

HOW STUDENTS SPEND THEIR TIME

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Abstract

Many books on time management provide methodologies but do not provide actual examples or suggestions for the appropriate allocation of activities. The study which is presented in this paper reports on a journal keeping exercise conducted by a group of third year university students. The results show a mean of 40 hours per week spent on school work and also reveal how the other 128 hours in the week are filled. This information is linked to the literature to suggest appropriate time allocations for various maintenance and leisure activities. Student well-being requires a proper balance of the entire 168 hours in a week.

Introduction

Every term, instructors are faced with the problem of students asking for extensions on assignments because they claim they do not have enough time available to meet the deadlines which have been set. While there is a considerable amount of literature available on the subject of time management, most of it does not actually present examples of what might be a reasonable way to spend one's time. After trying to put together some possible recommendations from the literature, this paper presents data on how a group of university students actually spent a week of their time and then proposes specific amounts of time which students might reasonably devote to various activities in a typical week.

For everyone, each week contains 168 hours that may be divided into three types of activities: work, maintenance, and leisure. For college students, the work category may be defined as school related activities including class time, study and assignment time, and part-time employment. Authors such as Kingsbury (1994) and Page (1997) identify these categories but provide no suggestions on actual hours which might be appropriate for each; indeed, very few sources provide a sufficient template to be of practical use to a student. The discussion below demonstrates just how difficult constructing a table of recommended times can be.

Review of the Literature

Most authors say that the time related to schoolwork must be given top priority. This includes class time, study and assignment time, and for an increasing number of students time for part-time employment in order to finance their education. The typical class time for a student in a Bachelor of Arts program is 15 hours per week. Hoehn and Sayer (1989) suggest that study time will average two hours for each hour of class time, producing a 45 hour schoolwork week. Dougan and Dougan (1998) suggest three hours of study per hour of class time, producing a 60 hour week. They recommend blocking study time between classes and doing two to three hours each evening. Kendrick and Kendrick (1988) present

a chart with 1.6 hours of out of class work on a four course 21 hour schedule giving 55 hours, but then argue that this is too much time devoted to schoolwork.

These suggestions leave limited time for part-time employment. Race (1999) recognizes the financial need for paid employment, and Haworth (1997) says employment is also important for building self-esteem. Carter, Bishop, Kravits, and Maurin (1998) suggest that up to 15 hours of paid employment will actually help students, not just financially, but also by building self-esteem and encouraging time management. Hoehn and Sayer (1989) report that in 1986, 75% of American college freshmen worked part-time and 40% worked 16 hours or more. Collectively, these proposals for school and work take anywhere from 60 to 80 hours out of a week, providing the student with minimal guidance in knowing what is an appropriate amount of time for this category.

Some authors deal only with schoolwork while others recognize that there are other aspects to life. Everyone has certain inescapable personal and family maintenance functions to perform: eating, grooming, doing laundry, cleaning, shopping, and getting enough sleep. Finding estimates of how much time these activities should take is challenging. While Hoehn and Sayer (1989), Carter et al (1998), Newman (1995), and Race (1999) all tell students to maintain a healthy diet, specific time allotments are not given. Dougan and Dougan (1998) advise taking a comfortable amount of time to do morning activities and at least an hour for the main meal of the day. Kendrick and Kendrick (1988) present a chart with 45 minutes for lunch and 90 minutes for dinner but then argue that 20 hours per week is too much time in this category. In addition, no references to an appropriate length of time for grooming, laundry, cleaning, or shopping were found in the time management books examined. Robinson and Godbey (1997) provide survey results for typical Americans, but college students as a specific group are not identified.

Everyone has a need for sufficient sleep. Dougan and Dougan (1998) advise a good night's sleep without specifying how much. Horne (1985) states that 6 hours per night is sufficient for most individuals. Carter et al. (1998) recommend 7 to 7.5 hours per night but suggest that individuals in their early twenties may require 8 to 9 hours. Robinson and Godbey (1997) state that most Americans sleep 8 hours a day. Hoehn and Sayer (1989) suggest that if one goes to bed by 10 p.m., he/she could be prepared for the following day by 8 in the morning.

Beyond schoolwork and maintenance activities, a balanced life also requires leisure time. Dougan and Dougan (1998), Carter et al. (1998), and Newman (1995) all recommend an unspecified amount of time for exercise. Kendrick and Kendrick (1988) suggest exercising six hours per week after work. Stein (1994) views exercise as a second level priority and suggests it be done after the school day. No time allocation is suggested.

Carter et al. (1998) state that a spiritual life of some kind is absolutely necessary for psychological health, and they define the term broadly enough to include community service. Stein (1994) also states that students should have spiritual and charitable goals. Dougan and Dougan (1998) recommend volunteer work, and Race (1999) also encourages students to get involved in the school or local community.

Reid (1995) states that time for socializing is a key part of the work environment while Mackenzie (1997) calls making friendships the most satisfying part of a job. One can extrapolate from this that it is as important, if not more so, in the university environment. Dougan and Dougan (1998) see social time as a way to fill left over spaces, and they suggest after supper as a good time. Kendrick and Kendrick (1988) suggest it be done after eating lunch. In contrast, Carter et al (1998) recommend students curb their social time without specifying how much is too much.

