CHAPTER ONE

Claiming Your Education

BECOMING PART OF A SCHOLARLY COMMUNITY

A lot has been going on at your college or university before your arrival on campus. Students have been working on case studies, conducting chemistry experiments, composing book-length master's theses, and having discussions about Foucault over coffee. Residence hall directors have developed a growing understanding of the needs of students, and food services has worked on providing a diverse and healthy menu for students. The director of the library has been continually updating the library's print and online offerings, and the information technology department has worked to ensure that classroom labs are equipped with the latest technology. Students from across the country and all over the globe have traveled the same sidewalks and traversed the same corridors you now do.

So how will you react to this bustling campus and its ongoing conversations? This textbook will encourage you to be an active participant in this dialogue; you've walked into an enormous room full of people talking—listen for a while if you would like, but don't forget to offer your own contributions. Rhetorician Kenneth Burke's (1973) explanation of this concept has been referred to as the Burkean parlor:

> Imagine that you enter a parlor. You come late. When you arrive, others have long preceded you, and they are engaged in a heated discussion, a discussion too heated for them to pause and tell you exactly what it is about. In fact, the discussion had already begun long before any of them got there, so that no one present is qualified to retrace for you all the steps that had gone before. You listen for a while, until you decide that you have caught the tenor of the argument; then you put in your oar. Someone answers; you answer him; another comes to your defense; another aligns himself against you, to either the embarrassment or gratification of your opponent, depending upon the quality of your ally's assistance. However, the discussion is interminable. The hour grows late; you must depart. And you do depart, with the discussion still vigorously in progress. (pp. 110–111)

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Do you possess intellectual curiosity?
- What do your professors expect of you?
- What are your responsibilities as a member of the campus community?
- What role do you play in the learning process?
- How does working with others result in scholarship?
- What is meant by academic honesty, plagiarism, and intellectual property?

Make it Personal

How will you react to your bustling campus and its ongoing conversations?

In this *Foundations for Learning* textbook, you will enter into an ongoing discussion regarding the factors that lead to college success. You will hear what experts in the field have to say regarding the philosophies and techniques addressed; in effect, you will be provided with a rationale for the advice offered. These research findings stretch back over 30 years in some cases, and it is important to consider the history regarding these concepts to apply them to current situations—your college education, say—in an educated way.

As a college or university student, then, you have the opportunity to join a **scholarly community**, a group of people working toward intellectual pursuits, but your membership is not guaranteed. You must work toward familiarizing yourself with the guiding principles of that community and aspire toward them if you are to be considered a peer in this environment.

You may be asking yourself, "Besides fellow classmates, who are my peers in this environment?" The answer may surprise you. Professors are experts in their respective fields—or scholarly communities—who are helping students gain access to, and membership in, these same communities. In the context of the classroom, for example, students are expected to engage in scholarly discussions with their professors, raise questions, and, at times, even challenge them.

Student Portrait

Kay: "I can't really talk to my professors. It's because they're kind of evaluating you and so like you go on a more personal basis with them. I don't feel very comfortable about it. My science teacher right now, I don't feel too comfortable around him 'cause I'm not doing too great in his class. It's like they're up there, and you're all the way down here. That's how it is to me."

For a moment, think about your professors' perspectives. From their vantage point, you have made a life-altering decision to attend college. As an adult, in control of your own destiny, you have chosen to enter into a scholarly community and work toward earning membership. This process is very different from attending high school, which is a compulsory endeavor. The assumption here is that college is a carefully arrived at, well-thought-out choice. You *want* to be in college. You are excited about, and interested in, many, if not most, of the topics presented to you, and you are highly motivated to master new bodies of knowledge.

You'll make many more choices now that you are attending college. You will also, for example, need to decide which courses you'd like to take, and the professor and student contract is one way you demonstrate your willingness to engage with the material in each of these courses.

The Professor and Student Contract

Teaching and learning are enhanced when teachers and learners have shared expectations regarding course outcomes. For this reason, college professors construct a **syllabus**, a document outlining the desired course outcomes and other relevant information for each course they teach. Syllabi are usually shared with students during the first week of class, if not the first day or earlier.

