of CSPs. Community college faculty have high regard for autonomy and prefer self-direction in their work (Higgins et al., 1994). Jason commented on this: "The CSP is organic. We have the flexibility to make a dramatic change in the curriculum as we have known it and a creation of a larger block of time that allows for both students and faculty to benefit. The CSP is transformed every time we team-teach it and that is renewing" (B3: 6).

In CSPs, risk-taking is encouraged; participants rejoice in the liberty to work with peers in reorganizing classroom teaching. They restructure the curriculum to meet goals and outcomes of this instructional program. This process can solve problems that account for low faculty morale. The changed environment establishes a positive environment with the administration. Participation in faculty teams for hours each week during a quarter, offers the opportunity to create collaborative, tangible, spontaneous, and innovative CSPs.

Several ramifications for instructional development practices of community colleges can be seen in CSPs. Research has clearly shown that community colleges are challenged to discover effective strategies for achieving the goals of educational reform both in the knowledge acquisition of students and the instructional development of faculty (Myran et al., 1995). A deep longing has been shown by community college faculty for more meaningful comradeship and effective structures for on-going intellectual dialogue with colleagues. The experiences of the participants suggest that CSPs enable faculty to find

alternative ways of thinking about effective learning processes for themselves as well as students. CSPs seem concurrently to promote excellence in teaching and learning, instructional development, mentoring-modeling relationships, and collegiality.

Faculty value in this experience the opportunity to tap into a reservoir of energy for change and innovation within the institution. The CSP becomes an antidote to disaffection. This energy is described by John Dewey (1938/1965) as the power of association: a process in which imitation and identification become shared experiences with intrinsic value for all participants. CSPs can be an effective associative response to the instructional development and collaborative needs of some faculty. Faculty work together in team-teaching environments and learn from each other while releasing powers of human association to transform learning, kindle enthusiasm and spark creativity. Michelle stated: "So I need that boost of vitality in my life that I gain from CSP team-teaching to keep myself academically and intellectually alert. When I stay within my own discipline there is very little excitement and challenge" (A1: 35).

This instructional ethos appears to solve an endemic problem confronting community college faculty: lack of time for pursuing instructional development opportunities. Patrick Hill (1985) states that:

It builds through educational dialogue, a mechanism for ongoing instructional development of faculty into the real time and real space, in the regular hours of the work day . . . the ordinary time and space of the institution. (p. 2)

This is accomplished within the context of collaborative instruction, providing faculty the opportunity to go beyond the confines of the isolated classroom.

### Potential Hurdles

One big obstacle stands in the way of CSPs. The obstacle is financing. The Washington community college system relies heavily on high student-faculty ratios to generate the number of annualized full time equivalent students for required funding. Compared with traditional general education courses, CSPs have a lower student-faculty ratio. Limited community college resources place constraints on the number of CSPs offered during the academic year. This limitation creates competition among CSPs and other learning community teams for the opportunity to offer such programs.

Another potential obstacle exists in the complexities of human-relations. Compatibility among the team members and consistency in expectations are required for success. On some occasions, problems occur because the chemistry of the team fizzles. Conflicting goals can upset the day-to-day relations of the team members. Serving on a team then, is not an antidote to disaffection but a prescription with disturbing side-effects. Often, disappointment follows. Knowing the obstacles, CSP planners can take action to surmount them. Instructors must take time to get acquainted with one another and select team members based on group compatibility. Cameron stated: "Some of the simplest things, like the notion of having similar pedagogues, philosophies, and grading policies are important issues for teams to resolve in advance. It is important that the team members spend time to work these issues out prior to the quarter that the CSP is offered. Our team met for an academic year to plan and to get to know each other" (B6: 61). Knowing each others' idiosyncrasies, team members learn to make allowances, adjust and adapt.

Compensations for the potential gaps in cohesion exist in long-term strengths of the CSP. Foremost is flexibility in the structure to meet the changing needs of participating faculty. This study shows that a basic value reflected in this milieu of instruction is



affiliation. Reciprocal actions multiply and camaraderie builds. Collegial relationships become friendships. Instructional development occurs within the context of faculty work. Experimenting with instructional strategies, participants discover appropriate methods for both subject-matter delivery and facilitating effective student learning. Faculty mentoring is engaged to overcome the gaps in the pedagogical skill and education of community college faculty members. As Meredith stated: "You are being groomed in the company of colleagues with expertise whom you admire and respect" (B5: 104). Documented evidence shows the value of mentoring relationships among faculty (Garmston, 1994). Participants become skilled in mentoring. Through mentoring, intellectual synergy among faculty is put into play. Complex instructional issues are more easily resolved (Luna & Cullen, 1996). Harnish and Wild (1993) offered this perspective on the value and benefits of peer mentoring relationships:

Peer mentoring where those in the mentor relationship are mutual colleagues or peers is an effective strategy. Both participants have something of value to contribute and to gain from the other . . . Both the creation and dissemination of instructional innovations among faculty mentors is facilitated by interaction among peers. Peer mentoring has the potential for serving as a powerful intervention strategy in the improvement of instruction in higher education. (p. 272)

### Recommendations for Further Study

Several ideas for additional research in examining the instructional development elements in learning community models emerged from this study. Questions remain after analyzing the statements that participants made when interviewed about their CSP experiences. Consistent with surveys conducted by others, participants in this study said that they benefitted socially, personally, and professionally from team-teaching in CSPs. Those who benefitted see team-teaching in CSPs as an avenue for instructional development

and for alleviating the isolation and loneliness experienced by faculty in community college settings. Conclusions about the meaning of these statements had to be qualified because a question about the philosophical propensities of the 10 study participants emerged: Would outcomes have been different if the teaching philosophy of the participants had been different? Individuals who participated subscribed to the educational philosophy and orientation of progressivism and social constructivism. During the data collection process of this study, when they were asked to identify and define their educational philosophy and beliefs about knowledge acquisition, it could be seen that they held some important beliefs in common. All 10 of the participants demonstrated that they were social constructivists and progressivists. Each of them had made a shift in their pedagogy, described by Barr and Tagg (1995) as a transition from an "instruction paradigm" designed to deliver instruction to students, to a "learning paradigm" in which instructors take responsibility for the degree to which each student learns (p. 13). This learner-centered pedagogical approach embraces active student learning and collaborative processes in the teaching and learning environment. In contrast, many instructors view their role as providing instruction or to teach and measure their success on the basis of the organization of lectures, efficiency in covering course material and demonstrated knowledge in the subject-matter. Would faculty members who identify themselves as individualists with the strictly self-directed learning and competitive ethos preferences benefit from the coordinated studies model of instructional development? Would they even consent to participate in CSPs? One issue not addressed in this study is the impact of one's educational philosophy and orientation on preferences in instructional development.

Collaborative learning, a form of shared inquiry, has proved effective in shaping instructional development. Tatenbaum and Mulkeen (1986) found that this process

recognizes that instructors can best learn from each other. The learning approach brings problems to the surface, where they can be identified. Solutions to the problems can be devised and the modeled educational strategies can be more easily adopted (Brody, 1995). After having this experience, many faculty report significant gains in their development, enhanced networking skills with greater respect for collaborative learning (Mathis et al., 1988). Studies conducted by Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986, 1997) on women students determined they preferred collaborative learning, which the researchers describe as "connected knowing." They found that collaborative learning is a more effective educational process for women. Women learn from cooperatively tying theory to personal experiences. This format is contrary to the "separate knowing" which is the most commonly practiced process for the acquisition of knowledge. In another study, Lundeberg and Moch (1995) set out to discover why cooperative learning and collaboration is effective in promoting achievement in women. Is the social interaction process in which modeling and collaborative discussions facilitate learning more effective with women than with men? This current study also found that collaborative learning impacts instructional development of faculty. The benefits were no different for the men than women; every participant validated personal and professional development through social interactions. In this study, there was a greater proportion of men than women. A total population of 10 participants however, is relatively small. Although numerous studies corroborate the effectiveness of collaborative and cooperative learning in instructional development, the gender issue was not considered. The impact of gender on successful instructional development through peer collaboration warrants further study.

The 10 participants in this study constitute a small percentage of the total population of faculty teaching in higher education. In addition, all of the 10 were from two

community colleges in Washington State. How would CSPs and other models of learning communities impact the instructional development of faculty from other higher education institutions? A survey of higher education institutions nationally by Gabelnick et al. (1990) found this instructional model effective in facilitating instructional development of faculty. The findings, however, were primarily based on anecdotal evidence. Research on larger faculty populations in higher education would be highly informative and provide useful information regarding instructional development approaches.

This study focused on the CSP, yet there are many other models of learning communities offered at higher education institutions in the nation. Are other models as effective in providing instructional development for faculty as the CSP model? This question warrants thorough exploration. In the evaluations conducted by Gabelnick et al. (1990), reference is made to many models of learning communities developed in higher education institutions, and it is likely that institutions will disagree regarding the effectiveness of various models.

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## **APPENDICES**

## **APPENDIX A**

### **INFORMED CONSENT FORM**

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION  
COMMUNITY COLLEGE LEADERSHIP PROGRAM — OSU

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

- A. Title of the Research Project. A Qualitative Investigation: The Impact of Teaching in Coordinated Studies on Faculty Development
- B. Principle Investigators. Professor Sam Stern
- C. Purpose of the Research Project. This research project is an investigative study which involves phenomenological interviewing. The purpose of this study is to explore the impact of teaching in learning community courses on the professional, social and personal development of community college faculty.
- D. Procedures. I have received an oral and a written explanation of this study and I understand that as a participant in this study the following things will happen:
1. Pre-study Screening. The Applicant will indicate an interest in being a participant by completing an application specifying years of experience teaching learning community courses, discipline area focus, phone numbers, schedule of availability and best times to be reached. The applicant will also participate in a pre-screening interview with the student researcher, Andrea Rye to be apprised of the process and the extent of the time commitment as a participant in this study. An invitation to participate may be extended, based on the application and the pre-screening interview.
  2. What participants will do during the study. The student researcher, Andrea Rye will conduct three face-to-face 50 to 90-minute phenomenological interviews with the participants. As a participant, you will be interviewed alone for the first interview and with the learning community team for the interview. The participant who agrees to pilot the interview protocol will be interviewed alone for both interviews. Likewise, the participant who is the negative case source will also be interviewed alone for both interviews.