Kendrick and Kendrick (1988) envision three hours a night to watch television or otherwise relax but warn that such activities may be used to postpone more important things. Haworth (1997) argues that those who seek interpersonal rewards through leisure are healthier than those who seek isolation and escapism and warns that short periods of time between activities are often lost or wasted. Mackenzie (1997) and Dougan and Dougan (1998) both recommend making these times productive by carrying a book to read. Carter et al. (1998), however, recommend having downtime and some unscheduled time in the day.

The total length of time appropriate for the leisure category is difficult to determine from the current literature in the field. The general impression, however, despite comments that leisure time is necessary, is that leisure activities should be considered as a way to fill in time left over when all the more important activities are completed.

The Study

To find out what students actually do with their time, a study was conducted with a group of students at the University of Northern British Columbia. All of the participants were registered in a third year human geography course. Responses were obtained from 57 full-time students consisting of 23 males and 34 females. Forty-eight of the students were single, nine were married, and all of the participants were between 20 and 30 years of age.

UNBC is located in Prince George, British Columbia and offers undergraduate and graduate degrees in the arts and sciences. The total enrollment is slightly over 3,000 students, 63% of which come from the northern part of the province. Of the remainder, 27% come from the southern part of the province, primarily the Greater Vancouver area, 10% come from outside of the province, primarily neighboring Alberta, and a small number are foreign exchange students (UNBC, 1999). As the sample suggests, most of the students are recent high school graduates or transfer students from the provincial community college system when they arrive at UNBC.

Methodology

The students were enrolled in a human geography course dealing with recreational activities. In one of the introductory lectures, the question of how people spend their time was discussed. Based on Bammel and Bammel (1996), the students were introduced to the concepts of work, maintenance, and leisure time and were asked to volunteer to participate in a three part project. The first part required that they estimate how they would spend their time during the next seven days using the main categories of work, maintenance, and free

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In the next class, student activities in 15 minute distributed. This was to be would include at least categories were television reading or relaxing, but in any context, talking or the Internet, down including hockey, gym hiking, club or religion included with paid employment remained a category. instructed to identify asked to write about 5 ended exercise, these

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Findings

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time. Based on suggestions from the class, work was divided into paid employment and schoolwork. Maintenance included sleep, meals, grooming, housework, shopping, and an "other" category. In the free time category, students were asked to identify any recreational or leisure activities for which they expected to spend more than one hour during the week. Travel time was to be included with the appropriate activities. Any remaining time required to reach the total of 168 hours for the week was to be designated "wasted". These estimates were compiled in class.

In the next class, students were asked to actually keep a diary for one week, recording their activities in 15 minute intervals. A handout listing specific categories for recreation was distributed. This was based on the activities submitted in the estimates so that each category would include at least 10% of the participants in order to maintain anonymity. The categories were television including video games and movies watched at home or in theaters, reading or relaxing, board games including cards and craft activities, face to face socializing in any context, talking on the telephone, listening or playing music, time on the computer or the Internet, downhill or cross country skiing or snow boarding, swimming or skating including hockey, gym workouts including racquet ball, walking including jogging or hiking, club or religious activities, and an "other" category. Volunteer activities were included with paid employment, babysitting was included as housework, and wasted time remained a category. When more than one thing was being done at once, students were instructed to identify the dominant activity. After completion of the diary, students were asked to write about 500 words on their time recording experience. As this was an open ended exercise, these reports were considered as anecdotal.

Robinson and Godbey (1997) provide an extensive discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of the time diary techniques and also discuss the problems related to trying to obtain meaningful information on subgroups within the sample. Given that the study group was an almost homogeneous group of young, single, white students, no attempt was made to create subgroups in the data. Although a gender breakdown was a possibility, studies such as Shelton (1992) and Robinson and Godbey have indicated that time spent in work, housework, and leisure by males and females has become increasingly similar over the past two decades and are particularly similar for young adults, single people, and college educated people. These are the three groups represented in this survey. Robinson and Godbey argue that the gender differences claimed by Hochschild (1989) were the result of picking a group of people who were not representative of mainstream America while also reporting that there are no significant differences between Canadians and Americans with respect to the use of time.

Findings

Work is a requirement of adult life. For students, the primary "work" is, of course, their school activities. However, 53% of students surveyed reported they are also employed part time or did some voluntary work (Table 1). The mean time employed was reported as 12.9 hours per week, slightly less than the estimated time. A number of students commented that they worked on an "on call" basis, thus their hours fluctuated from week to week.