Each syllabus you are given will help you understand important information about the course and your professor: what goals you are expected to strive toward, what will be expected of you, how your work will be assessed, and perhaps even what a typical class meeting might involve.

It would be beneficial, then, to consider these syllabi carefully, understanding that your acceptance of their terms—even if this is conveyed through silent approval—is a prerequisite for being a student in that class. If you have questions about what you should expect after reading the syllabus, ask your professor. Conscious acceptance of, and continued adherence to, your course contract is part of being a responsible member of a scholarly community.

Conscious acceptance of, and continued adherence to, your course contract is part of being a responsible member of a scholarly community.

Keep your syllabi handy throughout the semester. These documents often include a listing of topics, assignments, and other information you'll need to be prepared for future class meetings. Your professor may very well include a list of all of your assignments on the course syllabus and not mention them again until they are collected for grading. This information can be quite useful when you are planning your schedule in an attempt to manage your time effectively and efficiently. We'll talk more about this in Chapter 3 when we discuss time management.

The key is to remember that the syllabus is an essential component of being a responsible member of a scholarly community. **Responsibility** literally means your response-ability, that is, your ability to choose a response. Ultimately, how you choose to respond to the requirements of your syllabi, for instance, will dictate your academic experience. Will you embrace all of the suggested assignments and complete them to the best of your ability or will you respond by skipping books on your supplemental reading list? As you will soon learn, the level at which you adhere to your syllabus has implications for how much you will learn each semester.

One last bit of advice regarding course syllabi: Many times your syllabi will include guiding questions to focus your attention on certain topics or themes in a course. Pay close attention to such questions because it would not be unusual to see them again in some form on a test or exam. The process of using the syllabus to predict test and exam questions is covered in more detail in Chapter 6. For now, know it will be primarily up to you to determine, based on the delivery of course material, what questions will appear on a test or exam. To do so with reliability, you must be actively engaged with your professors in **intellectual discourse,** in other words, able to have a rational discussion about a particular subject with interested others. This type of conversation will necessitate asking questions and searching for answers, which will ultimately lead to more questions. As in the Burkean parlor, the idea is that the conversation does not end when you leave the (class)room. To experience such discourse, though, requires teachers and learners alike to possess the trait of intellectual curiosity.

INTELLECTUAL CURIOSITY

You may need to reflect on previous experiences to determine if you possess intellectual curiosity. Peggy Maki (2002), an expert in higher education assessment, defines **intellectual curiosity** as "the characteristic ability to question, challenge, look at an issue from multiple perspectives, seek more information

Make It Personal

If I come across something I don't know or don't understand, what do I normally do?

before rushing to judgment, raise questions, deliberate, and craft well-reasoned arguments" (p. 6). You may use what you have read so far in this chapter to help you determine if you do, in fact, possess a high degree of intellectual curiosity.

Start out by asking yourself, "If I come across something I don't know or don't understand, what do I normally do? Do I skip the concept and hope the professor will deliver the answer in the next class?" For instance, in the first paragraph of this chapter, when you encountered the last name of an individual, Foucault, did you attempt to investigate who this person was if you did not already know? If you did, you may have discovered that he was a French philosopher and social critic who himself possessed intellectual curiosity. As he reflects on why he was attracted to a scholarly environment, he muses,

> We did not know when I was ten or eleven years old, whether we would become German or remain French. We would not know whether we would die or not in the bombing, and so on. When I was sixteen or seventeen I knew only one thing: school life was an environment protected from exterior menaces, politics. And I have always been fascinated by living in a protected scholarly environment, in an intellectual milieu. Knowledge is for me that which must function as a protection of individual existence and as a comprehension of the exterior world. I think that's it. Knowledge as a means of surviving by understanding. (qtd. in Foss, Foss, & Trapp 1991, p. 210)

If you possess intellectual curiosity, you might read these statements and, if it's not immediately apparent, assume the reference in the first few sentences is to World War II. If you were not sure, you might investigate further. You might read this passage and wonder what it would be like for a 10- or 11-year-old to face his or her mortality; question Foucault's perspective that school life is protected from exterior menaces, and perhaps disagree with this assertion; consider what knowledge means to Foucault, and thereby reflect on your own definition of knowledge; or wonder what he means when he says that knowledge is a means of "surviving by understanding."

