

Retreat on Core Competencies: Quantitative Reasoning and Assessment in Majors

October 2-3, 2014

Kellogg West Conference Center, Pomona, CA

Resource Binder



2014-2015

WASC Senior College and University Commission is pleased to announce its educational programs for 2014-15. They cover topics of vital interest to all institutions but particularly to those in the WSCUC region. They have been developed by national and regional experts and are offered as a service to member institutions and others who wish to learn about good practices applicable to all institutions. They are entirely optional, but our hope is that member institutions will find them helpful. WSCUC staff will be present to answer questions related specifically to accreditation expectations.

- Assessment 101: The Assessment Cycle, Clear and Simple October 1, 2014. Kellogg West, Pomona, CA November 12, 2014. Kellogg West, Pomona, CA May 18, 2015. Chaminade University, Honolulu, HI
- Retreat on Core Competencies: Quantitative Reasoning and Assessment in Majors October 2-3, 2014. Kellogg West, Pomona, CA
- Retreat on Core Competencies: Critical Thinking and Information Literacy October 16-17, 2014. Hilton Oakland Airport, Oakland, CA
- Retreat on Core Competencies: Written and Oral Communications November 13-14, 2014. Kellogg West, Pomona, CA
- President/Trustee Retreats December 4, 2014. San José State University, San José, CA December 5, 2014. Woodbury University, Burbank, CA
- Workshop on the Meaning, Quality, and Integrity of Degrees January 30, 2015. Woodbury University, Burbank, CA
- Assessment 201: Advanced Topics in Assessment February 6, 2015. Mills College, Oakland, CA
- The Big Five: Addressing Core Competencies May 19-20, 2015. Chaminade University, Honolulu, Hawai'i

For more information on these programs, visit <u>www.wascsenior.org/seminars</u>. For specific questions, contact Julie Kotovsky, Educational Events Manager, at jkotovsky@wascsenior.org

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Table of Contents

Agenda/Schedule				
Hotel Floor Plans				
Mentor Biographies				
Attendee Directory				
Introductory Essays on Quantitative Reasoning and Assessment in Majors				
Quantitative Reasoning: The Final Frontier of Core Competencies [S. Elrod]	13			
> Developing a Campus Culture that Embraces Assessment of Learning in Majors [J. Lindholm]	24			
Plenary: Look, It's Math, It's Statistics, It's History and Psychology! It's Quantitative Reasoning! [S. Elrod]	32			
Breakout 1. Developing and Evaluating QR Courses [B. Madison]	41			
Breakout 2. QR across the Curriculum: From Creating Assignments to Measuring Outcomes [E. Gaze]	83			
Breakout 3. Why ePortfolios? Why Now? Documenting Learning with ePortfolios [H.Chen]	117			
Plenary: Developing a Campus Culture that Embraces Outcomes Assessment [J. Lindholm]	132			
Breakout 4. Student Learning Assessment and Academic Program Review [J. Lindholm]	140			
Breakout 5. Designing a Mature Quantitative Reasoning Assessment Plan for the Major [D. Sundre]	146			
Breakout 6. A Framework for Leading Campus-Wide Change Initiatives [S. Elrod]	162			
Breakout 7. Expectations for Student Performance at Graduation: What, Why, and How [H. Chen, M. Maloney]	184			
Additional Resources	199			
Association of American Colleges & Universities (AAC&U) VALUE Rubrics	200			
Critical Thinking	201			
Problem Solving	203			
Inquiry and Analysis	205			
Quantitative Literacy	207			
WASC Rubrics	209			
List of Selected Readings				
Assessment Leadership Academy 2014-2015				
LiveText – We'll take that climb with you!				
2014 WASC Academic Resource Conference – SAVE THE DATE				



Retreat on Core Competencies: Quantitative Reasoning and Assessment in Majors SCHEDULE

Thursday, October 2, 2014

1

8:00 – 9:00 am	Arrival, check-in, registration Registration Desk				
9:00 - 9:15	Welcome [M. Maloney] Mountain Vista				
9:15 - 10:00	What Do You Need? How Will You Get It? Team Strategy Session [M. Maloney] Mountain Vista				
10:00 - 10:15	Snack break Exhibit Lounge				
10:15 – 11:15	Plenary: Look, It's Math, It's Statistics, It's History and Psychology! It's Quantitative Reasoning! [S. Elrod] Mountain Vista				
11:15 – 11:30 Introduction of mentors [M. Maloney, J. Lindholm, S. Elrod] Mountain Vista					
	Jennifer Lindholm Mountain Vista	Susan Elrod Auditorium			
	Helen Chen Mountain Vista	Bernie Madison Auditorium			
		Eric Gaze Campus Vista			
		Donna Sundre Poly Vista			
	Maureen Maloney Exhibit Lounge				
11:45 – 12:15	Meet in mentor groups to schedule appointments Designated rooms & areas				
12:30 - 1:15	Lunch in teams Dining Room				
1:30 - 2:30	Breakouts				
1. Deve	eloping and Evaluating QR Courses [B. Mac	dison] <i>Mountain Vista</i>			
2. QR :	across the Curriculum: From Creating Assi	gnments to Measuring Outcomes [E. Gaze] Campus Vista			
3. Why	ePortfolios? Why Now? Documenting Lea	rning with ePortfolios [H. Chen] Poly Vista			
2:45 - 3:55	Topical Reflection Sessions: Mentors facilitate discussions based on their topics of expertise; participants are free to move in round-robin fashion through the sessions.				
	Helen Chen (Mountain Vista): Using technology to Susan Elrod (Auditorium): Leading change Eric Gaze (Campus Vista): Managing faculty devel Jennifer Lindholm (Mountain Vista): Building a cu Bernie Madison (Auditorium): Using rubrics Donna Sundre (Poly Vista): Developing/using ass Maureen Maloney (Exhibit Lounge): What does V	opment and workload ulture of assessment; capstones essment instruments, approaches			
	2:45 – 3:15 Each mentor hosts a dis	cussion (see above for topic/room)			