Table 1. Estimated and Actual Time Spent on Work Activities

Activity	ESTIMATED TIME				ACTUAL TIME			
	Students Taking Part (%)	Mean Time (hours)	Min Response (hours)	Max Response (hours)	Students Taking Part (%)	Mean Time (hours)	Min Response (hours)	Max Response (hours)
Paid Work	46	15.6	1	35	53	12.9	2	35
Class Time	no data				100	15.6	9	24
Study Time	no data				100	24.4	9	47
Total	100	33.5	10	70	100	40	18	67
School								
Total Work	100	42.1	17	70	100	46.9	18	77

The typical class time for a full time Bachelor of Arts student is 15 hours per week, and the recorded times produced a mean just above this. Some students included group meetings as class time, thus their class time entry was high. Low values for class time were usually identified in the commentaries as the result of missed classes due to illness or other commitments. Out of class schoolwork averaged 24.4 hours for the week although there was a significant range in recorded times. The mean class time and assignment time totaled 40 hours; however, the range was from less than half of that to almost 70% more. Over 20 students mentioned that the week chosen for the study was heavy with midterms and assignments due, thus they felt that their study time was more than usual. Comments indicated that maintenance activities were about equally as likely to be forgone as leisure activities to make time for the extra work. Only one student offered skipping classes as his solution to the problem. The "work" category had a mean of 47 hours, suggesting that the average student in this group spent more time "working" than the average North American adult in full-time employment.

Although this was not strictly a time management exercise, about 12% of the students found it necessary to say they felt they manage their time well while about half that number felt that the exercise had demonstrated to them that they needed to manage their study time better. One student commented that she could have spread out her assignments in a better fashion by doing some of them earlier in the term.

The students wrote a midterm for this course shortly after completing the assignment. The results showed that while there was no direct relationship between results and amount of time spent on schoolwork by individual students, grouping the marks did on average produce a trend in which longer hours led to higher marks (Table 2).

Table 2. Compar

Test Score (%)
<60
60-69
70-74
75-79
80-84
85-89
90>

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Table 3. Estimated

Activity	Students Taking (%)
Sleep	100
Meals	100
Groom	100
House	79
Shop	79
Other	15
Total	100

Table 2. Comparison of Student Test Scores to Mean Total School Work Hours

Test Score (%)	Mean Total Schoolwork Time (hours)
<60	27
60-69	39.9
70-74	34.2
75-79	36.6
80-84	41.7
85-89	48.1
90>	40.8

The question of whether students have enough time to do their assignments requires an examination of how they spend their non-school time as well as their school time. Time for maintenance activities, necessary to maintain a healthy body, must be set aside. The biggest single maintenance activity is sleep (Table 3). The students in the survey predicted a mean sleep time of 56.3 hours per week, the culturally accepted norm of 8 hours per night. In reality, they reported an average of 59.9 hours for the study week or an extra half hour per night. Underestimates were fairly consistent, with a student who predicted sleeping less than six hours a night reporting almost seven, and a student who estimated 10 hours, sleeping over 11. A number of students commented they felt they slept too much with 9% saying sleep was an escape from stress. Many students stayed up until after midnight on week nights and tried to catch up on weekends by staying in bed as long as 14 hours.

Table 3. Estimated and Actual Time Spent on Maintenance Activities

Activity	ESTIMATED TIME				ACTUAL TIME			
	Students Taking Part (%)	Mean Time (hours)	Min Response (hours)	Max Response (hours)	Students Taking Part (%)	Mean Time (hours)	Min Response (hours)	Max Response (hours)
Sleep	100	56.3	45	70	100	59.9	48	81
Meals	100	11.4	3	25	100	10.7	2	23
Groom	100	6.2	1	21	100	5.8	.5	13
House	79	2.3	.5	4.5	79	3.4	.5	16
Shop	79	3.6	1	21	68	2.8	1	6
Other	15	1.3	3	30	30	5.8	1	18
Total	100	80.4	60	112	100	82.3	66	104

Students' estimates were not particularly accurate when it came to reporting the other maintenance activities. With respect to preparing, eating, and cleaning up after meals, for example, the mean difference between the estimated times and the actual times was 5.1 hours. However, there were as many students who overestimated as underestimated, so the mean estimate of 11.4 hours per week was close to the actual time of 10.7 hours. There was a large range among both the estimated and actual times. Students commented that meal times were sacrificed when they felt they were under time constraints, and they "ate on the run," often during classes. Others commented that visits by friends and family had upset their usual eating patterns. Although the means of the estimates and actual times were close, the range was significant. Robinson and Godbey (1997) reported typical Americans spend about nine hours per week eating, but they included cooking time under housework while the above survey figures include cooking time. Grooming posed similar problems for the students.

Laundry, housework, or babysitting at home was reported by 79% of students. The amount of time this activity would take was generally underestimated. In contrast, more than half of the students overestimated the time they would spend shopping. Students' comments identified single purpose trips to convenience stores as a major waste of time. The amount of time spent shopping was about 60% that of typical Americans in studies conducted by Robinson and Godbey (1997). Although Bammel and Bammel (1996) state that shopping is the major leisure activity among Americans, only one student commented that shopping was a recreational activity. Few students could think of anything to put in the "other" category when developing their estimates, but it appeared in 30% of diaries. One common activity given was driving, other people to work.

The net result of the poor time estimates in the maintenance category was that the mean of the estimated times was 80 hours per week, and the diaries actually produced a mean of 82 hours for the study week, while the range of times reported in the diaries was 14 hours less than in the estimates. The range was also less than in the work category in both actual and percentage terms even though this category takes up almost twice as much time.