Indeed, an intellectually curious individual collects and processes information in an elaborate, sophisticated manner. This manner of thinking is a habit, a disposition; the intellectually curious individual is in a routine of thinking deeply. You may be concerned that, when you read Foucault's passage, you did not "wonder" to the extent that was described. Perhaps you did not wonder at all. You may be feeling anxious that you do not possess a disposition toward intellectual curiosity, and, without this, cannot earn membership into a scholarly community.

Fortunately, like training your body to run a marathon, you can train your mind toward the disposition of intellectual curiosity. To do so requires a particular mindset; it requires you to be *active*. You need to begin by analyzing ways in which you learn, and start thinking about how you are going to approach the endeavor of joining a scholarly community.

ACTIVE VERSUS PASSIVE LEARNING

The distinction that will be made here between activity and passivity does not have to do with physical behaviors but with psychological mindsets. One of these mindsets is that of the **passive learner.** Individuals consciously or unconsciously subscribing to this philosophy expect faculty to teach them what they need to know (and *only* what they need to know). They want the library to have the journal article or book they need when they need it, and they wouldn't consider reading an essay or book that was not required reading in one of their classes. They glance through assigned material with minimal investment, expecting that the professor will offer a clear and concise summary and analysis of the reading. They may even expect the professor to tell them exactly what questions will appear on an upcoming test. After all, goes the thinking, why are they paying all of that money for tuition, anyway?

A philosophy more beneficial to college students is that of the **active learner.** Active learners believe students are not at college to be acted on and led through a series of disjointed activities toward some fuzzy end indicated by the receipt of a diploma. Active learning is about students becoming agents in their own educational process. After all, who has a greater stake in this process than the student learner?

Active learning is about students becoming agents in their own educational process.

Active learning involves doing many of the activities suggested in this textbook. Take reading, for example, or, more precisely, *active* reading. Instead of passively highlighting most of a chapter with only a moderate level of comprehension, active readers engage more directly with the text. Some active readers perform text annotation, a technique we discuss in Chapter 4, whereby the student's reaction to what is read is noted in the margins of the text itself. In this manner, questions can be asked—questions to which the student sincerely seeks answers. These questions could be brought up in class or during faculty office hours.

The ardent active learner likely wouldn't wait until class to seek out answers, however. The active learner's intellectual curiosity would encourage her to search for an answer to that question: in the index of the text in question, in other works that author has written, in works by other authors on that same subject. The goal of an active learner is to come to a better understanding, the consequence of which is asking more questions and searching for more answers.

Similarly, active listening requires you to consider carefully what a speaker has to say. An active listener identifies a speaker's main idea as well as the rationale used to support that idea. Equally important is what may be lacking from the speaker's rationale. Rest assured, for example, that members of Congress, particularly those aligned with the opposing political party, listen actively to the president's State of the Union Address. They are interested in the president's focus: What topics have been emphasized, and which have been deemphasized or avoided entirely? They are interested in the reasoning and evidence employed by the president. Often times the State of the Union Address is followed by criticism made by members of the opposing party, criticism resulting from active listening. Active listening, then, as does active reading, leads to questions.

Make It Personal

How might automatic thinking affect you as a first-year student?

Even the most active of learners, at times, get stuck in their quest for answers. They may, at these moments, resist thinking about a problem in different ways, a concept that two psychologists, Friedman and Lipshitz (1992), termed "automatic thinking." Automatic thinking is efficient when dealing with routine activities and situations like getting dressed. Yet, as Friedman and Lipshitz note, the advantage of automatic thinking can become a disadvantage when in the face of change or uncertainty. They argue that automatic thinking leads people to rely on what they already know; it contributes to a tendency to ignore critical information and rely on standard behavior repertoires when change is required. That is, people will continue to do what they feel most comfortable doing even if it isn't working for them. They resist change.