3:25 – 3:55 Each mentor hosts a discussion (see above for topic/room)

4:00 - 6:00 Work Session: Team Planning/ Appointments with Mentors Designated rooms & areas

Three mentor slots: 4:00 - 4:40 4:45 - 5:25 5:30 - 6:10

6:15 Dinner Dining Room

Friday, October 3, 2014

7:30 – 8:30 Breakfast Dining Room

8:45 – 9:45 Plenary: Developing a Campus Culture that Embraces Outcomes Assessment [J. Lindholm] Mountain Vista

10:00 – 11:15 Breakouts

- 4. Student Learning Assessment and Academic Program Review [J. Lindholm] Poly Vista
- 5. Designing a Mature Quantitative Reasoning Assessment Plan for the Major [D. Sundre] CampusVista
- 6. A Framework for Leading Campus-Wide Change Initiatives [S. Elrod] Mountain Vista

7. Expectations for Student Performance at Graduation: What, Why, and How [H. Chen, M. Maloney] *Garden Vista*

11:15	Snack Break – pick up and take a snack to your work session <i>Exhibit Lounge</i>
11:15 - 12:45	Work Session: Team planning/Appointments with Mentors Designated rooms ぐ areas Two mentor slots: 11:15 – 11:55 12:00 – 12:40
12:45 – 1:30	Lunch and team time or networking with other teams Dining Room
1:30 – 2:30	What Have We Learned? What Have We Accomplished? Round Table Discussion [M. Maloney] <i>Mountain Vista</i>
2:30pm	Retreat ends
* * * * * * * * *	* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * Sessions Descriptions * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

Plenaries:

Look, It's Math, It's Statistics, It's History and Psychology! It's Quantitative Reasoning! [S. Elrod] Quantitative reasoning (QR) isn't just math. It is a way of looking at the world "through mathematical eyes" and "thinking quantitatively about commonplace issues, and to approach complex problems with confidence in the value of careful reasoning" (MAA, 2013). This sounds simple enough; however, many colleges and universities struggle with how to define QR as a learning outcome, how to assess it, and how to incorporate it into the curriculum. There are implications for student learning, program implementation, and especially faculty development – because if this requirement is to be met primarily across programs and disciplines (i.e., not just in a math course), faculty teaching those courses will need help with assignments and assessments that properly measure students' QR.

Developing a Campus Culture That Embraces Outcomes Assessment [J. Lindholm]

Our beliefs and assumptions about assessment programs and practices present one barrier to the effective use of assessment. However, an even bigger challenge is the cognitive shift that must take place, both within and across disciplines, in how we perceive assessment and how we respond to feedback. This session addresses issues that transcend institutional type or disciplinary context; the goal is to engage retreat attendees in considering how they can facilitate the long-term success of their assessment- and accreditation-related efforts within their own campus communities.

Breakouts (in the order in which they appear in program):

1. Developing and Evaluating QR Courses [B. Madison]

In the absence of widely accepted content for QR courses and recognizing the difficulty of measuring long term retention and transfer, how does one develop or evaluate QR courses? A research-based method, rooted in a decade of developing, teaching, and studying QR, courses will be presented and discussed. The ingredients of the method are widely applicable in undergraduate education. Ways to effectively assess student QR learning, although fraught with challenges, are beginning to emerge as more is learned about how students interact with the transformational learning that seems to be necessary.

2. QR Across the Curriculum: From Creating Assignments to Measuring Outcomes [E. Gaze]

This workshop will introduce participants to what is meant by quantitative reasoning (QR), articulating the distinction between QR and traditional mathematics instruction. This will lead into a discussion of ways to create authentic QR assignments for courses across the curriculum. These assignments will be grounded in the mantra "sophisticated reasoning using elementary mathematics versus elementary reasoning using sophisticated mathematics." In particular, mathematics for informed citizenship and personal decision-making will be explored. The session will end with a focus on assessment, including results from a National Science Foundation project of a QR instrument that has been piloted at institutions across the country.

