Faculty Development and Changing Environments of the Urban Campus

Debrah Jefferson
Susan Peverly

Follow this and additional works at: http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/podimproveacad

Part of the Higher Education Administration Commons

http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/podimproveacad/334

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education at DigitalCommons@University of Nebraska - Lincoln. It has been accepted for inclusion in To Improve the Academy by an authorized administrator of DigitalCommons@University of Nebraska - Lincoln.
Faculty Development and Changing Environments of the Urban Campus

Debrah Jefferson
University of Illinois at Chicago

Susan Peverly
University of Illinois at Chicago

Literature about the urban campus indicates that traditional, full-time faculty who teach and engage in scholarly, creative work, or research may need to shift to more applied and community-oriented service programs. Hence, the role of faculty development is changing because the issues facing the urban university are changing. These changes are prompted by the unique growth and development within the neighborhood of urban-based campuses. Pressure from the communities to make the campuses more community oriented, along with growing concern for the nature and quality of instruction, help foster change. Campus administration concerns about the institution becoming a "good" neighbor by contributing to the community puts unique pressures on the faculty developer. The faculty developer is in a position to see campus changes which can affect instructional methods or styles such as increased numbers of minority or immigrant students and more part-time faculty. While these changes occur, the general faculty often remains relatively traditional in its attitudes about teaching.
To Improve the Academy

Historical Perspective: Evolution of the Urban Campus

The physical location of a college campus has played an important role since the advent of higher education in the United States. Early U.S. universities and colleges were set in or near populated centers, but little attention was placed upon the impact of environment on the institutions or potential benefit of drawing faculty from the ranks of the local population. Concern was given to available land, establishing a physical plant for the institution, and teaching a liberal arts curriculum to an affluent student body. The nearby city afforded easy access to the campus for those classes of people sophisticated enough to appreciate and pay for higher learning.

When the federal government passed the Morrill Act of 1862 it prompted an unparalleled growth and degree programs in higher education. The Morrill Act created a new concept in higher education, which enabled each state to set aside land for the creation of colleges for agricultural and mechanical studies. The Act resulted in the merger of a liberal arts curriculum with that of the practical, agricultural, and technical sciences designed for the industrial or working classes. The new curriculum was aimed at preparing society for the awakening age of industry. Higher education evolved into an outlet that could pave the way for a new class of educated people.

Before 1900 there were few large cities in the U.S., and most of those were located in the East. Higher education had not evolved to the point that they examined the sociological or environmental impact of the city upon college campus. This also was partly because the university was perceived as a separate entity above and apart from the city. In 1900, only four of the largest cities in the U.S. had universities— all private: Columbia University in New York, the University of Chicago, Harvard University in Boston and the University of Pennsylvania in Philadelphia. Other communities were establishing private colleges, which generally recruited regionally or nationally for their students from the affluent classes. “At these institutions, scholarship and teaching rarely were concerned with the population and conditions of their host cities, and there was little sense of obligation to them”
Faculty Development and Changing Environments of the Urban Campus

(Adamany, 1992). By 1900 most communities of size had begun some form of public or private institution of higher education.

In 1914 the Smith-Lever Act made another sweeping change in higher education. The Act provided an avenue for bringing applied research to the citizens of a state by creating cooperative extension service (CES) as an arm of the U.S. Department of Agriculture. CES staff were housed on the land-grant campus so that faculty could engage in service and teaching activities throughout the state. CES added a social responsibility or conscience to institutional missions.

Today's urban-based institutions often started as municipal colleges, private city colleges, or branch campuses (generally part of a state university system) (Berube, 1978). They ranged from two-year community colleges granting associate arts degrees to research-oriented universities granting doctoral and professional degrees. These urban campuses continue the change in higher education brought by the Morrill and the Smith-Lever acts because they often differ from the traditional liberal arts and the research models of higher education. Such institutions as Towson State (Baltimore), Northeastern Illinois (Chicago), University of Illinois at Chicago, University of Toledo, Old Dominion University (Norfolk, Va.) and Arizona State (Phoenix) are examples of the new urban campus (Kinnick and Ricks, 1990). These new urban-based institutions perceive themselves as the servants of society. They pay close attention to their funding constituency as well as the type of student they attract. In essence, they perceive themselves as "of" rather than simply "in" the city and they continue to play a major role in the future of urban America" (Adamany, 1992).