Accepting the assertion that automatic thinking can be a disadvantage when in the face of change or uncertainty, how might automatic thinking affect you as a first-year student? One of the major changes you will confront as a first-year student is uncertainty in approaching studying for your college courses. You will likely find out that the study skills you utilized in high school will not produce the same results when you apply them to college-level courses. Practitioners who help first-year students develop college-level study habits report that, indeed, students tend to cling to their old, comfortable habits even if these habits don't produce the results for which the students had hoped.

Consider the first-year student, Colleen, who completed high school with a B+ average. For her first major college exam, Colleen does what she did in high school: She waits until the night before to study. She begins diligently to prepare index cards, recording an important definition on each card. She finds that with the large volume of information she needs to know, it is taking her a lot longer to make index cards than it ever did before. "That's okay," she says to herself, "I'm in college now; this *should* take a little longer." After four hours of making index cards, it is well past midnight. Poor Colleen has run out of time and is too exhausted to review the cards she has made. She's a little nervous, but reasons that she has spent twice as much time studying than she had ever done before, so she should be ready. She takes the exam. It's much more difficult than she expected, and she is confused by some of the questions. She earns a C on her first college-level exam.

This mediocre grade is a bit of a blow to her ego. After all, in her estimation, she is not a C student; she's at least a B student. In her view, this grade is a failure. She reflects on the experience in earnest and grants that she did run out of time making her index cards and did not have enough time to review. The next test comes along three weeks later and she sets about making her index cards well in advance, this time leaving ample time for review. At the end of her grueling eight-hour study session, she has each and every index card memorized backward and forward. She is ready for the test! In fact, she's energized and excited; she feels in total control of the material. Never has she been so dedicated to her studies. This amount of effort should surely yield an A. Once again, though, her exam is returned with a grade of 76 marked clearly at the top.

How could this happen? She worked so hard. She put in what she considered an inordinate amount of effort. For Colleen, studying for eight hours was unprece-

dented. This time, she feels angry, frustrated, and helpless. She did exactly what she was supposed to do! In her automatic thinking mode, she never considered that the grade might have resulted from *how* she was studying. Although she adjusted the length of time spent studying, her two approaches were nearly identical. With automatic thinking, people tend to see only what they know and ignore critical information. When it comes to change, they gravitate toward their comfort zone. Colleen never considered that making index cards or relying on memorization as a learning skill wasn't working. She automatically assumed that her personal failure resulted from the *time* she spent studying.

The negative consequences of automatic thinking can contribute to failure. Active thinking, argue Friedman and Lipshitz (1992), "enables people to see situations differently and to experiment with novel responses. It also enables them to become aware of how they select, interpret, and act on information about themselves and the contexts in which they act" (p. 119). Someone once said that the definition of insanity is doing the same thing over and over again and expecting different results. Becoming an active learner requires a student to experiment with new ways of learning, particularly if their old ways aren't yielding the desired results.

Changing requires a certain amount of risk taking. Changing from automatic thinking to active thinking is not easy; it requires students to take full responsibility for their own learning. That is not to say a student will have to attempt to **switch cognitive gears**, or go from one mode of thought to another, alone (Louis & Sutton, 1991, p. 119). On a college campus, there are many people who can help.

The faculty and staff of institutions of higher education want students to be successful. For this reason, they establish mechanisms by which students can bolster their understanding of course material outside of the classroom. Some of these mechanisms are faculty office hours, tutoring and writing centers, counseling centers, and language labs, all integral parts of the scholarly community. The prevailing thought on a college campus is that learning occurs both inside and outside of the classroom. To get the most out of your college experience, the expectation is that all students will engage in extensive out-of-classroom learning.

You may be required to utilize and/or familiarize yourself with some of these academic programs and services. More than likely, however, you will have quite a bit of choice as to when, how frequently, and for what purposes you do so. If, for example, your economics professor requires students to visit the tutoring center "periodically" during the course of the semester, it is up for students to decide what "periodically" will mean for them. Periodically could mean visiting the center to check your comprehension of material the day before each exam. For others, periodically might mean a weekly appointment. Some students will elect to work with a tutor after they've studied to make sure they are prepared for a test. Others will want to review class materials weekly to prevent the possibility of getting "lost." Although the choice is up to you, it is strongly suggested that you consciously consider the way(s) you plan on using each service—in other words, to take response-ability, to be an active learner, and to claim these services as part of your education—and that you realize that the way you use a resource will affect what you get out of the experience.