The student researcher, Andrea Rye will audio tape these interviews. The transcribed interviews will be processed and analyzed through qualitative methods. This analysis will address the research questions and to develop a profile of the personal, social, and professional characteristics of you as a participant. The data collected on you will be shared with you for member checks and validation. This data will also be shared with colleagues who are knowledgeable about the learning community instructional model for peer briefing. An unofficial research partner who is conducting a similar study with community college faculty in Oregon may also have access to this data.

The student researcher will conduct one observation of each participating learning community team in the classroom setting.

The participants will respond to the questions in attached Interview Protocol. The study will be guided by the following general research questions:

How do community college faculty perceive development occurring in learning community courses?

How do they compare and contrast this experience to traditional faculty training and development programs?

What professional, personal and social development occurs for them in this instructional model?

How does it effect their skills in meta-cognition, meta-analysis, and the process of intellectual development?

3. Foreseeable risks or discomforts. There are no foreseeable risks to you as a participant in this study. Only the student researcher and her major professor will have access to the data. Direct quotes from the interviews will be used to confirm findings in this study.
  4. Benefits to be expected from the research. This study may provide participants through personal analysis and reflection, with an enhanced level of awareness regarding the knowledge skills and abilities gleaned from this model of teaching. The outcomes of this study may also be useful to faculty and administrators as potentially effective approaches to faculty development, a critical concern for community colleges nationally.
- E. Confidentiality. Confidentiality will be assured through the use of identification numbers and pseudonyms in all research documents and in the thesis report of this project. No names or other identifiable characteristics such as the name of your college, city or location will be used in the report. A cross-referenced file matching names and identification numbers will be developed by me. The original documentation with your identity and signature will be secured in a safe place accessible by me, only. Only I, Andrea Rye, as the student researcher and my major professor as the principal investigator in this study will have access to the true identity of the participants in this study.
- I may wish to use some of the materiel gathered in this study for instructional purposes or in future presentations and publications. Any use of the materials not consistent with these listed purposes would require your additional written consent.
- F. Compensation for injury. This item is not applicable to this study.
- G. Voluntary participation statement. I understand that participation in this study is strictly voluntary, and that I may either refuse to participate or withdraw from the study at anytime throughout this process at anytime, without any further obligation to the student researcher or the principal investigator.

- H. If you have questions. I understand that any questions that I have about the research study and/or specific procedures should be directed to Andrea Rye, 5560 South Holly St., Seattle, WA, 19886, (206) 546-4676 (h) or (206) 546-4676(w), Email address, arye@arye.seanet.com, or arye@ctc.edu. Any other questions should be directed to Mary Nunn, Sponsored Programs Officer, OSU Research Office, (503) 737-0670.
- I. My signature below indicates that I have read and that I understand the procedures described above and give my informed and voluntary consent to participate in this study. I understand that I will receive a signed copy of this consent form.

---

Signature of Participant  
(or participant's legal  
authorized representative)

---

Name of Participant

---

Date Signed

---

Participant's Present Address

---

Participant's Phone Number

---

Signature of Principal Investigator  
(Optional)

---

Date Signed

## **APPENDIX B**

### **INTERVIEW PROTOCOL**

INTERVIEW #1
--------------

(The focus of the initial interview will be on background and past experiences in personal social, and professional development efforts prior to teaching learning community course.)

Tell me about your entrance into the teaching profession. What influenced your decision to become an instructor, and to focus on your current discipline (s).

Have you experienced variations in your level of satisfaction with your chosen profession and what contributed to those variations?

Tell me what you found to be the least and the most satisfying experiences in your role as instructor?

Assess your professional education and development for your role as instructor?

How would you evaluate your relationship and your level of interaction with your colleagues on campus?

Discuss opportunities for interdisciplinary discussions, teaching and learning strategies and problem solving approaches among faculty?

How would you assess your level of involvement in developing new courses, curriculum revision efforts within your discipline, and level of participation in your division and campus activities?

Evaluate your previous knowledge, skills and abilities in effective teaching pedagogy. Relate this to your philosophy of education. Describe your level of confidence in your ability to teach.

Describe your relationship and level of involvement with students.

Evaluate the Faculty development experiences that you have had over the course of your career as an instructor. How would you evaluate the level of success of these experiences.

INTERVIEW #2
--------------

(The focus of this interview will be on current experiences and perceptions of faculty regarding faculty development in coordinated studies courses.)

What does the term learning community mean to you?



What influenced you to participate in coordinated studies courses? Why have you (or have you not) continued to participate?

Teaching in learning communities provided you something you did not have before. What is it?

What stands out for you about team-teaching in a Coordinated studies course regarding your instructional development? What is important to you as a developing instructor and developing professional?

What questions come up for you about your own teaching and about the effectiveness of coordinated studies as a developing faculty member?

Evaluate this team-teaching experience and its impact on your relationship with your colleagues, students and others on campus?

Have you perceived changes in your level of productivity in your role? Give examples or describe the changes that you have experienced.

Has teaching in coordinated studies courses effected your teaching pedagogy and your philosophy of education?

Evaluate its impact on your view of your profession and level of job satisfaction?

Do you see a link between the learning community and faculty development?

Can you identify specifically, ways that you have improved your teaching as a result of teaching in coordinated studies courses?

(Final Questions for faculty who perceived development from LCs.)

If you could identify, any social, personal and professional, intellectual development and growth in content area knowledge experiences from teaching in coordinated studies courses what would they be?

You have indicated that you have perceived professional development experiences from your participation in coordinated studies courses. How would you evaluate and compare this professional development to traditional faculty development experiences in the past?

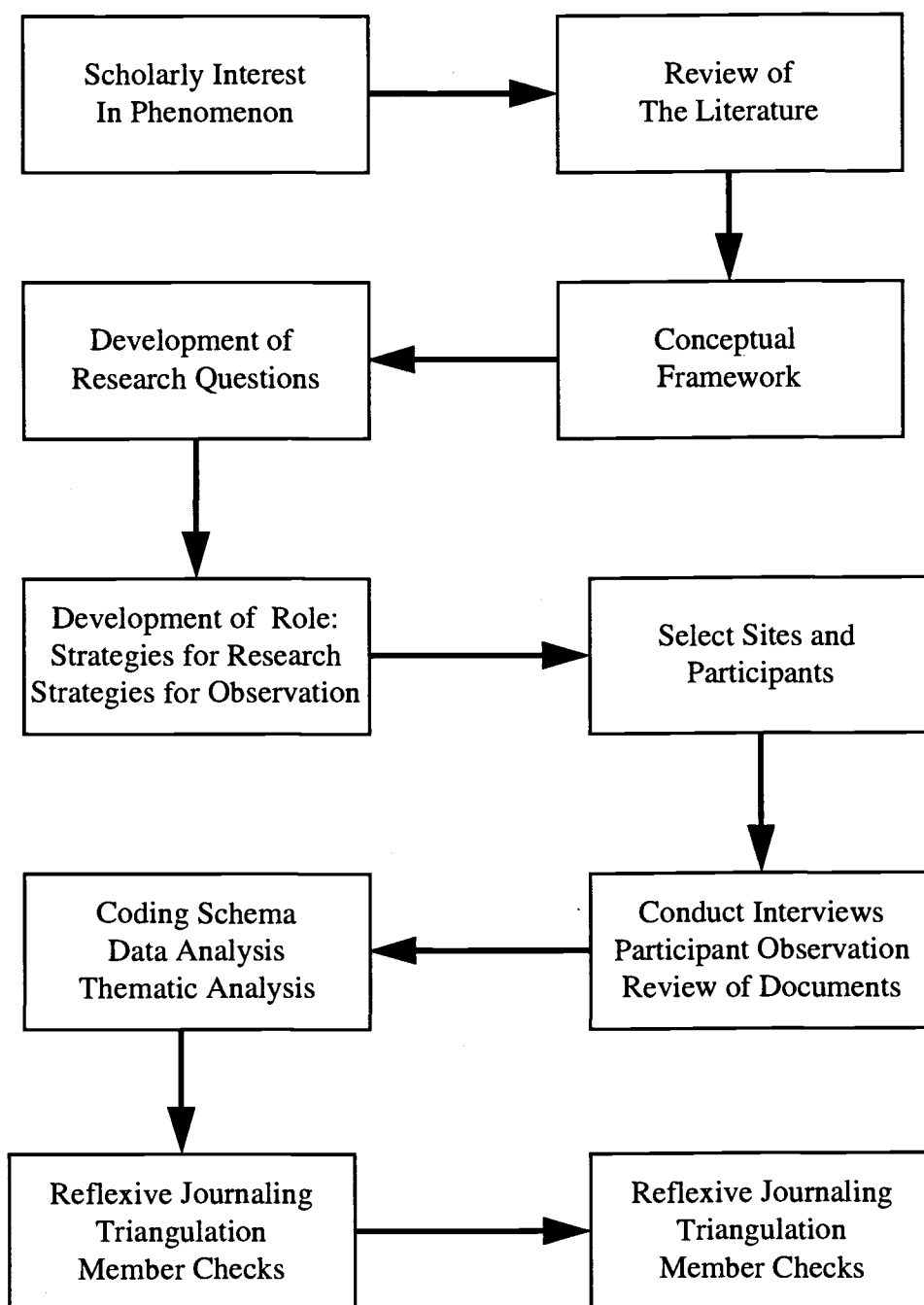
Reflect on those faculty development experiences.

(Final questions for faculty members who disagree)

What are your perceptions regarding why it did not work for you? What have you found to be more effective faculty development process for you?

## **APPENDIX C**

### **DATA COLLECTION-ANALYSIS MANAGEMENT SCHEME**



### Data Collection-Analysis Management Scheme

Note. Concepts are from "Teacher Development as Professional, Personal and Social Development," by B. Bell and J. Gilbert, 1994, *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 10, p. 485. Copyright 1994 by Elsevier Science Ltd., The Boulevard, Langford Lane, Kidlington OX5 1GB, UK. Adapted with permission.