Faculty Development and the Urban Campus

The effect of the urban environment on the role of the faculty developer is receiving growing attention. During a session at the 1994 Professional and Organization Development (POD) in Higher Education national conference, faculty developers identified four primary areas which are affected by the urban environment in which they work. These areas are campus, mission, students, and faculty. Some of the areas delineating the campus as urban include:
a. campus: often a part of a multi-campus system; maintains a large physical plant; located within or in close proximity to a major metropolitan area; offers a variety of courses and degree programs; serving large numbers of students;

b. mission: generally possesses established traditions, which encompasses research, teaching, and service; values community involvement and service (out-reach oriented); fosters diversity;

c. students: primarily non-residential; often are first generation immigrants as well as college students; frequently enroll more women than men; often have older (freshmen over 23 years of age) or returning students; find students juggling family, work, and class schedules around outside responsibilities; include diverse ethnic, cultural or racial groups; and

d. faculty: often more diverse than non-urban campuses; many are non-resident of the campus community; many have part-time, adjunct, clinical, or visiting appointments; growing number of non-regular or non-tenure-track appointments over tenure-track creating a faculty hierarchy; and many have degrees from non-urban campuses.

The POD faculty developers who helped create this list of areas that delineate urban from non-urban campuses recognize how programming on an urban institution also affects the role of faculty development. The faculty developer is expected to help faculty whose teaching is no longer confined to the classroom. In the new era, developers must incorporate teaching and learning style differences between faculty and students as well as add technological aids to their repertoire to assist faculty immersed in the community.

Campus

The term urban campus evolved after World War II (Elliott, 1994). Population shifts called for more institutions to serve older, part-time, and financially independent students working in the city. The urban campus became an institution located in a city that grows to encompass it. An example is the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga, which was established as a teachers college or normal school.
Faculty Development and Changing Environments of the Urban Campus

in 1886. It became an urban college when the city grew up around it. Another example is Indiana University-Purdue University at Indianapolis, which is a branch of the state’s two leading public universities. Both of these campuses are a mixture of residential and commuter students with faculty ranging from part-time to tenure-track. These institutions perceive themselves as attracting state, national, and international students.

The urban campus, also may be located on the outskirts of a large city and sees itself as distinct from the city while drawing heavily upon the benefits derived from its location. An example is Lake Forest College in Lake Forest, IL., which is a far north suburb of Chicago. Sometimes this type of campus is called periphery or urban corridor because of its suburban location. Research and service opportunities are abundant in the city so the campuses are linked to the city. Many of the students are drawn from the greater urban area and a large percentage live on campus (examples include Northwestern University, George Mason University, Memphis State University, University of Colorado-Denver).

Mission

Change is often a long and traumatic process for any individual. When an entire campus is changing to become more socially conscious and responsive to societal needs, it is often a slow process which involves numerous individuals buying into the process. For most universities, change moves at a slower pace than for the general population. The fast-paced urban community wants higher education to change now, not at its normal glacial pace (Hackney, 1994). Change on the urban campus in terms of its commitment to meeting societal needs is not new, it is just a renewed emphasis on and commitment to service, community, and inclusiveness.

Change to meet societal demands does not affect all urban campuses in the same way because not all campuses located in or near a city can be easily defined as urban. Criteria such as student population, residential versus commuter students, full- versus part-time faculty, physical plant, as well as mission statement and commitment to the
community affect whether a campus sees itself as urban, or as Ada­many (1992) says "of" the city.

How an institution sees itself, including faculty and students, in relationship to the environment and community affects its image as an urban campus. There is a symbiotic relationship between the city and the university because they feed upon each other (Elliott, 1994). This is a primary characteristic of the urban campus. The community in which the university is located often expects it to educate all who enroll as well as solve society's problems (Lindsay and Detmer, 1990). This is not a new concept, but reflects a newer understanding of the land-grant mission seen in the Morrill and Smith-Lever acts. The university is being transformed into an enclave offering opportunities both genders; welcoming all ethnic, racial and cultural groups; encouraging students with varying physical abilities; and promoting international environments in which both faculty and students learn and grow. An interconnectedness of study, learning, research, and service is evolving.

If a campus that is totally rooted in outreach or community-based programs is on one end of a continuum and another campus not perceiving its mission as encompassing city problems on the other end, a clearer image of today's range of urban campuses is seen (see Figure 1). The traditional campus, regardless of location is primarily concerned with teaching and/or research to improve the academy or the discipline. Today, most campuses are in the transitional zone. They provide some community programs such as health services through the medical schools and teaching hospitals (University Hospital and Clinics of the University of Illinois at Chicago). Some forge links with local schools such as Boston University managing the Chelsea, Massachusetts, public school system (Lindsay, 1990).

Corporate partnerships also become key factors for the urban campus. Its faculty as well as students forge close contacts within the corporate world as part of the campus educational program. George M.C. Fisher, chairman, president, and CEO of Eastman Kodak Company sums up the corporate world's vision of an urban university when he said, "It is from the colleges and universities in our global village that we can expect direction and expertise in sorting out the complexities of our fast changing world" (Fisher, 1995).
Faculty Development and Changing Environments of the Urban Campus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional University</th>
<th>Transitional College</th>
<th>Colleges and Universities Outwardly Oriented</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Located in City</td>
<td></td>
<td>No preference for solving city problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Immersed in community problems (urban land-grant model)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1: Continuum for Urban Campuses.