Many times students' attitudes prevent them from seeking help. Some students who end up in academic difficulty at the end of the semester confess they were just too proud or embarrassed to ask for help. For some, the inability to ask for help may result in poor grades. In a scholarly community, the expectation is that you will be an active learner, that you will search for clarification using all available resources. If you use the study techniques suggested in *Foundations for Learning* and talk with your professor during office hours, you are doing some of the right things. You should also use tutoring services offered at your institution. Tutoring isn't a quick fix; it involves an ongoing relationship with a fellow student, a student with whom you can have productive dialogues regarding course materials. Tutors can help confirm what you *do* understand as well as help you gain a better understanding of what you *don't*.

COLLABORATION

What better way to join a scholarly community than by working with one or more individuals toward a common goal? You will be afforded many such opportunities, so resist any urge you may feel to play it safe, stay in your automatic mode of thinking, and make the collaborative effort an individual effort. In other words, don't try to complete a collaborative assignment or task by yourself. You will learn far more if you are forced to consider the opinions of others, assign tasks, track progress, and develop interpersonal communication skills in the process. If collaboration is successful, the work of a group surpasses what would have been possible through the work of a single individual. Andrea Lunsford (2002) admonishes students to debate with group members: "Expect disagreement, and remember that the goal is not for everyone just to 'go along.' The challenge is to get a really spirited debate going and to argue through all possibilities" (p. 34).

What types of collaborative activities might you participate in, you ask? These might involve in-class group work, study groups, group presentations, debates, and group papers/projects, to name a few of the more common activities. These situations are unique in their own way; just think about how long you have to get the group dynamic sorted out for in-class group work as opposed to a semester-long group project. Several of these situations are discussed in the chapters that follow.

Through collaboration, you'll learn when and how to make concessions to arrive at a final product that is truly the work of an entire group.

Although many students dread collaboration, what they tend to call "group work," you will likely learn much about yourself and others from these experiences. You'll be learning to synthesize ideas—those of your own and those of other individuals both in and outside your group. Through collaboration, you'll learn when and how to make concessions to arrive at a final product that is truly the work of an entire group. Eugene Raudsepp (1984) neatly sums up the benefits of collaboration:

> Effective teamwork encourages each member to contribute his knowledge to the overall effort. . . . This combination of experience and trading of ideas enables them to learn from each other. It stimulates them to learn more, and to consider a greater variety of variables when solving problems. It brings out most of their latent

> abilities and provides an atmosphere for continuous growth and development. . . . Cooperative action by each of them contributes to a total effect that is greater than the sum of their independent contributions. (qtd. in Beckman, 1990, p. 129)

DOING RESEARCH

A discussion about scholarly communities would not be complete without mentioning **research**. Scholars investigate what others have said and/or written about topics in which they are interested. They use libraries and the Internet to perform some of this investigation. They also use the references in the works they find to lead to other useful sources. In addition to these solitary activities, scholars also talk to peers, other scholars in their field—at meetings, conferences, on the phone, and in person. In these ways, scholars stay up to date regarding their particular interests, whether those include molecular biology or still photography.

The research that is accessed has to first be conducted. In other words, the study referenced in Joe's master's thesis initially had to be performed. This aspect of research is another important contribution of scholars, namely adding to the body of knowledge in their particular field. Through new research, scholars hope to say something that hasn't (quite) been said, make connections across/through ideas, and/or offer an analysis of previous research that helps others view the research in new ways.

How do you fit in to all of this? Well, as a scholar-in-the-making, you will be engaging in both of the activities just mentioned. You'll be familiarizing yourself with the body of knowledge in a number of disciplines, and you'll also be making your own contributions to the ongoing conversation. If this seems like an impossible goal, consider that these contributions will likely be small at first, but that all contributions potentially move the discussion forward.