Bammel and Bammel (1996) suggest that leisure time is a necessary counterbalance to the required elements of life. They divide leisure time into four categories: passive-solitary, passive-social, active-solitary, and active-social. They suggest that activities which are active and social are best for personal well-being.

Interestingly, the largest single recreational activity in this study was watching television, primarily a passive-solitary activity. Attending movies is included in this category but few students reported doing this (Table 4). Although only 67% of students expected to watch television, in reality 82% did. However, the average viewing time was less than 60% of that of the average American adult (Bammel and Bammel, 1996). Many students felt television was a waste of time, and they could use their time more productively.

Other passive-solitary activities such as reading, listening to music, and surfing the web also scored high. Comments suggested music was often listened to while doing other activities such as maintenance or schoolwork and the value given here is an underestimation as only

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Table 4. Estimated

Activity	Students Taking Part (%)
T. V.	67
Reading	42
Music	21
Internet	17
Games	12
Socializing	37
Phone	23
Clubs	13
Skiing	33
State	21
Gym	42
Walk	17
Other	15
Total	100

the main activity engaged in at the time could be recorded. While some solitary time to renew and recharge is necessary, Tinsley (1987) argues that a high degree of passive-solitary activities could be viewed with some concern as it suggests a considerable amount of isolation, particularly for those in institutional settings such as residential dormitories. It is worthy to note that there was considerable concern about threats of attempted suicides in the residences during the time this study was conducted. The university administration certainly felt that student isolation was something to avoid.

Among the passive-social activities, face to face socializing was estimated by 37% of students and actually reported by 77%. Similarly, talking on the telephone was estimated by 23% and done by 72%. Comments suggested that these were activities which many students did not think about when estimating their week, yet they consumed large amounts of available leisure time. In contrast, very few students took part in clubs or religious activities, and the actual time spent on these was less than estimated.

All of the passive activity categories had more students taking part than had been predicted, and the mean time went down in every category as did the minimum time. This suggests that the students who predicted they would do these activities actually did so for relatively long periods of time while those who had not predicted doing the activity spent only a short time at it. Indeed, several students commented in their reports that they had not expected to take part in an activity reported.

There were fewer active activities than passive activities suggested in the estimates, and the number of students participating in each of them was lower than in the passive activities with the exception of clubs. Three of the activities showed the same pattern as passive activities with more students taking part then predicted but less time devoted to the activity (Table 4). Skiing was the only exception to this pattern. It probably scored lower because it was the only activity requiring significant travel time. Thus, fewer people took part, but those who did devoted more time to it than expected. A number of students commented they wanted to become more active but time and money constraints prevented it.

Table 4. Estimated and Actual Time Spent on Leisure Activities

Activity	ESTIMATED TIME				ACTUAL TIME			
	Students Taking Part (%)	Mean Time (hours)	Min Response (hours)	Max Response (hours)	Students Taking Part (%)	Mean Time (hours)	Min Response (hours)	Max Response (hours)
T. V.	67	11.3	3	29	82	10.3	2	33
Reading	42	5.4	1	13	56	4.6	1	18
Music	21	10.5	2	24	30	3.7	.5	5
Internet	17	7.1	2	15	47	4.8	.5	16
Games	12	5.7	2	14	28	3.6	1	8.5
Socializing	37	11.2	.5	50	77	8.9	1	60
Phone	23	5.5	1	20	72	2.9	.5	12
Clubs	13	3.4	1.5	7	14	2.6	1	4
Skiing	33	8.6	.5	20	25	9	2	30
Skate	21	8.5	2	34	28	4.7	1	14
Gym	42	5.7	2	15	46	4.4	1	19
Walk	17	6	2	15	30	2.5	.5	6.5
Other	15	10.4	2	48	33	4.5	.5	25
Total	100	34.3	5	70	100	34	4	61

The results from the "other" category were unusual. All but one person who estimated some time in this category reported no time in this category in their diary. Nonetheless, 33% of students, who had originally estimated nothing in this category, claimed "other" time in their diaries with a mean of 4.5 hours.

Total recreation time was estimated at a mean of 34.3 hours per week, and the actual figures had a mean of 34 hours. A number of students said that time constraints forced them to choose alternatives to what they had planned. Others said that they like to have variety in their leisure and do different things each week, thus they did not know in advance what they would be doing.

The typical day has small pockets of time which are unavoidably wasted. When the students tried to estimate how they would use their time, they were forced to put any remaining time into the "wasted" category to bring the total to 168 hours (Table 5). This category was used by 77% of students with an average of 13.3 hours. While completing their diaries, many students discovered how they spent this time, but 70% still claimed "wasted" time although the mean dropped to 5.6 hours.