3. Why ePortfolios? Why Now? Documenting Learning with ePorftfolios (H. Chen)

E-Portfolios are more than just a technology; they imply a process of planning, keeping track of, making sense of, and sharing evidence of learning and performance. This interactive session will introduce a framework for designing and implementing an ePortfolio approach to meet specific learning outcomes and objectives related to both majors and core competencies.

4. Student Learning Assessment and Academic Program Review [J. Lindholm]

A strong academic program review process can provide a cornerstone for establishing and sustaining an institutional culture that supports new forms of student learning assessment. This session offers approaches to linking assessment-related initiatives with the academic program review process, strategies for working with academic units to address assessment-oriented components within self-study reports, and considerations for establishing manageable expectations based on institutional context.

5. Designing a Mature Quantitative Reasoning Assessment Plan for the Major (D. Sundre)

This interactive session will guide participants through a design process featuring development of assessment tasks for majors. We want to build on goals and objectives that are to be met in particular classes and build across major requirements. The development of program determined assignments (PDAs) that are required for all sections of a course and build skills longitudinally represents a mature major curriculum and assessment design. This type of design ensures appropriate scaffolding with opportunity for students to practice and receive feedback on the objectives identified by the program. Participants will be invited to identify an important QR learning objective from their institution and to explore how it builds across courses. We want to identify the program logic that clearly exists across all curricula—but are seldom explicitly stated.

6. A Framework for Leading Campus-Wide Change Initiatives [S. Elrod]

Implementation of a new campus-wide requirement for quantitative reasoning or use of a common assessment method requires changing the current status quo in favor of the new program. In order to successfully navigate the planning, political and personnel issues involved in change projects, faculty leaders and administrators should consider how best to manage the process. The Keck/PKAL Scientific Framework for Strategic Change takes a scientific approach to facilitating change and offers leadership, planning, assessment, and tools

for developing a strategic plan for change, including evidence-based practices. The Framework also provides "readiness" tools for assessing the capacity for change in terms of faculty expertise, resources, and campus infrastructure. In this session, participants will learn about the Framework with case study examples from participating campuses. Participants will apply the framework to their campus initiative to develop a plan for creating a comprehensive change agenda for their institution.

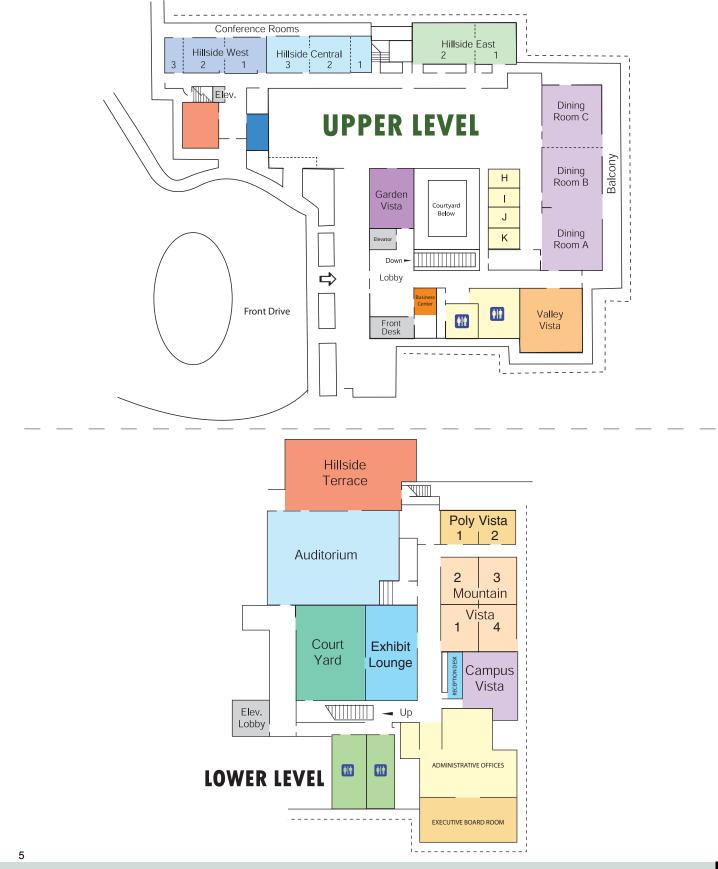
7. Expectations for Student Performance at Graduation: What, Why, and How [H. Chen, M. Maloney]

WSCUC's 2013 Handbook of Accreditation calls on institutions to address students' performance in five core competencies: quantitative reasoning, along with writing, oral communication, critical thinking, and information literacy. Specifically, institutions are asked to set a standard of performance in each competency that they expect students to achieve at or near graduation; assess graduating students' performance; report how well students meet each standard; and present plans for improvement when needed. Ideally, the process of standard-setting involves some form of comparison, and the assessment includes some form of external validation. Learn more about why the 2013 Handbook includes these expectations, and join a conversation, as we all explore this new ground, about how they can best be met.