## **APPENDIX D**

### **TIME LINE AND CHRONOLOGY OF RESEARCH PROCESS**

## TIME LINE AND CHRONOLOGY OF RESEARCH PROCESS

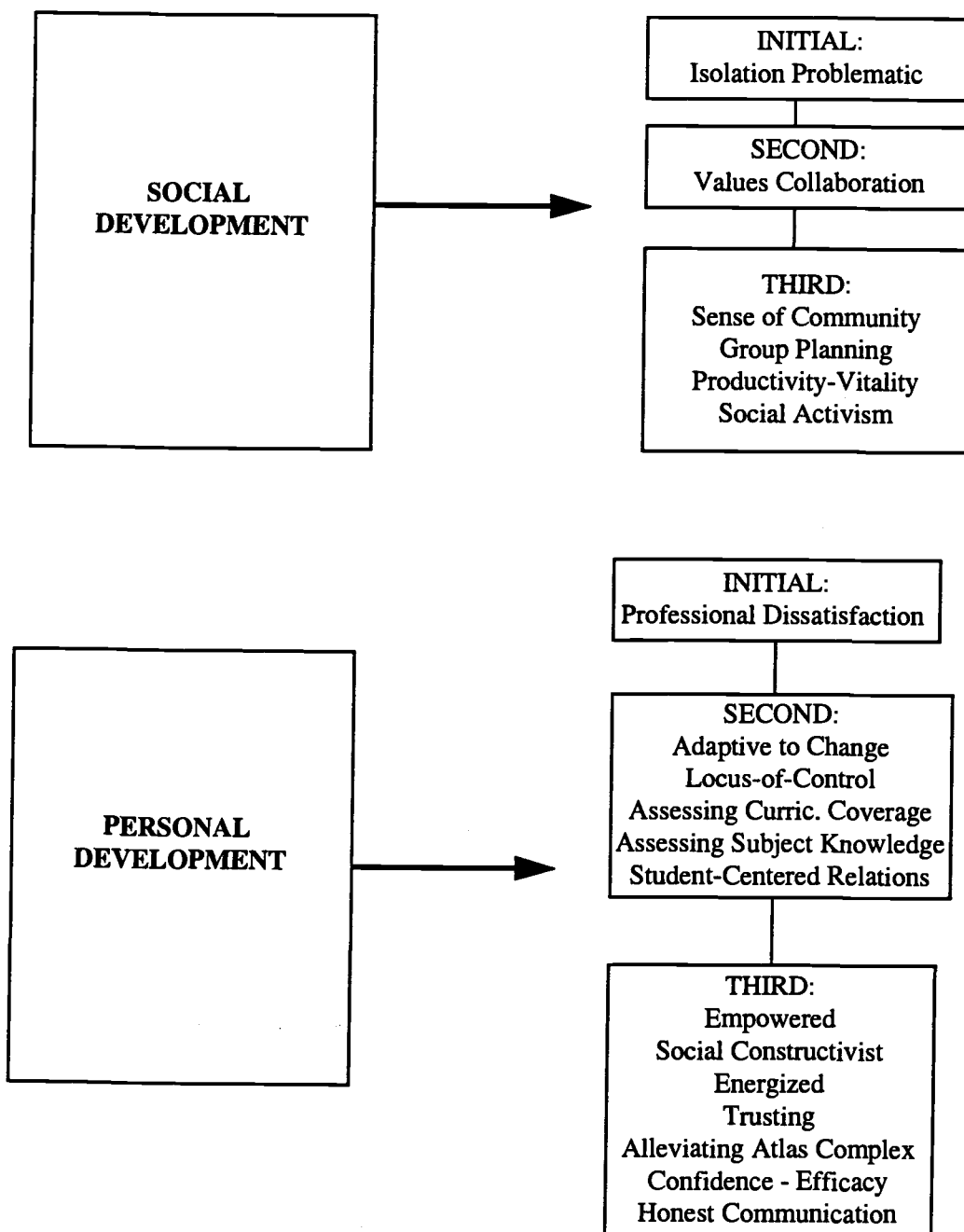
<b>1995-96</b>	<b>Survey Project: Washington Center</b>
July	Interview process begins with community college personnel
October	Interview process completed Tape transcription completed Coding and data analysis completed Article written
November	Thesis proposal presented Interview protocol developed and approved
December	Contacts and selection of participants Meetings with participants - interviews scheduled Informed Consent Forms submitted and approved Informed Consent forms completed by participants
<b>1996-97</b>	<b>Data Collection and Analysis Process Begins</b>
January	Interviews with pilot Adjustments in interview protocol Initial coding of transcribed pilot interviews Journal entries
February	Site visit to Seattle Central Community College Individual interviews with two participants Second interview with CSP team Initial coding of transcribed interviews Journal entries Visit with potential negative case source First interview with a participant
March	First interview with two additional participants Second interview with CSP team Initial coding of transcribed interviews Journal entries
April	Site visits to Seattle Central - member checks Field notes and journaling process Thematic analysis process begins Site visit to North Seattle Community College Peer briefing and data convergence with Gail Pincus
May	Contact with participants

## TIME LINE AND CHRONOLOGY OF RESEARCH PROCESS (Continued)

<b>May</b>	Contact with participants Informed Consent Forms completed Meetings with participants - interviews arranged First interview with participants Second interview with CSP team Initial coding of transcribed interviews Site visits - field notes and reflexive journaling Discussion of findings with Gary Tollefson
<b>June</b>	Second comprehensive review of literature Thematic analysis Reflexive journaling
<b>July</b>	Chunking data Manual construction of participant profiles Member checks - reflexive journaling
<b>Additional Techniques for Assessing Trustworthiness</b>	
<b>August</b>	Interview and peer briefing with Jean MacGregor Training on NUD*IST software Peer briefing and convergence of findings with Gail Pincus Reflexive journaling Creation of indexing tree in NUD*IST Data coding and category indexing with NUD*IST Data retrieval and sorting with NUD*IST
<b>September</b>	On-line document entries Node addressing with NUD*IST Node definitions created Word searches for themes and connections Text unit search - thematic analysis Data analysis completed Findings chapter developed
<b>October</b>	Final profile constructing of participants Summary of findings Peer briefing with Rosetta Hunter Reflexive journaling Research conclusions - questions of generalizability Methodology chapter revised Discussion of Research with Beverly Bell and John Gilbert

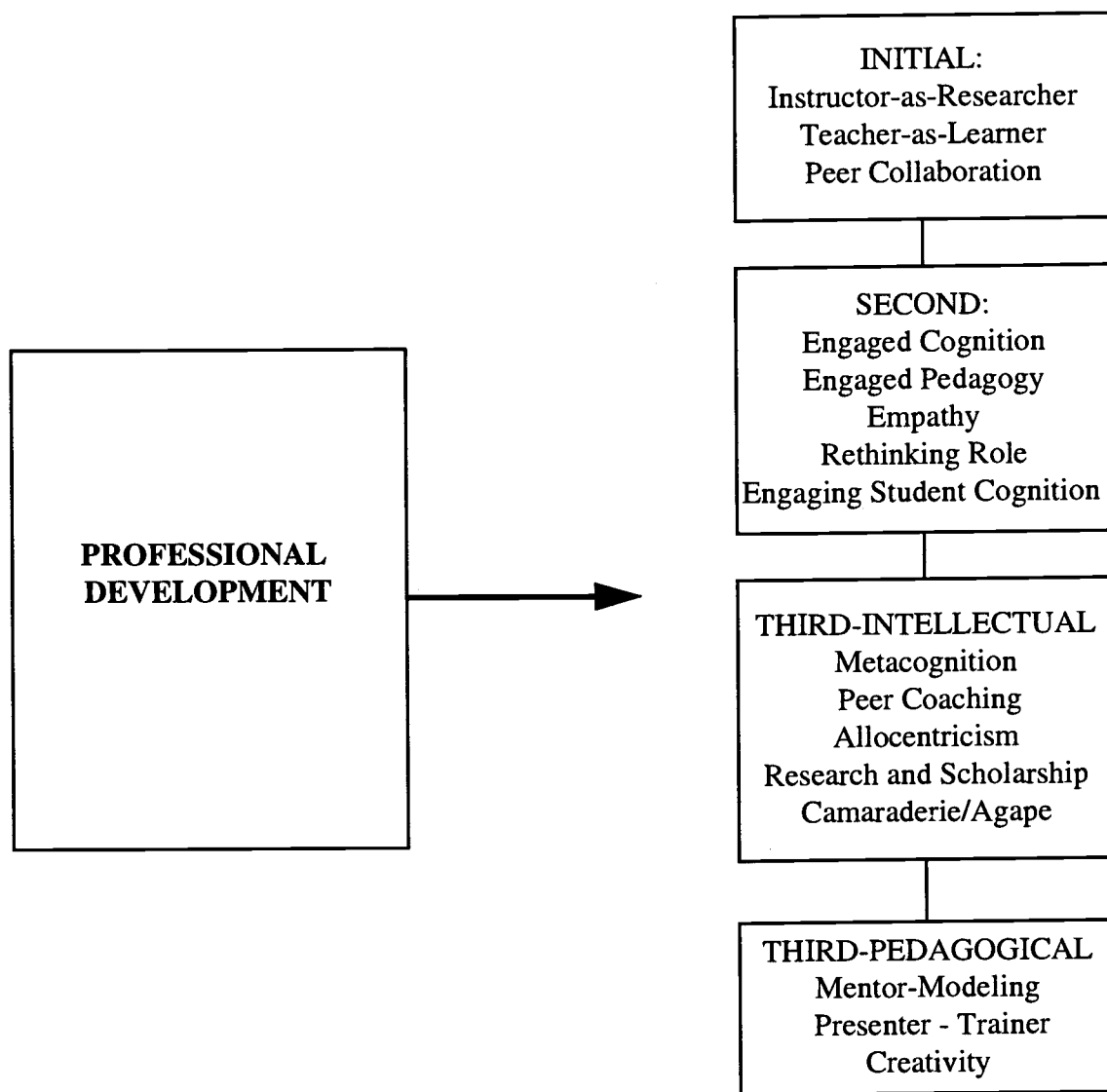
## **APPENDIX E**

### **PRIMARY CODES WITH SUBCATEGORIES**



PRIMARY CODES WITH SUBCATEGORIES





#### PRIMARY CODES WITH SUBCATEGORIES (Continued)

Note. Concepts are from "Teacher Development as Professional, Personal and Social Development," by B. Bell and J. Gilbert, 1994, *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 10, p. 485. Copyright 1994 by Elsevier Science Ltd., The Boulevard, Langford Lane, Kidlington OX5 1GB, UK. Adapted with permission.