Students

According to Elliott (1994) the new majority on the urban campus will draw most of its students from the surrounding urban-suburban area. Because of population shifts, the student pool will include larger numbers of young Hispanics and African-Americans than in the past. Because of economics large numbers of students are commuters and part-timers. They include women returning to the work force in need of training as well as mid-life men and women seeking new careers.

Many of these new students drop-in and drop-out of the institution. Often they work full-time supporting a family. Because of this enrollment pattern, it takes them longer than the traditional four-year period to complete an undergraduate degree program. They need classes that fit their work schedules so the campuses hold late afternoon, evening and/or weekend classes to accommodate the students. Some degree programs offer a special concentrated week-end curriculum so their students can continue working full-time while completing an advanced degree.

Elliott (1994) reports that over half the students enrolled on urban campuses are older than the normal 18 to 22 years. Often they begin college in their 30s or 40s. They may not take a linear approach to completing a degree or even seek a degree. They often seek specific skills to improve their job performance or to advance their careers. When Diner (1981) assumed his first teaching position at a city college in Washington, D.C., he encountered students intent on acquiring skills to take into the workforce, not just acquiring a degree for the educational experience of learning.
Student diversity is another major factor on the urban campus. At Miami-Dade Community College the diversity of students is about 23% white; 19% African-American; 55% Hispanic; 2% Asian; and less than 1% Native-American. At Queens College in New York the diversity is equally dramatic. About 40% of the students are minorities and 45% are immigrants or children of immigrants (Elliott, 1994). On the twenty-campus California State University (CSU) system, with a fall 1990 enrollment of 369,000 students, the ethnic composition included: 64% white, 12% Asian, 6% African-American, 15% Latino and 1% Native-American. On some of the CSU campuses, over 70% of the students are over age 25.

These urban campus students often are academically competitive with non-urban campus students. Elliott reported that nearly 58 percent of the entering freshmen taking the ACT scored 20 or better on their composite scores. There are other students whose ACT scores indicate they could not hope to achieve a college degree, yet often they do. This indicates a wide variety of academic capabilities among the students attending urban campuses.

**Faculty**

While the students are increasingly older, women, part-time, and minority, the hiring practices for faculty may not follow the same pattern. There is more opportunity for diversity among faculty, yet that does not always ensure a diverse faculty. Faculty on the urban campus can be more diverse than its rural counterpart if search committees tapped into the readily available urban community. The urban campuses often are energized by the diversity which reflects the composition of the community. The city provides opportunity for two-person careers, broader racial, ethnic, or cultural experiences as well as social opportunities (Elliott, 1994). The city offers recruitment options for professionals to join the faculty as part-time, adjunct, visiting, or other non-tenure track instructors.

Scholarship and research have broadened in the urban environment beyond traditional applied and pure definitions of research. As society changes and the concept of scholarship broadens so has the ground for study, especially with a city at the institution’s front door.
The faculty are what Elliott calls “asphalt intelligentsia.” This is the university professor in the broader concept of scholar and teacher. This asphalt intelligentsia professorate often travel the highways of the city between a professional position and the campus or the campus and the city to do research or to another campus because of a part-time appointment.

While Elliott talks about the diversity among urban campus faculty and gives the impression that all arrive on campus prepared, meaning they are hired because of their knowledge in the discipline or field, Diner (1981) holds a differing opinion. He said, “nothing in my own experiences had prepared me for what I was to encounter.”

The urban institution at which he taught included faculty with differing views on the purpose of faculty roles, students ranging from those seeking skills aimed at the job market to those with poor attention and attendance, but primarily they were not predominantly WASP or Euro-Jewish. Coming from a small, public liberal arts college and a private graduate school, Diner said, “I experienced cultural shock during the first weeks.”

Implications for Faculty Development

Urban faculty present a new set of challenges for faculty development. Foremost is the increase in the hiring of adjunct professors, which affects how the campus perceives the urban faculty as well as the faculty’s vision of its own role.

George Drops (1993) of National University in San Diego says if the current trend for hiring part-time faculty continues, before the 21st Century arrives, there will be more part-time instructors at U.S. colleges and universities than full-time. These part-time faculty are often drawn from the professional ranks of the nearby city. They may come with experience in teaching within their profession but this does not necessarily mean they “have the academic acculturation that is both assumed and integral to successful college teaching” (Kristensen & Moulton, 1993). This also is the belief of Stanley and Lumpkins (1992), who state that often the part-timers have “no background in pedagogy and little understanding of the needs of students, it is imperative to include such faculty in staff development efforts.”
Because of this growing trend, there must be an accompanying mechanism for improving teaching as well as scholarly endeavor and involvement outside of the classroom (Gappa & Leslie, 1993).