1.800.KWEST.76



MEETING/EVENTS ROOM FLOOR PLANS





Mentor Biographies

WASC Retreat on Core Competencies: Quantitative Reasoning and Assessment in Majors Mentor Biographies

Helen Chen

Helen L. Chen is a research scientist in the Designing Education Lab in the Department of Mechanical Engineering and the Director of ePortfolio Initiatives in the Office of the Registrar at Stanford University. She earned her undergraduate degree from UCLA and her PhD in Communication with a minor in Psychology from Stanford University in 1998. Helen is a co-founder and co-facilitator of EPAC, a community of practice focusing on pedagogical and technological issues related to ePortfolios (http://epac.pbworks.com). She works closely with Association of American Colleges and Universities as a member of the Assessment Advisory Group for the Quality Collaboratives project and as a faculty member for the Institute on General Education and Assessment. Helen is also the Director of Research for the Association for Authentic, Experiential and Evidence-Based Learning (AAEEBL) and a senior scholar on LaGuardia Community College's FIPSE-funded Connect to Learning project. She and her colleagues Tracy Penny-Light and John Ittelson are the authors of Documenting Learning with ePortfolios: A Guide for College Instructors (2011, Wiley). Helen's current research interests are focused in three areas: persistence in engineering education; documenting innovations in teaching and learning in next generation learning spaces; and the use and applications of ePortfolio pedagogy and practices in general education, the disciplines, and co-curricular experiences.

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Susan Elrod

Susan Elrod is the Dean of the College of Science and Mathematics at Fresno State. She holds a Ph.D. in Genetics from the University of California-Davis and a B.S. in Biological Sciences from California State University-Chico. At Fresno State, she is PI of an WM Keck Foundation funded project that has developed a framework for strategic change in STEM (science, technology, engineering and mathematics) education and Fresno State's NSFfunded FLOCK project that aims to enhance faculty development and introductory course outcomes in biology, calculus, chemistry, and physics. She also participates as a co-PI on a new NSF-funded national project to form a network of biology faculty developers. Prior to joining Fresno State, she was the Executive Director of Project Kaleidoscope (PKAL) at the Association of American Colleges & Universities in Washington, D.C. In this position, she launched several multi-campus, national STEM education initiatives focused on interdisciplinary learning, sustainability, and transfer student success. She also expanded PKAL's national program of regional faculty development networks and enhanced PKAL's Summer Leadership Institute. From 1997 – 2012, Elrod was a professor of Biological Sciences at Cal Poly, San Luis Obispo where she taught extensively and conducted both scientific and educational research. Among her administrative accomplishments, Elrod led development of their WASC institutional proposal self-study themes, served as assistant chair of the Biological Sciences Department, associate dean in the College of Science and Mathematics, and as the director of the Center for Excellence in Science and Mathematics Education (CESaME). At CESaME she was responsible for the growth of the STAR STEM Teacher Researcher program, which is a summer research program for aspiring science and mathematics teachers. In addition, she has more than 10 years of experience leading faculty development programs, consultations with campuses and organizations regarding undergraduate STEM education reform, and was an American Council on Education (ACE) Fellow. She is a California native and enjoys spending time in the great outdoors. Contact info: selrod@csufresno.edu

WASC Retreat on Core Competencies: Quantitative Reasoning and Assessment in Majors Mentor Biographies

Eric Gaze

Eric Gaze directs the Quantitative Reasoning (QR) program at Bowdoin College, he is a past chair of SIGMAA-QL (2010-12), a board member of the National Numeracy Network (NNN 2010-13), and NNN Vice-President (2012-13). He writes a column, Ratiocination, for the NNN website: http://serc.carleton.edu/nnn/columns.html . Eric has given talks and led workshops on the topics of QR Across the Curriculum, Creating a QR Entry Point Course, Writing with Numbers, QR Assessment, and Running a QR Program; and served on review teams of QR programs. Eric is the Principal Investigator for a NSF TUES Type I grant (2012-13), Quantitative Literacy and Reasoning Assessment (QLRA) DUE 1140562. This collaborative project builds on Bowdoin College's QR instrument which is used for advising purposes and is available to interested schools. Prior to coming to Bowdoin, Eric led the development of a Masters in Numeracy program for K-12 teachers at Alfred University as an Associate Professor of Mathematics and Education. He has given talks and led workshops on developing such an MS program and Infusing Numeracy Across the K-12 Curriculum. **Contact info: egaze@bowdoin.edu**