Table 5. Total Time Spent During Week

Activity	ESTIMATED TIME				ACTUAL TIME			
	Students Taking Part (%)	Mean Time (hours)	Min Response (hours)	Max Response (hours)	Students Taking Part (%)	Mean Time (hours)	Min Response (hours)	Max Response (hours)
Total School	100	33.5	10	70	100	40	18	67
Total Work	100	42.1	17	70	100	46.9	18	77
Total Maintenance	100	80.4	60	112	100	82.3	66	104
Leisure Time	100	34.3	5	70	100	34	4	61
Wasted Time	77	13.3	1	51	70	5.6	.5	65

Conclusion

A balanced life is one in which there is time for work, personal maintenance, and relaxation. While the literature often puts schoolwork first, the study indicated that sleep was a priority for students need their sleep. When they did not get enough sleep during the week, they tried to make up for it on the weekend. Between 8 and 8.5 hours per night should be encouraged.

Class times are often beyond the control of the student but must be attended and therefore establish much of the daily routine, including when one has to get up in the morning and go to bed the night before. The diaries and marks obtained in the midterm suggest that 1.6 to 2 hours of study time per class hour is sufficient to obtain an above average grade. Scheduling this time during the day, between classes, should reduce wasted time and free up the evening for leisure activities. If extra time in the evening is necessary it should be blocked out for that purpose. This would leave the weekend open for up to 15 hours of part-time employment.

The literature clearly supports following a good diet, and the average time of 1.5 hours per day for meals found in the study fits the suggestions in the literature. Although the literature was silent on other maintenance activities, the survey found that an average of 2.5 hours per day would be needed for such activities. Shopping on the way home from school and doing the laundry while studying are two ways to efficiently complete these tasks.

This busy schedule still leaves about 3 hours on weekdays and 4.5 hours on Saturdays and Sundays for leisure activities. The literature encouraged exercise and socializing. Exercises such as walking, gym workouts, and swimming may be done during lunch hour or at the end of the school day, before going home. Activities which take more time, such as skiing, are usually done on the weekend. The survey indicated that many students do not exercise, and of those who do exercise, few meet the 6 hours per week suggested by Kendrick and Kendrick (1988).

Much of the activity in the socializing category is passive rather than active. In the survey, 72% of students reported spending time on the telephone, and they averaged 3 hours per week. Authors such as Kendrick and Kendrick (1988) and Mackenzie (1997) give tips on how to control telephone time. Face to face socializing may take place over lunch or while walking between classes although much will occur in the evening and on weekends. Students should be cautioned not to let socializing take away from required work or maintenance activities.

The literature suggests that to become well-rounded a person needs to spend some time in voluntary community service or religious activities. It was therefore of some concern that one of the findings of the study was that only 14% of students took part in volunteer work, club activities, or religious activities.

Quiet time to recharge is also necessary. As is typical of North American society in general, the majority of the study group spent the majority of its leisure time in front of the television.

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UAL TIME	
Min Response (hours)	Max Response (hours)
18	67
18	77
66	104
4	61
.5	65

Again, the main concern would be that too much television does not leave time for other more important activities including schoolwork, maintenance, exercise, and socializing.

The literature suggests that not every moment of life should be assigned to an activity, and the mean of 5 hours of wasted time reported in the diaries supports this. However, many authors do not provide enough information to meaningfully decide just how to allocate a typical week into work, maintenance, and leisure activities. This study provides some actual data which, in general, can be incorporated into the suggestions made in the literature and at the same time provide a more detailed guide to organizing activities. Certainly not every week will be the same as the next, but a firm template from which to work is still the secret to successful time management.

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The journal seeks to expand and disseminate knowledge about learning centers and to foster communication among learning center professionals. Its audience includes learning center administrators, teaching staff, and tutors as well as other faculty and administrators across the curriculum who are interested in improving the learning skills of postsecondary students.

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Use of Technology with Developmental Students

By Sandra L. Miller, Atlantic Cape Community College

Technology can be one of the strongest teaching and learning tools available today if used wisely. Students learn best when the subject is embedded in content that is of interest and relevance and when the learning is active. Technology can broaden the opportunity for teaching in context and for learning in an active way (Cowles, 1997), but what matters most are the educational strategies for using technology—strategies that ultimately can influence the student's total course of study (Ehrmann, 1997).

The following set of guiding principles is a good place to start looking at strategies (American Distance Education Consortium, 1999).

- ▶ The learning experience must have a clear purpose with tightly focused outcomes and objectives.
- ▶ The learner is actively engaged.
- ▶ The learning environment makes appropriate use of a variety of media.
- ▶ Learning environments must include problem-based as well as knowledge-based learning.
- ▶ Learning experiences should support interaction and the development of communities of interest.

The questions we have to ask ourselves, as educators considering the usage of technology for developmental students, arise from these guidelines. We have to ask ourselves what distinct advantages does the applied instructional technology offer the instructor in order to promote improved learning in the students (Owston, 1997)?

The literature suggests that computer-mediated communication (CMC) can be offered in a wide variety of delivery formats to successfully enhance teaching and learning strategies. Usage of e-mail, bulletin boards, and Internet research results in greater enrichment for

academic courses (Drew, 1996; Collins, 1998). Computer Supported Intentional Learning Environments (CSILE) maximize student reflection and encourage progressive thought, take multiple perspectives, and create independent thinking (Oshima & Oshima, 1999). In CSILE, students externalize their thoughts as electronic text or graphic "notes." Then, they organize their knowledge collaboratively within an electronic framework to advance their common understanding.