## **APPENDIX F**

### **NODE ADDRESS LIST FROM NUD\*IST SOFTWARE AND TREE INDEX DISPLAY FROM NUD\*IST SOFTWARE**

# NODE ADDRESS LIST FROM NUD\*IST SOFTWARE

Q.S.R. NUD\*IST Power version, revision 3.0.5

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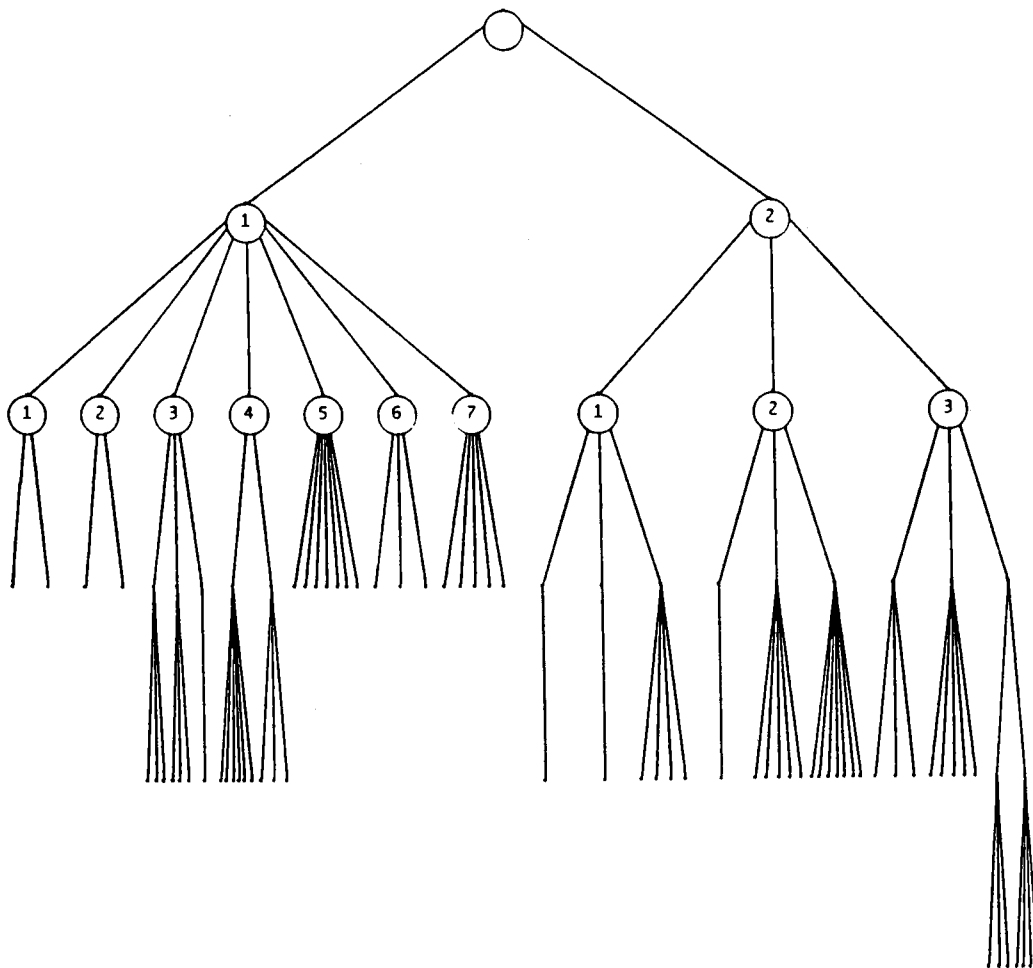
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(1 1 1) /Basedata/Gender/Female
(1 1 2) /Basedata/Gender/Male
(1 2) /Basedata/Ethnicity
(1 2 1) /Basedata/Ethnicity/Caucasian
(1 2 2) /Basedata/Ethnicity/African-American
(1 3) /Basedata/Community College
(1 3 1) /Basedata/Community College/North Seattle C. C.
(1 3 1 1) /Basedata/Community College/North Seattle C. C./Math-Science
(1 3 1 2) /Basedata/Community College/North Seattle C. C./Social Science
(1 3 1 3) /Basedata/Community College/North Seattle C. C./Humanities
(1 3 2) /Basedata/Community College/Seattle Central C. C.
(1 3 2 1) /Basedata/Community College/Seattle Central C. C./Math-Science
(1 3 2 2) /Basedata/Community College/Seattle Central C. C./Social Science
(1 3 2 3) /Basedata/Community College/Seattle Central C. C./Humanities
(1 3 3) /Basedata/Community College/Shoreline C C.
(1 3 3 3) /Basedata/Community College/Shoreline C C./Humanities
(1 4) /Basedata/Experience
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(1 4 1 1) /Basedata/Experience/Teaching: 5-10 yrs.
(1 4 1 2) /Basedata/Experience/Teaching: 11-15 yrs.
(1 4 1 3) /Basedata/Experience/Teaching: 16-20 yrs.
(1 4 1 4) /Basedata/Experience/Teaching: 21-25 yrs.
(1 4 1 5) /Basedata/Experience/Teaching: 26-30 yrs.
(1 4 1 6) /Basedata/Experience/Teaching: 31-35 yrs.
(1 4 2) /Basedata/Experience/Coordinated Studies Program
(1 4 2 1) /Basedata/Experience/Coordinated Studies Program: 1-5 yrs.
(1 4 2 2) /Basedata/Experience/Coordinated Studies Program: 6-10 yrs.
(1 4 2 3) /Basedata/Experience/Coordinated Studies Program: 11-15 yrs.
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(1 5 2) /Basedata/Discipline/History
(1 5 3) /Basedata/Discipline/Math-Computer Science
(1 5 4) /Basedata/Discipline/Physical Science
(1 5 5) /Basedata/Discipline/Psychology
(1 5 6) /Basedata/Discipline/Sociology
(1 5 7) /Basedata/Discipline/Music
(1 6) /Basedata/Age
(1 6 1) /Basedata/Age: 31-40 yrs.
(1 6 2) /Basedata/Age: 41-50 yrs.
(1 6 3) /Basedata/Age: 51-60 yrs.
(1 7) /Basedata/coordinated Studies Team
(1 7 1) /Basedata/coordinated Studies Team/Team 1
(1 7 2) /Basedata/coordinated Studies Team/Team 2
(1 7 3) /Basedata/coordinated Studies Team/Team 3
(1 7 4) /Basedata/coordinated Studies Team/Negative Case

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## NODE ADDRESS LIST FROM NUD\*IST SOFTWARE (Continued)

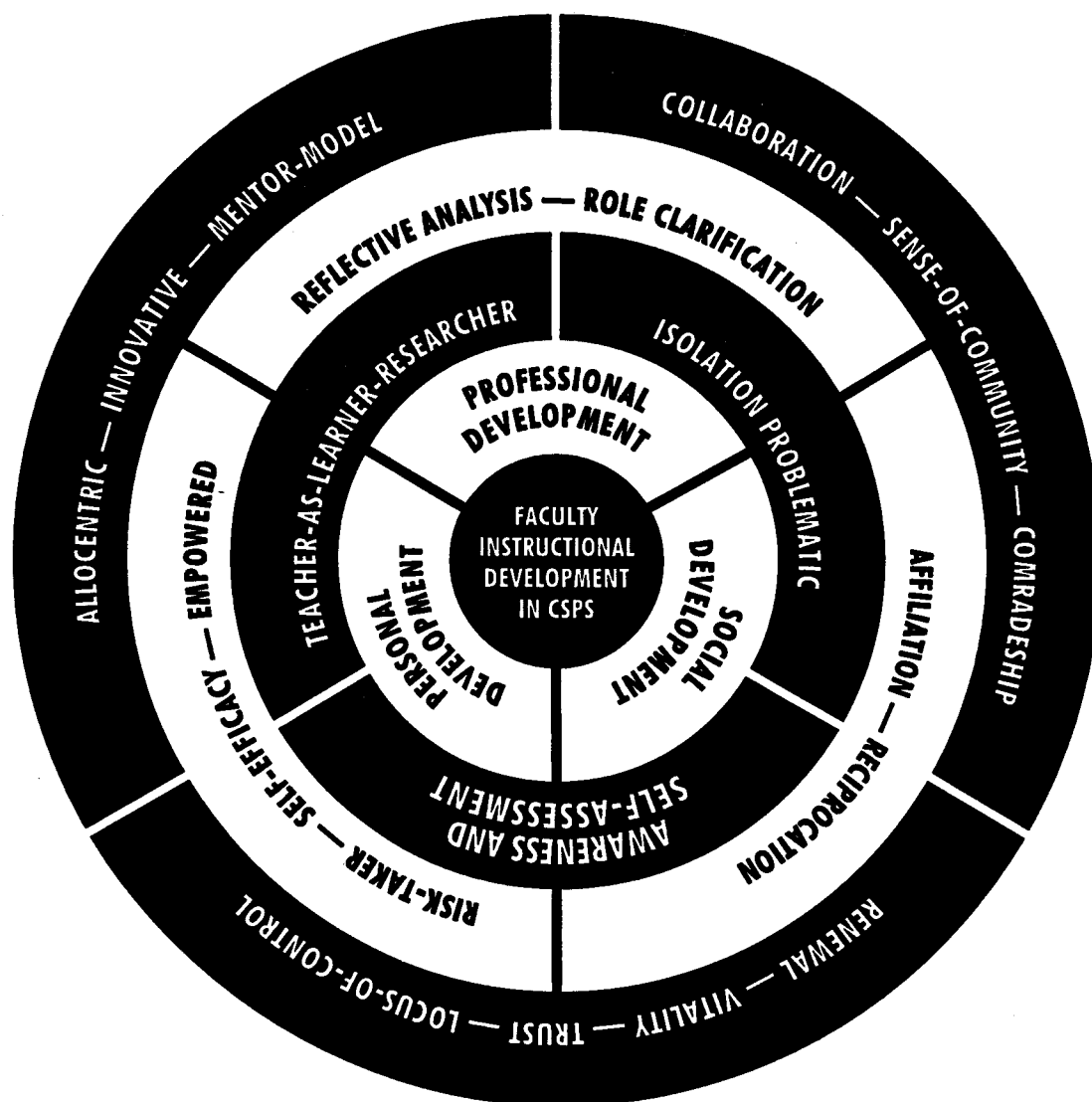
(1 7 5) /Basedata/coordinated Studies Team/Pilot  
 (2) /Development  
 (2 1) /Development/Social  
 (2 1 1) /Development/Social/Initial  
 (2 1 1 1) /Development/Social/Initial/Isolation-compartmentalized. Problematic  
 (2 1 2) /Development/Social/Second  
 (2 1 2 1) /Development/Social/Second/Values Collaboration  
 (2 1 3) /Development/Social/Third  
 (2 1 3 1) /Development/Social/Third/Sense of Community  
 (2 1 3 2) /Development/Social/Third/Group Planning-Reciprocity  
 (2 1 3 3) /Development/Social/Third/Productivity-Vitality  
 (2 1 3 4) /Development/Social/Third/Social issues-Activism  
 (2 2) /Development/Personal  
 (2 2 1) /Development/Personal/Initial  
 (2 2 1 1) /Development/Personal/Initial/Professional Dissatisfaction  
 (2 2 2) /Development/Personal/Second  
 (2 2 2 1) /Development/Personal/Second/Adaptive-to-Change  
 (2 2 2 2) /Development/Personal/Second/Locus-of-Control  
 (2 2 2 3) /Development/Personal/Second/Assessing Curriculum Coverage Issue  
 (2 2 2 4) /Development/Personal/Second/Assessing Knowledge Source Issue  
 (2 2 2 5) /Development/Personal/Second/Teacher-Student Relationship  
 (2 2 3) /Development/Personal/Third  
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 (2 2 3 2) /Development/Personal/Third/Constructionist  
 (2 2 3 3) /Development/Personal/Third/Energized-motivated  
 (2 2 3 4) /Development/Personal/Third/Trusting  
 (2 2 3 5) /Development/Personal/Third/Alleviating Atlas Complex  
 (2 2 3 6) /Development/Personal/Third/Confidence  
 (2 2 3 7) /Development/Personal/Third/Honest Communication  
 (2 3) /Development/Professional  
 (2 3 1) /Development/Professional/Initial  
 (2 3 1 1) /Development/Professional/Initial/Teacher-as-Researcher  
 (2 3 1 2) /Development/Professional/Initial/Teacher-as-Learner  
 (2 3 1 3) /Development/Professional/Initial/Seeking Peer Collaboration  
 (2 3 2) /Development/Professional/Second  
 (2 3 2 1) /Development/Professional/Second/Engaged Cognition  
 (2 3 2 2) /Development/Professional/Second/Engaged Pedagogy  
 (2 3 2 3) /Development/Professional/Second/Empathy in Student Interactions  
 (2 3 2 4) /Development/Professional/Second/Rethinking Role  
 (2 3 2 5) /Development/Professional/Second/Response to Students  
 (2 3 3) /Development/Professional/Third  
 (2 3 3 1) /Development/Professional/Third/Intellectual  
 (2 3 3 1 1) /Development/Professional/Third/Intellectual/Metacognition-Coaching  
 (2 3 3 1 2) /Development/Professional/Third/Intellectual/Allocentricism  
 (2 3 3 1 3) /Development/Professional/Third/Intellectual/Research & Scholarship  
 (2 3 3 2) /Development/Professional/Third/Pedagogical  
 (2 3 3 2 1) /Development/Professional/Third/Pedagogical/Mentor-Model-Relationship  
 (2 3 3 2 2) /Development/Professional/Third/Pedagogical/Presenter-Trainer  
 (2 3 3 2 3) /Development/Professional/Third/Pedagogical/Creativity-Initiative  
 (2 3 3 2 4) /Development/Professional/Third/Pedagogical/Camaraderie-Agape