Jennifer A. Lindholm

Jennifer A. Lindholm is Special Assistant to the Dean and Vice Provost for Undergraduate Education at UCLA. In that capacity, she is responsible for coordinating campus initiatives that focus on enhancing undergraduate teaching and learning, addressing accreditationrelated considerations, and facilitating student success. Her current efforts focus heavily on the Capstone Initiative, the Initiative to Evaluate the Effectiveness of Academic Programs for Undergraduate Students, and Pathways to Commencement. From 2001-2006, Jennifer served as Associate Director of the Cooperative Institutional Research Program at UCLA's Higher Education Research Program and as Director of the institute's Triennial National Faculty Survey. She also served as Visiting Professor of Higher Education and Organizational Change in UCLA's Graduate School of Education and Information Studies. Jennifer was Director and Co-Investigator for the decade-long Spirituality in Higher Education project and co-author of Cultivating the Spirit: How College Can Enhance Students' Inner Lives. Her second book in association with that project, The Quest for Meaning and Wholeness: Spiritual and Religious Connections in Faculty Members' Lives will be published this January. Jennifer is also a featured contributor to Revisioning Mission: The Future of Catholic Higher Education. Her other research and writing focus on the structural and cultural dimensions of academic work; the career development, work experiences, and professional behavior of

college and university faculty; issues related to institutional change; and undergraduate students' personal development. Jennifer also works as a consultant to colleges and universities on topics related to her areas of research and practical expertise. **Contact info: jlindholm@college.ucla.edu**

Bernie L. Madison

Bernard Madison has more than 20 years of experience in assessment and 15 years of experience in research and teaching of quantitative literacy. He has several publications in each area and frequently consults and advises institutions of higher education on both. He is a professor of mathematics at the University of Arkansas, where he served 10 years as department chair and 10 years as dean of Arts and Sciences. He was the founding president of the National Numeracy Network, 2004-2008, and currently serves as Director of

WASC Retreat on Core Competencies: Quantitative Reasoning and Assessment in Majors Mentor Biographies

Placement Testing for the Mathematical Association of America. Over the past 15 years he has directed NSF-funded projects in assessment, teacher education, quantitative literacy, and conceptually based placement testing. He currently co-directs an NSF mathematics and physics partnership that includes 42 school district partners. He earned his PHD at the University of Kentucky.

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Donna L. Sundre

Donna Sundre is Executive Director of the Center for Assessment and Research Studies (CARS; see http://www.jmu.edu/assessment) and Professor of Graduate Psychology at James Madison University (JMU). CARS is the largest higher education assessment center in the United States, and James Madison University has a strong and growing reputation for quality assessment practice. The university and the Center have been the recipient of nine national assessment awards (see http://www.jmu.edu/assessment/JMUAssess/awards/awards.htm). Donna has been an active assessment practitioner and consultant for 25 years working with assessment in general education, the majors and student affairs. Donna is a frequent invited speaker and workshop presenter in the areas of assessment practice, instrument development, validity, quantitative and scientific reasoning, and examinee motivation She has been a Principal Investigator (PI) for several grants associated with assessment practice (e.g., Innovations in Technology, Assessment Fellowships, Senior STEM Scholars) and instrument development (e.g., NSF grant on Advancing Assessment of Quantitative (QR) and Scientific *Reasoning (SR)*). She is very interested in engaging faculty and staff with assessment practice and scholarship. Her research and publication record are largely devoted to direct assessment of student learning, quantitative and scientific reasoning, validity issues, instrument development, and examinee motivation. She serves on several Assessment Advisory Councils and professional editorial boards. She earned her Ed.D. from the University of North Carolina-Greensboro in Educational Research and Measurement. Contact info: sundredl@jmu.edu

Maureen A. Maloney (WASC representative)

Maureen A. Maloney Before joining WASC as a Vice President in October, 2012, Moe was a member of the Graduate Theological Union Student Affairs staff for 18 years. Moe served as the GTU Vice President for Student Affairs and Dean of Students from 2004 to 2012. Her previous roles at GTU included Assistant/Associate Dean for the Doctoral Program and Student Life Coordinator. Before joining the GTU staff, Moe was a research assistant with another consortium, the National Center for Research in Vocational Education. From 1984 through 1991, Moe was the head women's basketball coach for San Francisco State University. Moe has an Ed.D. from the University of California, Berkeley, a M.S. in Physical Education Administration from the University of Illinois, Chicago, and an undergraduate degree in Business Administration-Marketing from the University of Notre Dame. Her research interests are in higher education organizational theory, teaching and learning, student retention and graduation, and faculty development.

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Attendee Directory

WSCUC Quantitative Reasoning and Assessment in Majors Attendee Directory

Pomona, CA October 2-3, 2014

Full Name (First Last)	Job Title	Institution	Email
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An Introduction to Quantitative Reasoning and Assessment in Majors

Susan Elrod Jennifer Lindholm

Quantitative Reasoning: The Final Frontier of Core Competencies Susan Elrod, Dean, College of Science and Mathematics, Fresno State

Introduction. Quantitative literacy. Quantitative reasoning. Quantitative fluency. These are phrases that are often used when discussing one of the key learning outcomes for higher education. Here are a few high-profile examples:

- The WASC Senior College and University Commission focuses on five core competencies -- writing, oral communication, quantitative reasoning, critical thinking, and information literacy – in its 2013 institutional review process.
- Quantitative reasoning is one of the LEAP (Liberal Education for America's Promise) Essential Learning Outcomes (or ELOs) developed by the Association of American Colleges & Universities (AAC&U), along with inquiry and analysis, critical and creative thinking, written and oral communication, information literacy and teamwork and problem solving.
- The Lumina Foundation's Degree Qualifications Profile (DQP) calls this skill quantitative fluency and places it, like LEAP, among several important intellectual skills: analytic inquiry, information literacy, engaging diverse perspectives, and communication fluency.