PLAGIARISM AND INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY

One topic that professors often bring up when talking to students about an upcoming research project is plagiarism. Have you ever had the experience of someone taking credit for your idea? This act is referred to as **plagiarism**, presenting someone else's ideas as if they were your own. Of course, presenting someone else's ideas is not, in and of itself, plagiarism. If it were, scholars would be working in isolation, not benefiting from each other's work. Researchers and scholars commonly refer to each other's ideas, giving attribution to the sources of those ideas—whether those ideas were discovered through an interview, newspaper article, book, Listserv discussion, or website. Attribution is the key to avoiding plagiarism.

Attribution is the key to avoiding plagiarism.

Some institutions subscribe to a service such as Turnitin.com, a site that serves as a clearinghouse for student essays. Professors may request that you submit your essay electronically to this site. Turnitin.com then checks the paper to determine whether the work is original—or whether there is a case of plagiarism.

Whether your paper will undergo electronic scrutiny or that of your professors, you want to be sure you have credited others for their ideas. Your college or university

likely has clearly outlined some rather strict consequences for committing plagiarism in your student handbook. Why is plagiarism considered such a serious offense? The primary reason is likely that producing scholarship—conducting research and publishing findings, say—is hard work that often takes years, and, many times, the efforts of multiple individuals. The result of this labor is called **intellectual property.** This property is unique in some way: It contains some new concept or data set, or perhaps argues against a previously established correlation. At any rate, it is important that those integrating this intellectual property into their own research acknowledge the efforts of the authors. We talk more about plagiarism and the ethics of research in Chapter 5.

CLAIMING AN EDUCATION

Think back to the concept of responsibility defined earlier in this chapter: the ability to choose a response. You possess the power of choice. You have the ability to choose how you will respond to the new environment of higher education and the opportunities offered at your institution. The *Foundations for Learning* text urges you to take responsibility for your educational choices and be an active participant in the experience. The foundation for optimal learning experiences at the college level rests in your ability to recognize your role and responsibility as a student. The person who has perhaps encapsulated this idea best is Adrienne Rich, a famous poet.

In a convocation speech given in 1977, she implores students to actively claim their education. She explains,

> The first thing I want to say to you who are students, is that you cannot afford to think of being here to *receive* an education: you will do much better to think of being here to *claim* one. One of the dictionary definitions of the verb "to claim" is: *to take as the rightful owner; to assert in the face of possible contradiction*. "To receive" is *to come into possession of: to act as receptacle or container for; to accept as authoritative or true*. The difference is that between acting and being acted upon.

Notice the distinction between "acting" and "being acted upon." What Rich is emphasizing here is that you have the choice to act on the new environment of your institution or you can allow your first year to unfold, merely go with the flow, and simply let your college education happen to you.

Psychologists like Albert Bandura and Walter Mischel make similar distinctions. Bandura coined the term **reciprocal determinism,** which identifies the notion that there is a relationship between the person and the environment. Students can certainly be influenced by the new situations they'll find in college, but they can also choose how to behave (Pervin & John, 1997). Mischel (1976) elaborates on the concept of reciprocal determinism in action:

> The image is one of the human being as an active, aware, problem solver, capable of profiting from an enormous range of experiences and cognitive capacities, possessing great potential for good or ill, actively constructing his or her psychological world, and influencing the environment, but also being influenced by it in lawful ways. (qtd. in Pervin & John, 1997, p. 404)

If you choose to take sole responsibility for your education and "claim" it, that is, take it as opposed to receive it, the way in which Rich suggests, you will have the capability of profiting from the great range of experiences that await you.