Tree Index Display from NUD\*IST Software

## **APPENDIX G**

### **CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**



### Conceptual Framework

Note. Concepts are from "Teacher Development as Professional, Personal and Social Development," by B. Bell and J. Gilbert, 1994, *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 10, p. 485. Copyright 1994 by Elsevier Science Ltd., The Boulevard, Langford Lane, Kidlington OX5 1GB, UK. Adapted with permission.

## **APPENDIX H**

### **A DATA SOURCE FOR TRIANGULATION OF RESEARCH FINDING**



October 28, 1996

Memorandum

To: Andrea Rye  
From: Gail Pincus  
Subject: Data Source for Triangulation of Research Findings

I have reviewed the findings from your study of the personal, professional, and social development experiences of community college faculty engaged in interdisciplinary, team taught coordinated studies and learning community courses. My research focused on aspects of how faculty professional development occurred in a faculty teaching and learning community (TLC) model specifically designed to support faculty professional development needs. Our individual studies looked at different but related elements of the personal and professional development process. Both studies were grounded in social learning theories, particularly the social construction of knowledge theory that knowledge is subjectively constructed and revised by groups of knowledgeable persons in a process of conversation and interaction (Kuhn, 1970; Geertz, 1983; Gergen, 1985).

I am providing you with data samples from my study which appear to support your research findings. The following excerpts from my research report focus on four aspects of your research that you asked me to address:

1. Did faculty development occur for the subjects through their learning community experiences?
2. Did the study subjects indicate that participation in the teaching and learning community (TLC) improved their morale and alleviated loneliness?
3. Did the subjects talk about vitality, renewal, and productivity?
4. Did the subjects value social construction as a learning process?

Faculty Development Experiences in the Teaching and Learning Community

Al: Before . . . I'd never really thought of doing things like asking students to give an evaluation of what they have been learning in class; or my teaching style; or [asking the students], "What were the most important things you learned today?" What are the questions you ask? . . . I'd never asked for that kind of feedback before, and it was kind of a revelation. (1:210-244; 485-478)

**Ralph:** You have the relationships that I think are so important; making connections in and outside of your discipline; getting to know them [faculty], getting to know their perspectives. School comes up in lots of different conversations, so there it has a more tangible outcome in connection with professional development. You have somebody in psychology who is using a journal in a particular way with their co-op education, or doing volunteer service at a local service agency, and then you as an English teacher say, "Hey, that's pretty cool, maybe I can incorporate that with what I'm doing." (1: 710-737)

**Al:** Spending time with teaching people is a kind of personal development; getting to know my colleagues. One thing that I do is talk about books with some people from English and some people from outside the college every month. I made some new friends that way, just from my involvement. (1: 1310-1314)

**Ralph:** For me it comes down to experimentation. Ideas will come up, whether it's TLC, or a conference, or reading something. That willingness to try new things, I think that's where an instructor is really interested in improving the way the learning occurs.

**Jim:** [At first, people may] not change outwardly. But inwardly there may be a spark, or a something that triggers one's imagination, that they ponder. . . . Eventually that spark turns into something that will impact them in some way. . . . If you look at a measure [of faculty development] from day to day, it's pretty hard. This year we have people returning to that continuous development of their outcome-based curriculum, and they want more help. . . . To me, that is a mark of growth, and something that outwardly we can track. (1: 115-149; 1: 175-178)

### Improved Morale and Alleviation of Loneliness

**Helene:** Why I got involved [in the TLC] was, that I noticed in coming on to the campus 3 years ago, even though we were promoted as a small campus and people know each other, it became real evident to me in the first year that we don't talk to each other very much. . . . In my own department I've had lots of support and help with any issues I've had, but you take me outside the division, I get lost. I don't know who's out there. . . . The other thing that showed up was a lot of resignations: resignation about the system, being mostly the administration; resignation about the students. . . . I found that disturbing. . . . A teaching and learning community is something that can shift, it can actually alter, that whole conversation, alter that mind set. (1: 456-485; 1: 567-635)

**Rene:** Coming from a background where I didn't have any formal teaching, sometimes I felt very isolated. . . . I wanted to be able to have the resources, like talking to somebody else about issues; like a student cheating, and what is the best way to handle that. I also found out from just talking with other faculty, that we all have a wealth of information to offer one another. (1: 687-768)

**Teresa:** The program I'm in is over 80% part-time faculty. I see, because of what they come to me with all the time, how ill-prepared they are in many ways, and they are only required to go to one department meeting a term. I wanted the TLC [to

focus on] some very fundamental needs that people think, "Well, you should know that. After all, you're in the classroom." In fact, people don't know those things, or they are afraid to say that they don't know them. They may think they are the only person having that situation. (1: 539-595)

**Helene:** Everybody needs to feel like they belong. It's very important that they feel like what they are doing makes a difference, and that they really, truly do belong. . . . That aspect of the TLC is every bit as important as whatever new techniques we can bring forth; the social aspect of it; the sense of belonging; the sense that community exists, and that we're all in here to make a difference in people's lives. (1: 1218-1243)

**Barbara:** I feel like we are trying to nourish a body. We're trying to find what is most nourishing for the body; the 'body' being the faculty. (1: 916 923)

### Vitality, Renewal, and Productivity

**Ellen:** At first I thought, I don't think anybody's going to buy into it [the TLC]. I thought so many people on campus were getting burned-out, I just didn't think it would get off the ground. I almost approached it with a negative attitude. But Jim was just pumped, and he was just so excited. I didn't think it was going to happen; although sure enough, it did. It was great! (1: 280-294)

**Al:** There are changes going on here that I think will improve the way in which we work; a more human, alive kind of atmosphere. I feel a lot better about it that maybe 3 years ago. (1: 1350-1357)

**Ellen:** I've gotten to know a lot of my co-workers better. We used to not even stand each other for very long. We just kind of stayed away from each other. . . . There was always a lot of tension when we were ever in a meeting together. . . . It's like it just vaporized. It's gone. Now, we're talking about stuff that really is for the betterment of teaching. (1: 1024 1160)

**Al:** We come together and have discussions on how to work together for writing [across-the-curriculum]. So that's where we're building bonds among the teachers, and also seeing what will be productive for them. (1: 1315-1319)

**Helene:** Everyone brings something. . . . We have the technical experts. . . . The two who wrote the newsletter are definitely the ones that have a bit of lift and humor that they bring to the party; and their creativity. Everybody makes a contribution in a different arena. (1: 814-824)

**Eli:** When there's ownership, there's more commitment, and more responsibility. People are more involved. They are active. If you're active you're going to learn. People can't be passive. The more you get involved, the more you are going to learn. (1: 294-302)

**Chuck:** One of the things that happens, is that I do feel that sense of renewal, and that translates into my enthusiasm in the classroom. . . . That's a good part of it; to

take a chunk of information that I've looked at for a long time, and try to give it a new exciting way to share it with the students. (1: 801-810)