The ability to think quantitatively clearly plays a central role in undergraduate education. But what do phrases like quantitative literacy, quantitative reasoning, or quantitative fluency really mean for student learning, the curriculum, program development, faculty development, or accreditation? How do we teach and measure it? Who is responsible for ensuring that students

achieve this competency? This essay will define QR; discuss the role of QR in the undergraduate curriculum; present ways to define and assess QR outcomes; and finally suggest approaches to faculty development in QR. Throughout, I will provide examples of campus practice.

Defining Quantitative Reasoning.

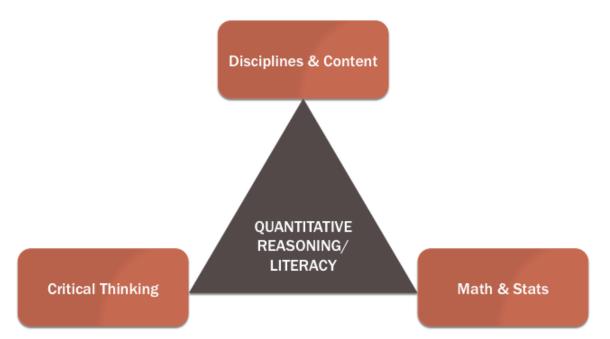
Box 1. What is it?

"Some call it **Numeracy**, an expression first used in the UK's 1959 "Crowther Report" to include secondary school students' ability to reason and solve sophisticated quantitative problems, their basic understanding of the scientific method, and their ability to communicate at a substantial level about quantitative issues in everyday life. Others call it **Quantitative Literacy (QL)**, and describe this comfort, competency, and "habit of mind" in working with numerical data as being as important in today's highly quantitative society as reading and writing were in previous generations. Still others refer to it as **Quantitative Reasoning (QR)**, emphasizing the higher-order reasoning and critical thinking skills needed to understand and to create sophisticated arguments supported by quantitative data."

From the National Numeracy Network's website: http://serc.carleton.edu/nnn/index.html

 relevant to students in their daily lives. It is not just mathematics. Carleton College, for example, views QR as "the habit of mind to consider the power and limitations of quantitative evidence in the evaluation, construction, and communication of arguments in public, professional, and personal life." The term numeracy is also used in conjunction with these skills. A comprehensive statement of all three of these phrases is provided by the National Numeracy Network (NNN), an organization devoted to advancing quantitative reasoning learning, assessment, and program development in higher education (see Box 1). Ultimately, quantitative reasoning requires students to think critically and apply basic mathematics and statistics skills to interpret data, draw conclusions and/or solve problems within a disciplinary context (Figure 1). Indeed it requires the kind of mathematical and statistical skills generally learned by high school, so all college students should be able to achieve this outcome. It is a competency of integration and application, both of which are intellectual capacities up near the top of the cognitive skills taxonomy originally described by Bloom (1956). Thus, higher education faculty and administrators must address ways to provide students with learning opportunities to understand and practice this set of skills.





QR in the Curriculum. The development of intellectual skills is paramount for undergraduate students. AAC&U states that intellectual and practical skills should be "practiced extensively, across the curriculum, in the context of progressively more challenging problems, projects and standards for performance." The Degree Qualifications Profile provides another lens through which to view these skills, stating that "students hone and integrate" these skills across the curriculum when dealing with problems in their major field of study, but also with "broad, integrative problem-solving challenges." Thus QR appears to be much more than a general education learning outcome; it must be accomplished within the major, but also beyond it. Deborah Hughes-Hallett (2001) argues that QR must be taught in the context of the disciplines

because a critical component is the ability to identify quantitative relationships in a range of contexts. She also argues that the very nature of QR is interdisciplinary because it involves contextual problem solving in real-world situations. Yet general education is where many campuses locate the teaching, learning, and assessment of core competencies like QR.

Examples of QR in everyday life abound and can be drawn upon to teach QR in the context of virtually any discipline. They can be found in areas such as health, economics, politics, science, engineering, social science, and even the arts. For example, virtually all parents face the vaccination question early in the life of their children. Parents might ask questions like, "What are the risks associated with vaccinating my child? What are the benefits?" In order to answer these questions, they must take into account quantitative information, such as disease occurrence rates in populations over time, or numbers of cases of complications with certain vaccine preparations. In today's information age, the Internet is the most readily available source of information, so students (and adults) must be able to discern reliable versus non-reliable sources. Returning to our vaccination example, there is rampant misinformation online about a connection between autism and vaccinations that must be recognized as such when parents formulate their decisions. Making judgments based on political polling data, understanding the national debt, interpreting nutrition facts, evaluating medical treatment or screening options, making investment decisions, and even purchasing decisions – these are all everyday challenges that require us to use quantitative reasoning skills.