What this mixture of faculty, students, and environment implies is a need for a faculty development organizational model suitable for the urban institution. Each urban institution is going through a life cycle that balances changes in mission and student population with community pressures for involvement and a quest for reforms in teaching. Each component demands a solution dependent upon an appropriate response that considers all constituencies in the mix.

Changes in the student population suggest a need to shift faculty focus from faculty centered teaching to student centered learning. The faculty developer can be the bridge between the two. Faculty developers build upon the external or environmental pressures pushing the campus to become more community-oriented. Their knowledge about teaching styles and learning styles and how they affect a teaching environment is an asset to the campus mission.

Part of a faculty developer’s role is a bridge builder between the part-time faculty and the academic environment. Faculty developers are in a unique position to help reduce a sense of isolation and loneliness that often prevails among the non-regular faculty on the urban campus (Lamber, 1993). This is partly what Elliott interprets as an adjustment between perceptions and reality. The part-time faculty are a reality on the urban campus. On some campuses they may even equal the number of regular faculty. On other campuses they may teach more introductory level courses than regular or senior level faculty, so in essence they are perceived by the students as the faculty.

Teaching is essential for the future quality of urban life according to Adamany (1994). The urban campus prepares the students for participating in the economy, politics, and society of the city. Adamany uses Wayne State University to illustrate the impact of his words. Wayne State has 172,000 alumni, 112,000 of them still in the Detroit metropolitan area. They are a burgeoning resource in politics, society, and industry. In Detroit, over 75% of the pharmacists, 45% of the physicians, and 35% of the attorneys are Wayne State graduates.

Some of these alumni and others in the professions will eventually return to the urban campus as part-time faculty or clinical faculty or
adjunct faculty. Their experiences provide an avenue for students to receive practical application of classroom theories. One way for faculty developers to enhance the teaching ability of these potential part-time faculty is to provide them with an understanding and appreciation for the distinction between training and education (Drops, 1993). The part-timer arriving on campus needs to see the difference between in-service training as education in the work place and academic training which occurs in the college classroom.

The professional and instructional development experiences offered by faculty developers helps enhance the quality of teaching. The POD workshop participants identified issues that concern the urban faculty developer. These include each aspect of the four primary areas of campus, mission, students, and faculty, but go beyond them to encompass specifics such as transitional students and faculty, retention among faculty as well as students plus respect for students by faculty. Other concerns among faculty were low morale, lack of community, and a need for a safe environment. As indicated, faculty developers see the broader impact of the campus on the community rather than the individual departmental commitments.

Based upon the workshop discussion, participants concluded that faculty developers on the urban campus need administrative support as well as a faculty developer support group. The campus as well as professional support will enhance the faculty developer’s ability to provide a list of needed programs for the urban campus faculty. The programs would go beyond the typical consultation or teaching supports. The ideal program would include some of the following components.

1. Offering new faculty orientation - informing faculty about the students, campus, and its mission; teaching; and their new community and city;
2. Implementing university-life course - informing faculty about teaching on an urban campus plus aspects of safety, travel, culture, and outreach activities;
3. Making teaching public - changing faculty perspectives about teaching from claiming ourselves as teachers to purveyors of information;
4. Linking research, teaching, and service - showing faculty relationships between research and teaching in and out of the classroom;
5. Linking the city and the institution - providing bridges between faculty and industry and the local schools or services in the community;
6. Linking across the campus - providing forums or activities in which faculty can meet and share similar or related interests with faculty from other units plus gaining an opportunity to meet one another;
7. Developing programs - helping create relationships between teaching, research, and outreach community service programs;
8. Valuing promotion and tenure of teaching faculty - helping create an atmosphere where teaching is shown as a quality venture;
9. Valuing risk taking - supporting faculty on the cutting edge of curriculum and faculty development;
10. Knowing students - helping faculty see, understand, and appreciate their students, and how this understanding affects their teaching.
11. Valuing part-time faculty - communicating consistently to all that part-time faculty are important to the institution.
12. Including part-time faculty - providing opportunities for part-time faculty to join others in faculty development programs and activities.

In summary, in the urban setting, the role of faculty development has expanded beyond teaching to provide assistance for those who teach beyond the traditional classroom setting. This means addressing teaching in a very broad arena. For the faculty developer to address these complex teaching issues places additional strain and stress on limited staff with small budgets. The issue also means the faculty developer needs to gain more knowledge, support and collaboration among urban colleagues.

References