**Ellen:** I always feel a spark of enthusiasm. It's like, "Wow, I really learned something!" I feel a lot more invigorated, and refreshed, and able to relate and keep my students. It's almost a spiritual feeling. (1: 28-36)

### The Social Learning Process

**Al:** It was the social aspect of [the] community; the way once you're comfortable with people, once you're friends with people, that it's a lot easier to learn than if you just sit in your own little departmentalized structure. (1: 802-818)

**Gaye:** It's something that can be very intangible sometimes, but I think that at the root of us getting together and learning, before we can learn, we have to make that connection socially. (1: 439-444)

**Teresa:** The personal contact really helps put down barriers to exposing ourselves to some of the areas we're naive in, or that we need help in, or that we're ignorant about. That personal type of relationship really helps with that. (1: 1041-1049)

**Rene:** I think that it's important to be socially and personally connected with someone. If you are, it makes the learning process and the staff development much more enjoyable, more meaningful; and afterward you also have something to share, something to talk about; so it connects everybody twice. It connects you during that staff development, and it connects you afterward; often times for a long time. Often times, it will lead to another type of staff development, like informal feedback. (1: 1225-1243)

**Al:** I'm learning that group work does work; that the lecture model doesn't work; that working together with your colleagues is a really, really good way to do things. That's something that we're doing now more. The thing is, that people learn better by doing than by listening . . . at least I know I do. (1: 845-854)

**Jim:** I think there's another social bridge that you've crossed that says, "We not only know that Chuck is using technology; now, he's showing us how he's using technology, and I respect Chuck for his knowledge . . . and I can use Chuck's knowledge because he's willing to teach me how to use some of the technology in the classroom. (1: 604-613)

**Helene:** I used to believe, if I just read another book, or if I just think about it a little bit more, then I'll be able to figure out how to handle a certain situation. It doesn't work. The most opportunity is in conversation with people; really sharing ideas, and getting someone else's perspective. It could be a complete breath of fresh air. Something you never even thought about.

**Gaye:** It's [conversation] what opens the door to professional development. It absolutely has to occur. I don't know how you can teach by yourself. (1: 728-731)

## **APPENDIX I**

### **FREQUENTLY USED CONCEPTS AND EXPRESSIONS**

## FREQUENTLY USED CONCEPTS AND EXPRESSIONS

Participant	Comment	Document and Text Unit
Concept: "Vitality-Invigorating" (Total Participants = 10; Total Text Units Found = 10)		
Gwendolyn	I agree with you that coordinated studies is a source of <i>vitality</i> .	A1A3: 31
Michelle	I need that boost of <i>vitality</i> to keep me academically and intellectually alert	A1A3: 35
Joseph	I understand that engaging in intellectual dialogue brings about respect, consensus and both personal and group <i>vitality</i>	B1fml: 80
Meredith	I experience growth in my teaching skill <i>vitality</i> and renewal from involvement in CSPs.	B3B4B5: 17
Jason	It is a source of <i>vitality</i> for someone who has been teaching a significant number of years.	B3B4B5: 19
Daniel	It gives me a sense of <i>vitality</i> and I can't wait to get to class each day.	B6snd: 33
Cameron	It gave me <i>vitality</i> . I know it changed my teaching style.	B7B2A3: 69
Jerome	I have always been excited to learn about new things but this is a real source of <i>vitality</i> .	B7B2A3: 32
Loretta	Some of the things that stick out for me from CSP teaching are experiencing <i>vitality</i> and excitement.	B7B3A2: 91
David	It is a real <i>invigorating</i> experience learning from your fellow colleagues and students in the coordinated studies courses.	B3B4B5: 20
Concept: "Renewal" (Total Participants = 10; Total Text Units Found = 22)		
Michelle	The reason why I like to teach in CSPs is simply that I like the camaraderie, the friendship, the <i>renewal</i> and the ongoing dialogue.	A1A3: 28
---	I find this whole process of developing and teaching in CSPs to be an avenue of <i>renewal</i> .	A1: 41

## FREQUENTLY USED CONCEPTS AND EXPRESSIONS (Continued)

Participant	Comment	Document and Text Unit
Gwendolyn	I agree Michelle. The <i>renewal</i> , the camaraderie — it is phenomenal because above and beyond the discipline connections, a really important part of coordinated studies is that it breeds a culture of collaboration and <i>renewal</i> .	A1A3: 31
---	And it always provides a sense of <i>renewal</i> for me and other faculty members who have been teaching for a number of years.	A3: 28
Joseph	So there was professional development and feelings of <i>renewal</i>	B1fml: 26
---	Here at the community college in coordinated studies — I have had a very positive experience and found a source of <i>renewal</i>	B1fst: 28
Meredith	For someone who has been teaching for a number of years — an experience in <i>renewal</i> .	B3B4B5: 19
---	Coordinated studies allows faculty who are caught up in the redundant tasks of their responsibilities to do something else or approach it in a new and innovative way. That's a morale booster and source of <i>renewal</i>	B3B4B5: 85
---	CSPs have been, I have to say — the most significant faculty development and the greatest sense of <i>renewal</i>	B5: 57
Jason	(And it's a developing experience — a <i>renewal</i> .	B3B4B5: 93
---	I have experienced major <i>renewal</i> in the mode of instruction.	B3: 48
Daniel	I became a much more eager, motivated scholar and I experienced tremendous <i>renewal</i> .	B6scnd: 33
---	Every faculty member young and old should have this experience on a daily basis. It is empowering and gives me a feelings of <i>renewal</i>	B6scnd: 47
---	I don't know anyone else who has done more learning communities. I always come out of that experience with feelings of <i>renewal</i> and continued contact with my colleagues	B6fst: 29

## FREQUENTLY USED CONCEPTS AND EXPRESSIONS (Continued)

Participant	Comment	Document and Text Unit
Loretta	It was insightful to discover this as a developing instructor and a <i>renewing</i> experience also.	B7B2A2: 25
---	I have really benefitted from the learning experience that I have had teaching CSPs. And I have experienced so much <i>renewal</i> .	A2: 27
Jerome	I find that when you teach with a variety of professionals, discussing a topic — it is very stimulating and revitalizing — an opportunity for <i>renewal</i> for me as a teacher and it enhances student learning.	B7B2A2: 32
---	I made this comment in front of the class: "You know, I am learning everyday and getting paid! That's not bad!" There is a common thread we are all pulling here — and that is <i>renewal</i> .	B7B2A2: 102
---	It just rounds you — It's <i>renewal</i> — It's just wonderful!	B2: 38
Cameron	Team-teaching with peers was a <i>renewing</i> experience.	B7: 8
David	I have experienced <i>renewal</i> every time that I teach in a CSP.	B4: 48
<p>Concept: "Collegiality"</p> <p>(Total Participants = 10; Total Text Units Found = 10)</p>		
Michelle	I think that we continue because it provides us with something we did not have before and that is <i>collegial</i> relationships.	A1: 23
Gwendolyn	We are breaking down some of the boundaries that inhibit <i>collegiality</i> and high morale, and that is exciting.	A3: 57
Joseph	The CSP environment is very interactive and <i>collegial</i> experience for me and my peers.	B1: 66
Jason	Before my experience in coordinated studies programs, there was something missing, and that is the <i>collegiality</i> with other colleagues.	B3: 19
David	I learned more from teaching in coordinated studies programs through the <i>collegial</i> relationships that are established.	B4: 48



## FREQUENTLY USED CONCEPTS AND EXPRESSIONS (Continued)

Participant	Comment	Document and Text Unit
Meredith	I think that the environment is pretty healthy and <i>collegial</i> for me and the rest of my peers in the coordinated studies program experience.	B5: 25
Daniel	I've taught in a large number of learning communities over the years. The <i>collegiality</i> that I have experienced in those programs with my colleagues have been just phenomenal.	B6: 29
Loretta	You learn to appreciate the frequent interactions in coordinated studies. When you go back to your single classes you miss the <i>collegiality</i> .	A2: 26
Jerome	In this team, we all worked very well together planning the curriculum and teaching. The experience was so intellectually stimulating and <i>collegial</i> , it makes me want to do it again every quarter.	B2: 18
Cameron	It think that the coordinated studies programs tend to be just more of a <i>collegial</i> friendship — a bonding experience for every instructor involved. So you develop a closer relationship with your peers.	B7: 29
<p>Concept: "Organic"</p> <p>(Total Participants = 10; Total Text Units Found = 10)</p>		
Michelle	A phrase that we often use to describe this environment is <i>organic</i> . It is new curricula every time we teach it. It evolves in new ways that traditional courses are unable to.	A1A3: 8
Gwendolyn	CSPs are <i>organic</i> . They are free from the bureaucracy that controls traditional courses. They nurture peer relationships and creativity.	A1A3: 95
Joseph	Coordinated studies is a very contextual, <i>organic</i> experience. I feel like a pioneer charting new territory without the restrictions found in traditional courses.	B1fnl: 24
Jason	The creation of larger blocks of time allows an <i>organic</i> environment to emerge and peer relationship to develop. It is empowering.	B3B4B5: 6

## FREQUENTLY USED CONCEPTS AND EXPRESSIONS (Continued)

Participant	Comment	Document and Text Unit
David	We often refer to the CSP experience as <i>organic</i> , which is an effective way of describing what occurs for everyone in this community.	B3B4B5: 89
Meredith	It's a much more healthy environment in which you are open to because it is <i>organic</i> . We are in control of that environment	B3B4B5: 104
Daniel	It's an <i>organic</i> , grass roots group of people creating and learning together — students and instructors. It is never the same old stuff!	B6snd: 6
Loretta	A CSP is a group of students and faculty who are learning around a common theme in an <i>organic</i> environment that is spontaneous, unique and ever-changing. It is different from day to day and a new discovery every time we teach it!	B7B2A3: 4
Jerome	Different takes on subjects — it's very <i>organic</i> for everyone yet transferability is no different than solo traditional courses.	B7B2A3: 32
Cameron	It was pretty major shifts that I recall from my experience in teaching in such an <i>organic</i> , healthy, innovative environment where risk-taking is encouraged.	B7B3A3: 80

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## **APPENDIX J**

### **PERSONAL, SOCIAL, AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT DOMAINS IN FACETS WITH OUTCOMES AND EXAMPLES**