The argument here is that how you interact with this new environment is entirely up to you. It is ultimately your responsibility. You may be wondering what responsibility means relative to learning, and perhaps even living, at your institution. Rich's convocation speech clearly outlines for students what responsibility means in terms of higher education. What follows are just a few of the ways she describes the concept of responsibility. According to Rich, responsibility means:

- "Refusing to let others do your thinking, talking, and naming for you"
- "Learning to respect and use your own brains and instincts; hence, grappling with hard work"
- "Insisting that those to whom you give your friendship and love are able to respect your mind"
- Not "falling for shallow, easy solutions"
- "Insisting on a life of meaningful work"
- Having "the courage to be different"
- "Expecting your faculty to take you seriously"
- "Refusing to sell your talents and aspirations short"

Rich's definition of responsibility acts as great advice for how you might think about conducting yourself during your first year. Which pieces of advice can you see yourself putting into action? Consider the first bit of advice, "refusing to let others do your thinking, talking, and naming for you." You might think, "Well, that depends on who the *others* are." The answer is whomever you have well-established relationships with or whomever you decide to enter into relationships with in the future. According to reciprocal determinism, not only will your relationships influence you, but you will also shape others. How relationships influence your academic endeavors is more closely explored in Chapter 2.

In this chapter, we have looked at various ways you can claim your education, both in and out of the classroom, academically and socially. Our hope is that you will stake a more assertive claim and that you continue to evaluate the extent to which you are driving your educational process.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Are you currently a primarily active learner or passive learner? What leads you to draw this conclusion about yourself?
2. What specific actions can you take to gain membership into a scholarly community? What does it mean to be an active participant in one's education?
3. What is the relationship between campus resources and active learning?
4. You've likely received a number of course syllabi fairly recently. What do these documents have in common? Of what importance will these documents be in the remaining weeks of the semester?

5. Did your expectations regarding one or more of your classes change after having read the syllabus? How so/not?
6. Describe the ways in which you have demonstrated intellectual curiosity in the last week or so. Are you satisfied with the extent to which you have done so?
7. When have you engaged in automatic thinking? Why did you do so? What were the consequences?
8. Describe your previous collaborative experiences. Did you find them beneficial? What did you learn? What challenges do you face? Would you do anything differently the next time you collaborate?
9. What specific steps are you taking to claim your education?
10. Define what responsibility means to you. To what extent does Rich's definition of responsibility reflect your own?

ACTIVITIES

1.1 Identify a term or concept you heard or read about this week, and use this entry to ask questions to which you seek answers. Ask classmates, professors, staff members, friends, and/or family what they know about the term or concept. Perform a search on the Internet. Search the library's databases. Log your search—as well as your findings—in a journal entry or essay.

1.2 After completing the first assignment in one of your classes, visit the office hours of your professor. To demonstrate your intellectual curiosity, engage in a conversation about a question you had while completing the reading, what you'd like to accomplish through taking this class, or your professor's current research interests.

1.3 Use the services of one of the many campus resources available at your institution (e. g., the campus library or tutoring center). Write a journal entry or short essay about your experience utilizing that resource. What did you expect before you arrived? How did the actual visit correspond to your expectations? Were you satisfied with the outcome? How so/not?

1.4 Over the course of the next week or so, compile a list of terms with which you are not familiar. These terms may come from readings, lectures, class discussion, or TV, for that matter. Now that you have a list, seek out explanations/definitions for these words or phrases. What does this exercise tell you about your education? Are you intellectually curious?

1.5 This activity requires you to research first-year experience (FYE) courses at other institutions. Create a thesis (e. g., "FYE courses have grown in number exponentially in the last 10 years." Or, "most FYE courses focus on the same thing, namely, helping students develop college-level study skills.") and support your findings with evidence from three sources.

1.6 Examine the policies in place for committing plagiarism at your institution, information that can likely be found in your student handbook. How is plagiarism defined? What are the consequences of such an act? Are you satisfied with the explanation(s) offered?

1.7 Generate a list of your expectations of your professors prior to attending your first classes. Now compare these expectations to your observations after attending classes. What strikes you about this comparison?

1.8 Attend a campus organizational fair. What clubs and/or organizations would you be interested in joining? What would be your motivation for doing so? How would getting involved in this way possibly help you in ways you may not have thought of?

1.9 Rich's definition of responsibility acts as great advice for how you might think about conducting yourself during your first year. Take each of the eight pieces of advice and describe at least one example of how you might put the advice into action.

REFERENCES

Beckman, M. (1990). Collaborative learning. *College Teaching*, *38*(4), 128–133.