Larger societal issues, such as climate change, also require the application of QR skills – and the closing of a widening gap between those who have these skills and those who do not. Issues like these are politically contentious, beyond the practical implications for everyday life and decision-making (should I buy a hybrid car? Should I buy carbon credits?). The "hockey stick" graph of rising CO₂ levels made worldwide news as politicians debated the science behind climate change, or global warming as it was known in the past decade. Jon D. Miller, a political scientist at University of Michigan who has been studying the civic scientific literacy of adults in the U.S.; in surveys that ask basic factual scientific questions, he finds that less than 30% are scientifically literate (Miller, 2010). Anthony Carnevale, Director of Research at the Center on Education and the Workforce at Georgetown University, argues that, "The remedy for the widening gulf between those who are literate in mathematics and science and those who are not is democratization – making mathematics and science more accessible and responsive...to the needs of all citizens" (in Steen, 2004, p.65). One way to achieve this may be through a more intensive focus on quantitative reasoning in college. There are implications for all levels of education, preschool through college, but our focus here is on the undergraduate curriculum.

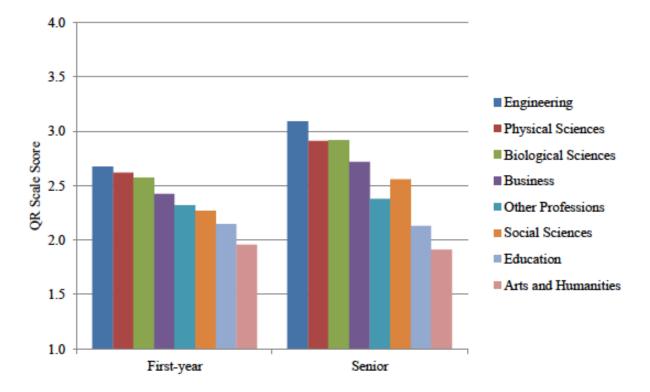
Challenges. A 2001 study by the Mathematical Association of America (MAA) summed up the challenges:

- 1. Most higher education students graduated without sufficient QR
- 2. Faculty in all disciplines needed professional development support to enhance QR in their courses
- 3. QR was not part of assessment activity
- 4. Education policy leaders were insufficiently aware of the increasing need for QR

While this study is more than a decade old, we may not be much further along today. QR is a complex outcome that requires immediate attention from faculty across the disciplines. Many institutions have embraced the core competencies of writing and communication, but far fewer attend to this equally critical outcome. In addition, there are special difficulties in reaching students. As Hughes-Hallett (2001) notes, they find it hard, especially when QR is taught in the context of the disciplines. She describes results from a study where students were given a quantitative problem to solve in the abstract and then in the context of a scientific problem. No scientific understanding was required to solve the problem, but students had trouble with the contextualized problem, in part because their perceptions of science or science phobia interfered.

One of the first decisions a campus must make when approaching QR learning is where in the curriculum students will be expected to gain these skills, and thus, where the faculty will both teach and measure it. A recent paper by Rocconi and colleagues (National Survey of Student Engagement, 2013) reports that students in STEM fields are more engaged in QR-related activities than those in non-STEM fields, with students in education and the humanities showing the least engagement (Figure 2). This may not be surprising, but it is illuminating, given that QR skills are important for *all* students. It is easy to assume that the responsibility for QR should rest with the mathematics portion of general education or mathematics faculty. But experts argue that QR goes beyond basic math skills, and that most math courses don't teach QR skills. There is a disciplinary context to the deep demonstration of QR skills by students that can most likely only be achieved by repeated exposure across the curriculum, along with culminating assessment in the major or a capstone experience. Faculty in mathematics departments may be best suited to take a leadership role in leading a campus-wide effort, but that effort must include faculty in other disciplines to have the broadest impact.

Figure 2. Average Frequency of QR Activities by Major and Class Level



Learning Outcomes for QR. As with any core competencies or higher-order intellectual skills, faculty and other educators should use "backward design" (Wiggins and McTighe, 1998) to define the desired outcomes and create appropriate assessments before designing learning experiences for students. The outcomes may be simple or complex, depending on the focus or the locus of QR in the curriculum, i.e., general education or the major or some other institutionlevel requirement. These outcomes may include the kinds of math skills required, the types of data students should be able to interpret, the methods to be used for problem-solving, the desired results of the application of these skills, and ability to clearly communicate findings. Other outcomes may include student attitudes toward accomplishing these kinds of tasks, or ability to make connections to learning in the major or across the curriculum. Steen (2004, p. 24) argues that there are three essential components to QR: 1) engagement with the real world (which may set it apart from traditional mathematics), 2) ability to apply quantitative thinking to unfamiliar contexts, and 3) adaptable reasoning, which is the ability to make judgments even in the "absence of sufficient information or in the face of inconsistent evidence." How often in the real world do we have all the information we need to make a solid judgment? Rarely. Thus, we should be preparing our students to grapple with this kind of uncertainty.