**PERSONAL, SOCIAL, AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT DOMAINS  
IN FACETS WITH OUTCOMES AND EXAMPLES**

Node Address	Categories	Outcomes
2.1.1	<b>Social Development/Initial</b>	
2.1.1.1	Isolation Problematic	Awareness that being the only instructor in the classroom does not provide the new ideas, support, and feedback necessary for instructional development
Example: I was really intellectually bored and maybe socially lonely in the classroom. I realized that I really didn't have relationships with my colleagues and that the students were on another level. . . . It was rather lonely in the classroom. (B3: 33-34)		
2.1.2	<b>Social Development/Second</b>	
2.1.2.1	Values Collaboration	Participates in problem-solving relationships with peers, gives support and feedback, and contributes to developing and sustaining mutual, reciprocal relationships.
Example: In the course of those coordinated class sessions, we all talked, solved problems, we all shared information specialties, we all grew intellectually and personally-students and instructors. And that was a really, really fine collegial experience. (B6scnd: 9-10)		
2.1.3	<b>Social Development/Third</b>	
2.1.3.1	Sense of Community	Seek and initiate those activities and relationships with other teachers which foster their development.
Example: I think you have to have people who are willing to open themselves up. You are giving all that you can give. Your weaknesses are there for viewing. It is an ongoing learning process as an instructor in a CSP. You learn to become a very open and giving kind of person. (B2B7A2: 32-34)		
2.1.3.2	Planning in Groups	Work collaboratively in planning. Participate in workshops and efforts to acquire new learning. Participate in reciprocal exchanges with colleagues.
Example: I remember when I first met Gwendolyn, 8 years ago. We were in one of this college's annual retreats to learn alternative pedagogues in preparation to create new coordinated studies teams..It has been an on-going learning since. (A1A3: 3-6)		

**PERSONAL, SOCIAL, AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT DOMAINS  
IN FACETS WITH OUTCOMES AND EXAMPLES (Continued)**

Node Address	Categories	Outcomes
2.1.3.3	Productivity and Vitality	Highly involved in planning strategies with peers beyond typical practices (e.g., late night and evening phone conversations, lunch hours.
<p>Example: I think back to the three of us and all that prep time. It was Tuesdays at lunch every week we would get together to plan the curriculum a whole quarter before we taught the CSP. Some might say that was a drag, but it wasn't. We would look forward to those meetings. . . . We shared all of that new information which we were gathering in our library research. That was very productive. (B7B2A2: 84-87)</p>		
2.1.3.4	Social Activism	Social Concerns and societal issues addressed in curriculum and/or in personal actions.
<p>Example: I have been instrumental over the past 4 years in an on-going effort to get this school to face up to a serious problem of students and faculty having to leave classes early because they are being exposed to toxins and chemicals in the science classes. We teach students about preserving the environment and this institution is doing nothing but simply expressing meaningless sympathy. (B4: 11-12)</p>		
2.2	<b>Personal Development/Initial</b>	
2.2.1.1	Professional Dissatisfaction	Awareness of and accepting of either incipient or larger problems and shortcomings in pedagogical or intellectual development. Little confidence in traditional faculty development programs.
<p>Example: I am more confident now. I was really quite insecure. And I think what helped me get over that was seeing my methods really work. But for me to say now that I am a great accomplished teacher wouldn't reflect the way that I feel a lot of the time. . . . At the Ph.D. level there is this assumption that you will teach and conduct research, but you get no training in teaching beyond the TA seminar which is the basics. (A2: 21-50)</p>		
2.2.2	<b>Personal Development/Second</b>	
2.2.2.1	Adaptive-to-Change	Positive attitude and feelings regarding creativity, instructional innovations, and change.
<p>Example: I've been saying for a long time that I know a lot more about learning that I did when I was in college as a student. And I have often said that I would have gotten more out of a bachelor's program taught in this format. The CSP is just a better learning model for teachers and students. (B4B5B6: 20-21)</p>		

**PERSONAL, SOCIAL, AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT DOMAINS  
IN FACETS WITH OUTCOMES AND EXAMPLES (Continued)**

Node Address	Categories	Outcomes
2.2.2.2	Locus-of-Control	Belief in personal responsibility and student-colleague interdependence.
Example: I think that what made it great was that the faculty members experienced in CSPs who were involved in this project, knew how to give and take, support each other and be extremely flexible. We all shared responsibilities and we probably changed the program weekly as we went along. But then when we got to the end, we had a very fine product with the help and feedback from the students. (B1fnl: 13-15)		
2.2.2.3	Assessing Curriculum Coverage	Overcoming the need to "cover" the curriculum in courses.
Example: As soon as I gave up the lecture format, I think my relationship with students improved. . . . It improved most in the CSPs because I was really cognizant of not trying to be the expert in these courses because I know a lot in my field. . . . Having two other instructors in the class really helped me to see that. (A2: 54-56)		
2.2.2.4	Assessing Subject Knowledge Issue	Overcoming the propensity to have "right answer" for students or to be responsible for student learning.
Example: Sociology can make you focus on memorizing concepts and definitions. When I begin the quarter, I always say that I am not going to be pathological in my teaching and then as the quarter progresses I hear myself saying: "Well this is the answer, what it means and the reason why." And I stop and say "What happen to my imagination!" (A1A3: 36-37)		
2.2.2.5	Teacher-Student Relationships	Having student-centered focus. Facilitating student independent thinking.
Example: It is especially rewarding at the community college where we have students who have been told that they can't learn. . . . And not infrequently, someone will discover that they are quite capable not only in doing the work in science but doing it well . . . So I might add, its what goes on in the classroom, the dynamics of student learning interactions. (B4: 7-9)		
2.2.3	<b>Personal Development/Third</b>	
2.2.3.1	Empowered	Positive feelings regarding skills and personal initiative to seek effective collaborative, ongoing instructional development.
Example: When I started teaching here in CSPs, I felt as if I was rediscovering new skills and fine tuning methods, doing things differently. . . . I have done those personality and learning styles inventories. Before CSPs, I was an "I" [introvert] which was right. I'd rather go home and read and write then interact. And after years of CSP teaching, I became an "E" [extrovert]. And I am more willing to take risks. (B7: 49-50)		

PERSONAL, SOCIAL, AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT DOMAINS  
IN FACETS WITH OUTCOMES AND EXAMPLES (Continued)

Node Address	Categories	Outcomes
2.2.3.2	Social Constructivist	Knowledge that collaborative learning is an effective model for both students and instructors.
Example: It [coordinated studies course] is a great thing for any faculty member. They have a better understanding of the teaching role and their own discipline. But these programs and the personal benefits for instructors are not at the expense of the students because they benefit also. (B3B4B5: 88-89)		
2.2.3.3	Energized	Views teaching as gaining rather than expending energy.
Example: I think that we always say that if it [CSP course] is not less hard work and it is not especially more hard work-but it is different work. By the end of the quarter you are just as tired as when you teach regular courses. But you are a lot more enthused and you bring more of yourself into the course. (B3B4B5: 65-66)		
2.2.3.4	Training	Developing trust in student's ability to contribute to own personal growth and to knowledge acquisition of other members of the coordinated studies course, including the instructors.
Example: I think yes, that was a social learning situation. I might not have thought about it [Is there a community in cyberspace?] in that same perspective had I not experienced discussing it in the coordinated studies course. . . . You have to become more of a listener, particularly with your students because their knowledge and opinions are just as valid as the instructors. . . . I did gain intellectually from that experience. (B1: 75-76)		
2.2.3.5	Alleviating "Atlas Complex"	Overcoming the need to be "center-stage" in instructional environment and relying on student initiative and peer teams.
Example: I think it is fascinating what things [reflections] can come from students and that is the result of the method of teaching. It is inductive thinking when you give just some thoughts and the students come up with others. . . . What that did is changed learning as looking for treasures. There is more stimulation for them to come up with new ideas. I think that "Teacher-as-Atlas" [sole purveyor of information] doesn't happen in CSPs. (A1A3: 49-50)		
2.2.3.6	Confidence and Self-Efficacy	Belief in own competence and self-worth. Gaining respect of students and colleagues.
Example: I know that what we are doing is high quality. I think it is a matter of helping them grow and that is the thing that I have to stop and assess. And if I can sense them growing in that way, then I feel like I really have accomplished something rather than really what the grade says at the end. . . . So I can take that information and reaffirm that what I'm trying to do in the class is correct. (A1A3: 60-62)		

**PERSONAL, SOCIAL, AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT DOMAINS  
IN FACETS WITH OUTCOMES AND EXAMPLES (Continued)**

Node Address	Categories	Outcomes
2.2.3.7	Honest Communication	Ability to engage in candid discussions. Participate in discourse and dialogue in heterogeneous groups.
<p>Example: When learning community courses were first introduced to the community colleges, everyone read an essay by Parker Palmer. He said that community is when you live next door to the person you would never choose as a neighbor. That is what happens in CSPs. You are challenged to spend the whole day with people with different ideas and discuss those differences. Its what makes a good learning community-discourse and dialogue. (B7B2A2: 5-6)</p>		
2.3.1	Professional Development/Initial	
2.3.1.1	Instructor-As-Researcher	Conducting classroom research and participating in peer review for student and peer feedback on instructional effectiveness.
<p>Example: I stop and take frequent checks on how students are perceiving what we are doing. I say, "let's take 10 minutes to write down what you think we have been saying. What have we done?" And I pay attention to that [feedback]. So I take frequent checks of how students are understanding . . . Teaching with colleagues is kind of like having radar because I am never quite sure when I'm teaching alone if my expectations are too high or low. (B6scnd: 8-16)</p>		
2.3.1.2	Teacher-as-Learner	Views collaborative instructional development through modeling and observation as most effective approach.
<p>Example: When I team-taught with [teacher A], I observed how well students responded to her. we asked for student feedback periodically during the course. One student wrote: "I like both of you really well, but you are very different. When I listen to [teacher A] it is like standing in front of a nice fountain. But when I listen to Daniel, it is like standing in front of a fire hose!" So when I would get revved up and excited, [teacher A] would say: "fire hose!" and I would calm down. I learned how volume effects students. (B6scnd: 19-20)</p>		
2.3.1.3	Peer Collaboration	Reflecting on new instructional methods and concurring with colleagues on ways of improving.
<p>Example: So I am in a different mental position when I am in that learning community as an instructor and a learner with my two or three other peers and 70+ students sitting out there in front of me. So I would say the CSP is the most long-lasting in pedagogical development. . . . With my peers in the same environment I get immediate feedback if something is not right or misunderstood. (B1fnl: 64-66)</p>		