Burke, K. (1973). *The philosophy of literary form* (3rd ed.). Berkeley: University of California Press.

Foss, S., Foss, K., & Trapp, R. (1991). *Contemporary perspectives on rhetoric* (2nd ed.). Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland Press.

Friedman, V. J., & Lipshitz, R. (1992). Teaching people to shift cognitive gears: Overcoming resistance on the road to model II. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Research*, *28*(1), 118–136.

Louis, M. R., & Sutton, R. I. (1991). Switching cognitive gears: From habits of mind to active thinking. *Human Relations, 44*(1), 55–76.

Lunsford, A. (2002). *The everyday writer* (2nd ed.). Boston: St. Martin's Press.

Maki, P. (2002). Moving from paperwork to pedagogy: Channeling intellectual curiosity into a commitment to assessment [Electronic version]. *American Association for Higher Education Bulletin*, *54*(9), 3–5.

Mischel, W. (1976). *Introduction to personality* (2nd ed.). Austin, TX: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Pervin, L. A., & John, O. P. (1997). *Personality theory and research* (7th ed.). New York: Wiley.

Raudsepp, E. (1984). Effective teamwork. *Manage, 35,* 18–22.

Rich, A. (1977). Claiming an education. Speech delivered to the students of Douglass College, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, NJ.

Additional Readings for Students

Academic Honesty/Plagiarism

Ashworth, P., & Bannister, P. (1997). Guilty in whose eyes?: University students' perceptions of cheating and plagiarism in academic work and assessment. *Studies in Higher Education*, 22(2), 187–204.

Gillian, S. (2002, July 15). It's a bird, it's a plane, it's plagiarism buster! *Newsweek,* p. 12.

McCabe, D. L., & Drinan, P. (1999). Toward a culture of academic integrity. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, *46*(8), B7.

McCabe, D. L., & Trevino, L. K. (2002). Honesty and honor codes. *Academe, 88*(1), 37–42.

Online tool helps universities, colleges fight plagiarism. (2003, January). *College Week, 15*(12), 18.

Roig, M. (1997). Can undergraduate students determine whether text has been plagiarized? *Psychological Record, 47*(1), 113–123.

Smith, J. N., Nolan, R. F., & Dai, Y. (1998). Faculty perception of student academic honesty. *College Student Journal, 32*(2), 305–311.

Stebelman, S. (1998). Cybercheating: Dishonesty goes digital. *American Libraries*, 48–50.

Additional Readings for Faculty

Academic Honesty/Plagiarism

Howard, R. M. (2002, January). Don't police plagiarism: Just teach! Available from www.eddigest.com.

Roig, M. (2001). Plagiarism and paraphrasing criteria of college and university professors. *Ethics & Behavior*, *11*(3), 307–323.

Academic Expectations

Center for Educational Policy Research. (2003). *Understanding university success: A project of the Association of American Universities and the Pew Charitable Trusts*. Eugene, OR: Author.

Active/Passive Learning

Rubin, L., & Hebert, C. (1998). Model for active learning. *College Teaching*, *46*(1), 26–31.

First-Year Success Courses

Gottfredson, D. C., Marciniak, E. M., Birdseye, A. T., & Gottfredson, G. D. (1995). Increasing teacher expectations for student achievement. *Journal of Educational Research*, *68*(3), 155–163.

Jalongo, M. R., Twiest, M. T., & Gerlach, G. J. (1996). *The college learner*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Perry, R. P., & Penner, K. S. (1990). Enhancing academic achievement in college students through attributional retraining and instruction. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 82*(2), 262–271.

Reynolds, J., & Werner, S. C. (1994). An alternative paradigm for college reading and study skills courses. *Journal of Reading, 37*(4), 272–277.

Simmers-Wolpow, R., Farrell, D. P., & Tonjes, M. J. (1991). Implementing a secondary reading/study skills program across disciplines. *Journal of Reading, 34*(8), 590–594.

Wratcher, M. A. (1991). Freshman academic adjustment at a competitive university. *College Student Journal, 25*(2) 170–177.