CMC can provide extra access to the instructor, other students, and the world-at-large (Rossi, 1996). Additional findings by Regalbuto et al. (2000) indicate that two well-established educational strategies, discussion or seminar mode and lecture mode work well with two new on-line paradigms. Discussion or seminar mode is effective with text-based CMC, such as e-mail, and lecture mode is enhanced with interactive, graphically based material such as PowerPoint.

As instructors, both Michael Collins and Ellen Freedman have used electronic bulletin boards in their traditional classrooms (Collins, 1988; Floyd, 1998). They found that electronic bulletin boards were wonderful stimulants of student-to-student interaction as well as student-to-instructor. Electronic bulletin boards can offer an excellent opportunity for students to interact at convenient times.

Many developmental educators are familiar with the "fact and skills, drill and practice" media of computer-assisted instruction and computer-based instruction. Studies have shown there is a place for this methodology (Kulik, 1994; King and Crouse, 1997; Weems, 1999); however, an effective delivery of developmental instruction necessarily involves the creative use of integrated labs and computer-assisted instruction to supplement classroom instruction. It is extremely important that this kind of usage is directly linked to classroom instruction (Boylan, H., Bonham, B., Bliss, and Claxton, 1998).

Tomei (1997) places usage of the Internet high on the level of humanistic effectiveness. He points out that the Internet is much too hands-on and much too reliant on students interacting with others to be utilized at the basic drill and skill level. The Internet poses a higher level option for developmental students through collaboration and interaction. Again, it's a matter of determining the desired educational strategy (or strategies) and applying that strategy through the technology's features to promote learning.

Another advantage of CMC is in the potential affective support for the developmental learner. As a developmental math teacher at Camden County Community College, Ellen Freedman finds that "her students open up more easily on-line than in person, and she learned a lot about their anxieties" (Floyd, 1998). This means that developmental students may find their public voices that are so often lost in the bustle of the busy, traditional classroom.

In addition, studies have shown that computers often motivate students to participate more (Ireson, 1997; Cavanaugh, 1999). "Learning, both outside and inside school, advances through collaboration of knowledge" (Brown, 1989, p. 40). The value of constructivist education theory is that it bridges the gap between knowing and doing.

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Another study by Bonk, Appelman, and Hay (1996) found that individual success or failure in any course depended upon the extent to which students were able to cross a threshold from feeling like outsiders to feeling like insiders. Wegerif (1998) suggests that computer-mediated communication provides the support for interactive and collaborative teaching and learning. He further suggests that this helps to bring the student back across that threshold.

Interestingly enough, software that isn't designed for instruction can be good for learning (Ehrmann, 1997). In a casebook analysis of such software, Morris, Ehrmann, Goldsmith, Howat, and Kumar (1994) gave such software the name of *worldware*. *Worldware* is developed for purposes other than instruction, but is also used for teaching and learning. Word processors are *worldware* as are computer-aided design packages, electronic mail, and the Internet. *Worldware* packages are educationally valuable because they enable several important facets of instructional improvement. For example, electronic mail, conferencing systems and voice mail can support collaborative learning by non-residential students (Ehrmann).

Going back to the original premise that it is the educational strategy driving the usage of educational technology that is significant, it pays to examine the Annenberg/CPB Project's list of educational strategies for using technology (Ehrmann, 1997). The list includes project-based learning in an information-rich, too-rich environment; collaborative learning when communication can be synchronous and asynchronous; learning at paces and times of the student's choosing; learning marked by continuous improvement of a piece of work, improved student-faculty and student-student interaction, and enhanced feedback. These strategies are appropriate for developmental students given the proper scaffolding in the electronic environment.

The teacher's role changes in the on-line environment. Feenberg (1989) and his colleagues determined that the instructor's role as on-line moderator breaks down into three parts: contextualizing functions are necessary to put time-delayed comments into the proper context; monitoring functions are important to keep students on-task while on-line; and meta-functions (usage of "weaving comments" to remedy problems in context and to summarize the state of discussion) bring it all together for the students. Harasim (1995) supports these functions. The instructor's use of technology to form a strong sense of community through student collaboration and affective interaction.

Caverly and MacDonald (1999) recommend a continuum of web-based activities for developmental on-line students. They suggest three different levels or "generations" (p. 36): The first generation is web-based supplemental instruction; the second adds interactivity through electronic bulletin boards and e-mail while the third adds the benefit of synchronous interactivity in chat rooms. Caverly and MacDonald and others are inclined to pursue on-line developmental courses. A continuum leading up to totally on-line courses may be the most coherent approach to integrating the appropriate educational technology for developmental students. Higher education can certainly look at incorporating educational technology from this perspective.

Beginning with the American Distance Education Consortium's guidelines (1999)

previously defined, developmental educators can form their own continuum of educational strategies incorporating educational technology for developmental students. They can look at delivering instruction in a mixed mode to start that could evolve into a totally computer-mediated delivery depending upon the students' responses. "Mixed mode classes can be comprised of the best of both worlds: the human interactions of the classroom with the powerful learning tools of the computer" (Regalbuto et al., 2000).