**PERSONAL, SOCIAL, AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT DOMAINS  
IN FACETS WITH OUTCOMES AND EXAMPLES (Continued)**

Node Address	Categories	Outcomes
2.3.2	<b>Professional Development/Second</b>	
2.3.2.1	Engaged Cognition	Clarifying existing concepts knowledge and beliefs gaining and constructing new ideas and perspectives from peers.
Example: It is so exciting to see the connections you generally make in things thought to be separate, whether it be disciplines, questions or concepts. You understand your own field much better. . . . And I what I have adapted from coordinated studies has improved my other courses and students are getting a lot more out of them. (B3B4B5: 35-64)		
2.3.2.2	Engaged Pedagogy	Considering methodology, reflecting, visualizing, adapting, sharing feedback, and enlightenment with peers.
Example: I have learned the importance of writing so I am using the mechanics of writing an awful lot more in my courses. . . . Having them reflect on the writings from the textbooks in my courses and using a lot more group work. I'm encouraging students to do independent research. So coordinated studies has impacted the way I teach. (B3B4B5: 73-74)		
2.3.2.3	Empathy	Sensitive to student needs. Values students and pleasure in interactions with students and colleagues.
Example: It [CSP course] is student-centered and through that centeredness, faculty development also occurs from teaching with different faculty and their disciplines as well as from students' shared knowledge in the subject-matter. All of that enhances your own learning. (A1A3: 11-12)		
2.3.2.4	Rethinking Role	Reflecting on effective changes in classroom teaching role from compartmentalized to integrated learning for facilitating student learning
Example: To me it is a group of people, students and instructors-all simultaneously learning and teaching each other and processing the material. It's sort of a pious truism to say that instructors learn from their students. When I am teaching by myself I tend not to listen as clearly to my students. But in the team-teaching situations I listen more carefully about how they understand the material and use problem-solving to grow cognitively. (B7: 5-6)		
2.3.2.5	Engaging Student Cognition	Captivate student thinking through contextual learning and group problem solving approaches.
Example: So what we facilitate is the importance of multiple identities-the many different applications and views on a particular issue. We try to encourage them to look at the variables. . . . So they visualize esthetically, politically, socially, economically and literally how they learn things. (A1A3: 90-91)		

**PERSONAL, SOCIAL, AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT DOMAINS  
IN FACETS WITH OUTCOMES AND EXAMPLES (Continued)**

Node Address	Categories	Outcomes
2.3.3	<b>Professional Development/Third</b>	
2.3.3.1	Intellectual Development	
2.3.3.1.1	Metacognition and Peer Coaching	Reciprocal, reflective problem-solving with peers on instructional issues.
<p>Example: Michelle, I have learned more patience and appreciation for diverse populations of students from teaching in our CSPs together. I used to say: "would you repeat that?" when addressing students for whom English is a second language. From my observations of you and how you interact with these students, I recognized that the ownership is on me to listen. I was being condescending and maternalistic without realizing it. (A1A3: 107-108)</p>		
2.3.3.1.2	Allocentricism	Views issues and situations from the perspective of diverse populations, students, and peers.
<p>Example: You have to understand the world that each student lives in and their personalities. What does the world look like to that student? What forces have shaped them? Those are the glasses through which they see the world. I can observe better when I am teaching with a peer. I can really listen to what that student is saying. (B6scnd: 24-25)</p>		
2.3.3.1.3	Research and Scholarship	Engaging in inquiry and knowledge acquisition through graduate study or independent study.
<p>Examples: Professionally, I have been inspired to go back to graduate school and complete my Ph.D. from teaching in coordinated studies courses. (A3: 57) I did much more research this quarter than I did other quarters. I do a little each quarter but this quarter I was motivated to do more. I did research on links between music and psychology . . . I have determined that we need to create a music-psychology course. (B7B2A2: 92-93)</p>		
2.3.3.1.4	Camaraderie and Agape	Fellowship and esprit-de-corps among colleagues. Acceptance of differences. Engaging perspectives and connectedness of multiple realities. Seeking greater good within the community. Selfless love.
<p>Example: When I think of my coordinated studies experiences, I realize that encountering learning while in the teaching process is the most powerful and rewarding professional development any instructor can have, at any stage of their career. I appreciate diversity and differences among students. I have acquired very deep and rewarding friendships with members of the learning community. My peers have influenced me and affected how I see the world. These friendships grow deeper with time. Have you heard the term <i>Agape</i>? That is what I feel for those whom I have gotten to know in learning community courses. (B6scnd: 40-44)</p>		

**PERSONAL, SOCIAL, AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT DOMAINS  
IN FACETS WITH OUTCOMES AND EXAMPLES (Continued)**

Node Address	Categories	Outcomes
2.3.3.2	Pedagogical	
2.3.3.2.1	Mentor-Modeling Relationship	Socialization of an innovation through information-sharing, observation, and team-teaching with new members.
<p>Example: My dean is very supportive. She encourages older faculty to take on new faculty and to develop CSPs with them as members of the team. That is partly why I am doing my second [CSP] this quarter with Cameron. He has done coordinated studies programs for a long time. He is like the "Father of Coordinated Studies" here at this college. (A2: 64-65)</p>		
2.3.3.2.2	Presenter and Trainer	Introduce innovation at conferences and workshops. Write training manuals on new model.
<p>Example: We have created videos to represent the school that we use for training on our CSP curriculum at conferences and workshops. . . . We presented at Cornell and they are attempting to incorporate in their courses our methods and ways of teaching. (A1A3: 115-117) I realize how successful and much further along we are than other colleges in improving pedagogical practices and socializing new faculty to these innovations. (A3: 57)</p>		
2.3.3.2.3	Creativity	Novel and innovative curriculum and course development. Inventive in designing projects. Granting-writing efforts.
<p>Example: I believe that I am working smarter, that is a terrible cliché! I believe that CSPs have influenced personal qualities and the vast amount of professional knowledge that I have acquired. I'm writing more grants-I'm feeling the need to write more grants. (A1A3: 58-122) I learned to become a videographer and have created documentaries from teaching in a CSP. . . . I am always looking for creative ventures. (A3: 63)</p>		

Note. Concepts are from "Teacher Development as Professional, Personal and Social Development," by B. Bell and J. Gilbert, 1994, *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 10, p. 485. Copyright 1994 by Elsevier Science Ltd., The Boulevard, Langford Lane, Kidlington OX5 1GB, UK. Adapted with permission.

## **APPENDIX K**

### **DEMONSTRATED SOCIAL, PERSONAL, AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN CATEGORIES AND FACETS BY PARTICIPANT SOURCE**

**DEMONSTRATED DEVELOPMENT IN CATEGORIES AND  
FACETS BY PARTICIPANT SOURCE**

	PARTICIPANT									
	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5	B6	B7	A1	A2	A3
DEVELOPMENT CHARACTERISTIC	TEXT UNIT NUMBER									
Social Development/Initial										
Isolation Problematic	46	12	34	16	29	16	8	45	27	37
Social Development/Second										
Values Collaboration	78	34	54	30	33	34	25	27	60	26
Social Development/Third										
Sense of Community	60	30	28	30	8	23	29	23	25	18
Planning in Groups	50	12	46	20	18	27	33	23	62	63
Productivity and Vitality	26	16	56	26	33	56	42	29	36	10
Social Activism	58	95	50	12	27	14	8	35	4	91
Personal Development/Initial										
Professional Dissatisfaction	34	28	12	48	14	10	38	7	13	95
Personal Development/Second										
Adaptive-to-Change	30	30	34	12	10	6	70	19	9	10
Locus-of-Control	42	38	30	34		56	48	23	32	57
Assessing Curriculum Coverage	24		38	35	16		8	83	23	37
Assessing Subject Knowledge Issue	31	96	18	35	16		48	51	56	18
Teacher-Student Relationships	31	24	39	30	14	39	62	31	42	58
Personal Development/Third										
Empowered	52	35	54	48	49	54	69	8	17	22
Social Constructionist	74	16	24	22	37	39	19	55	40	18
Energized	48	8	16	64	49	6	62	31	54	53
Trusting	4	7	38	36	47	16	54	48	46	49
Alleviating the "Atlas Complex"			18	44	46	18	57	71	54	45
Confidence and Self-Efficacy	42	15	38	39	43	23	58	72	50	53
Honest Communication	20	20	48	96	29	29	61	89	59	54

**DEMONSTRATED DEVELOPMENT IN CATEGORIES AND  
FACETS BY PARTICIPANT SOURCE (Continued)**

	PARTICIPANT									
	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5	B6	B7	A1	A2	A3
DEVELOPMENT CHARACTERISTIC	TEXT UNIT NUMBER									
Professional Development/Initial										
Teacher-as-Researcher	52	34	56	40	39	18	50	31	23	22
Teacher-as-Learner	56	36	48	52	37	10	66	45	50	45
Peer Collaboration	66	16	28	13	57	14	74	47	25	28
Professional Development/Second										
Engaged Cognition	64	36	30	21	39	20	48	41	25	31
Engaged Pedagogy	70	38	56	35	38	18	50	46	42	65
Empathy	73	24	54	44	49	46	62	11	25	49
Rethinking Role	78	36	24	9	47	20	54	15	40	64
Engaging Student Cognition	42	24	42	21	49	27	29	52	42	87
Professional Development/Third Intellectual Development										
Metacognition-Peer Coaching	76	32	50	19	85	25	80	35	46	31
Allocentricism	60	30	56	34	108	39	38	55	94	22
Research and Scholarship	74	33	46	48	66	47	72	26	93	63
Camaraderie and Agape	80	48	33	52	54	43	80	125	91	127
Pedagogical										
Mentor-Modeling Relationship			54	13	27	20	48	72		39
Presenter and Trainer			46		33	38	80	117		106
Creativity	14	96	19	36	108	43	16	73	91	69

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B1 = Joseph; B2 = Jerome; B3 = Jason; B4 = David; B5 = Meredith; B6 = Daniel; B7 = Cameron; A1 = Michelle; A2 = Loretta; A3 = Gwendolyn