As Imel (1998) explains, "Adult educators may once have been able to ignore the educational applications of technology, but that is no longer the case." It is incumbent upon us to develop a meaningful set of educational strategies employing technology in ways that improve learning and connection. It behooves us to prepare our students for on-line work in these and other courses. More importantly, we need to help prepare them for the world of work within a developmental, educationally sound, technological environment.

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BOOK REVIEW

TUTORING GUIDES: RECENT TEXTS FOR TRAINING PEER EDUCATORS

Reviewed By James McNamara, Alverno College

Ender, S., & Newton, F. (2000). Students helping students: A guide for peer educators on college campuses. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Gillespie, P., & Lerner, N. (2000). The Allyn and Bacon guide to peer tutoring. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Rafoth, B. (Ed.). (2000). A tutor's guide: Helping writers one to one. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.

If sheer numbers of publications tell the story of how popular a topic is, then how one educates peer tutors or peer educators is the hot button issue of the year 2000. No less than three new texts have appeared in the last twelve months. If learning center administrators are in the market for additional material to add to their workshops or courses for peer assistants, then one of the following texts may be of service. Each employs interesting and informative methods of instruction as it considers the significant issues facing students as they work with their classmates in writing, reading, and study strategy situations.

The first text, Ender and Newton's Students helping students: A guide for peer educators on college campuses, presents material in both a logical and thorough fashion. The chapters of the text are arranged in a consistent manner, with each including a list of learning objectives, followed by informative textual explication, and finally exercises and questions. The language of the text is appropriate for the presumed audience: students training to be peer educators. In addition to significant discussions which include working with diverse students, the group process, reading and study strategies, and ethical issues, the text also contains an impressive references section for further reading.

In Chapter 3, one of two sections written for Ender and Newton by an outside authority, the assumption is that most peer educators will be working with diverse populations of students. The author, Ata U. Karim, a licensed psychologist and coordinator of multicultural training and outreach at Kansas State University, substitutes "intercultural" for the more common "multicultural," hinting at the complex nature of culture and noting that individuals often

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exist within more than one cultural setting (p. 50). She warns against over-generalizing and offers methods of neutralizing stereotypes. In addition, she openly discusses things that might hinder a peer educator from becoming competent in an intercultural world, such as concerns with personal discomfort and fear of embarrassment, and notes that a solid starting point is to become more aware of one's own cultural position (pp. 57-58).

Another significant issue that Ender and Newton consider is the use of group activities in classes and tutorial situations, as discussed in Chapter 6. The authors note the advantages of groups as they discuss what might go wrong: apathy, boredom, conflict, indifference, frustration, nonsupport, or inability to accomplish purpose (p. 133). They discuss methods of increasing the efficiency of the group process, including vigilance in communication, atmosphere, decision-making, and recognizing membership roles. A useful table traces the progression of group development and offers tips for success at each stage (p.147).

The second guest author, Sally Lipsky of the Learning Center Department at Indiana University of Pennsylvania, traces a number of strategies for academic success in Chapter 8 that are often *de rigueur* in all peer educator training texts: passive versus active learning, time management, environment, listening, note-taking, critical reading, organizing practices, and exam preparation.

Finally, in the Ender and Newton text, Chapter 10 treats peer educators, appropriately, as professionals, and as such considers ethical standards that might be employed to ensure proper behavior, roles, and responsibilities. The authors succinctly discuss the relationships a peer educator will take part in: with students, with a supervisor, with the university community, and with the local community at large.

A second text that debuted this year is Gillespie and Lerner's Allyn and Bacon guide to peer tutoring, a thorough and practical approach to training peer tutors. This manual, while obviously considering the relevant issues of the field, is augmented with supplemental materials that include interesting and insightful observations from actual tutors and student writers. The authors trace the training process in a developmental fashion, from explaining the writing and tutoring process to observation, practical advice, and finally tutoring in the trenches.

For example, in Chapter 4, the authors look at expectations of both the tutor and the writer. As in the Ender and Newton text, Gillespie and Lerner desire tutors to be aware of cultural biases; they also want the learning assistants to be conscious of their previous educational experiences. They speak of the expectations of rules of interaction and how they apply to a tutoring session. Tutors are encouraged to clarify the goals of the writer and reach a compromise on the tutor's goals, so as to remain committed to the writer rather than writing. The chapter also examines how views of writing an essay have been formed by previous influential teachers of the tutors; such experiences may block communication between the tutor and tutee. The tutor is reminded to avoid the "one-size-fits-all" mentality.

Locating tutors in a situation common to many campuses, Chapter 9 overtly considers tutorials that involve critical reading. Often, students are writing in response to something

they have read, and this chapter examines how tutors can help "writers who are grappling with texts" (p. 107). The authors thoroughly examine the reading process, offering examples of tutors working with students "reading" in a writing center.

Keeping in mind that tutoring will take on new challenges in the near future with the advent of more and more technological advances, Chapter 12 introduces the relatively new concept of on-line tutoring. The authors consider primarily low-tech e-mail exchanges and the need to consider several variables: different expectations, response time, establishing tone, and context setting. They note that two types of comments dominate responses during tutoring on-line: "interlaced comments" and "comments at the end" of a piece, and they discuss the advantages and disadvantages of each (pp. 144-45).

The third text this year that considers the training of peer educators, Rafoth's *A tutor's guide: Helping writers one to one*, brings together a myriad of voices that discuss what might occur in a tutoring session. The text also considers theory and practice that might help make what a tutor does easier and more enjoyable. Chapters are logically organized in a consistent fashion, with the following sections: introduction, background material, concrete suggestions for action, complicating matters, further reading, and works cited. The text closes with brief overviews of several informative topics for further consideration: from the socially constructive methods of critiquing "bad assignments" to the liberating feeling of working in a radical writing center, and finally to the peril or wisdom of a student writer ignoring his or her audience.

In Chapter 2, Molly Wingate discusses concerns about crossing from a "writer-centered, process-oriented" tutorial session to a "tutor-centered, product-oriented" session (p. 9). She acknowledges that there is always a dichotomy of doing what is helpful and best for the student-writer to move towards independence and doing what the student/writer desires. Tutors are encouraged to continue to assess their role in a session and within those boundaries, to remain in character. However, since the line is constantly in a state of flux, tutors should also be willing to adapt and move with it.

Alice L. Trupe, in Chapter 8, offers methods for tutors to help students recognize the importance of organization and the steps necessary to move through the chaos that often traps them. Tutors must keep in mind that the movement they experience in a tutoring session is through the writing process as well as in an individual product. It is often at odds with writing textbooks, which concentrate on "orienting the reader," when one works on topic sentences or transitional phrases (p. 68). Tutors need to be aware of audience and context; they might have students work on brief summaries of ideas, presented in oral form, to help them determine what they want to say. Another method is to have writers contextualise "the journalist's five 'w-questions'" to help them discover their own focus and to produce a more "reader-based rather than writer-based text" (p. 70). Trupe reminds the tutor to keep an open mind and to avoid failing to "recognize unfamiliar organizational patterns where our [writing tutors] preconceived ideas" might be thwarted (p. 73).

In the final chapter, Jennifer J. Ritter introduces another layer of difference in a tutorial situation which involves an English as a second language (ESL) writer. She acknowledges

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that such sessions offer difficulty in deciding where to start: grammar or ideas. She desires that the tutor consider trying to "negotiate meanings and focus in the student's text" (p. 102). Since ESL students often expect, and may need, extensive sentence-level help and editing, this may be at odds with the previous training a tutor has received. Tutors also need to consider "which ESL errors are more serious and can affect reading comprehension" (p. 103). By negotiating, tutor and writer are enacting the theory of "interaction hypothesis" (Goss, S., Mackey, A., and Pica, T., 1998). Negotiation "slows the conversation and allows the student more time to process information," thus allowing the student to "discover problems on his [or her] own" (p. 108).

If a learning assistance educator is looking for a new text to augment current training materials, any of the books mentioned above would be a welcome addition. Each offers the supplementary information and examples necessary to complement any instructional practice, whether it is a semester-long course on tutoring or a series of workshops designed to improve the quality of instruction.

James McNamara, is an Instructor of Communication in the Instructional Services Department at Alverno College in Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

Reference

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PUBLICATION GUIDELINES

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As an official publication of the National College Learning Center Association, The Learning Assistance Review seeks to expand and disseminate knowledge about learning centers and to foster communication among learning center professionals. Its audience includes learning center administrators, teaching staff and tutors, as well as other faculty and administrators across the curriculum who are interested in improving the learning skills of post-secondary students.

The journal publishes scholarly articles and reviews that address issues of interest to a broad range of learning center professionals. Primary consideration will be given to articles about program design and evaluation, classroom-based research, the application of theory and research to practice, innovative teaching strategies, student assessment, and other topics that bridge gaps within our diverse discipline.

1. Prepare a manuscript that is approximately 12 to 15 pages in length and includes an introduction, bibliography, and subheadings throughout the text.
2. Include an abstract of 100 words or less that clearly describes the focus of your paper and summarizes its contents.
3. Type the text with double spacing and number the pages. Follow APA style (Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 4th edition, 1994).
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What is NCLCA?

The mission of the National College Learning Center Association (NCLCA) is to support learning assistance professionals as they develop and maintain learning centers, programs, and services to enhance student learning at the postsecondary level.

What Does NCLCA Do?

- ▶ Promotes professional standards in the areas of administration and management, program and curriculum design, evaluation, and research;
- ▶ Acts on learning assistance issues at local, regional, and national levels;
- ▶ Assists in the creation of new, and enhancement of existing, learning centers and programs;
- ▶ Provides opportunities for professional development, networking, and idea exchange through conferences, workshops, institutes, and publications; and
- ▶ Offers forums for celebrating and respecting the profession.

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r 30, and annual dues are
Learning Assistance Review,
rkshops, in-service events,
look forward to having you