Several universities have already developed outcomes for QR. One example of a comprehensive set of outcomes for graduating seniors at the University of Virginia is shown in Box 2. These outcomes are quite extensive but traverse the terrain of basic understanding of quantitative information and processes, using QR methods, communicating quantitative information and evaluating quantitative information. Another example is the Degree Qualifications Profile, which defines quantitative fluency, in terms of both *what* students should be able to do and at what *level of skill* or performance.

At the associate level, the student

• Presents accurate calculations and symbolic operations, and explains how such calculations and operations are used in either his or her specific field of study or in interpreting social and economic trends.

At the bachelor's level, the student

• Translates verbal problems into mathematical algorithms and constructs valid mathematical arguments using the accepted symbolic system of mathematical reasoning.

• Constructs, as appropriate to his or her major field (or another field), accurate and relevant calculations, estimates, risk analyses or quantitative evaluations of public information and presents them in papers, projects or multi-media events. At the master's level:

• Students who are not seeking a degree in a quantitatively based field employ and apply mathematical, formal logic and/or statistical tools to problems appropriate to their field in a project, paper or performance.

• Students seeking a degree in a quantitatively based or quantitatively relevant field articulate and/or undertake multiple appropriate applications of quantitative methods, concepts and theories within their field of study.

Some universities have set out a program for mathematics across the curriculum (MATC), much like the writing across the curriculum (WAC) movement that swept the nation a decade or more ago. Dartmouth College has an MATC program that has helped faculty from mathematics and the humanities create nine integrated courses. Other institutions have built quantitative reasoning centers that host programs – workshops, tutoring, peer mentoring, etc. – to help students achieve QR skills. For example, Bowdoin College has created a Quantitative Reasoning Program that provides advising, study groups, tutoring and supplemental instruction in support of QR learning goals. The college is also developing a test for use in academic advising that will measure incoming students' QR skill levels. This test analyzes the following areas: Computation and Estimation, Probability and Statistics, Graphical Analysis and Common Functions, and Logic/Reasoning.

Box 2. University of Virginia Quantitative Reasoning Outcomes

A graduating fourth-year undergraduate at the University of Virginia will be able to:

- (1) Interpret mathematical models such as formulas, graphs, tables, and schematics, and draw inferences from them.
- (2) Communicate mathematical information symbolically, visually, numerically, and verbally.
- (3) Use arithmetical, algebraic, and geometric methods to solve problems.
- (4) Estimate and check answers to mathematical problems in order to determine reasonableness.
- (5) Solve word problems using quantitative techniques and interpret the results.
- (6) Apply mathematical/statistical techniques and logical reasoning to produce predictions, identify optima, and make inferences based on a given set of data or quantitative information.
- (7) Judge the soundness and accuracy of conclusions derived from quantitative information, recognizing that mathematical and statistical methods have limits and discriminating between association and causation.
- (8) Solve multi-step problems.
- (9) Apply statistics to evaluate claims and current literature.
- (10) Demonstrate an understanding of the fundamental issues of statistical inference, including measurement and sampling.

Assessment. Many different approaches to assessing QR have been developed, ranging from direct to indirect measures of learning. Available tools include ready-to-use instruments and rubrics as well as survey and interview questions that assess attitudes toward mathematics in real world contexts. Examples are available on the national organizations' websites described in the next section, but I will describe three specific tools below.

The Center for Assessment and Research Studies (CARS) at James Madison University has developed the Quantitative Reasoning Test (Sundre, 2008). This instrument has been administered at over 50 universities to more than 20,000 students. It is a 25-minute multiple-choice exam that focuses on two key outcomes. These are ability of students to:

- use graphical, symbolic, and numerical methods to analyze, organize and interpret natural phenomenon; and
- discriminate between association and causation, and identify the types of evidence used to establish causation.

AAC&U's VALUE (Valid Assessment of Learning in Undergraduate Education) project has published a rubric for assessing quantitative literacy with six criteria: interpretation, representation, calculation, application/analysis, assumptions and communication. Each of these criteria is described in detail, and the performance rating system ranges from the highest level (4, or "capstone") through mid-range "milestones" (3, 2) to the beginner level (1). The rubric may be downloaded from the web; as with all its VALUE rubrics, AAC&U encourages institutions to modify this one to reflect local emphases. Dingman and Madison (2011) have developed a modified rubric based on AAC&U's prototype. Grawe et al. (2010) have published a rubric for assessing QR skills within the context of writing assignments.

With support from the National Science Foundation, the Dartmouth College MATC project has developed a 35-question attitude survey to explore how students feel about the subject of math and their comfort with using it. The project has also have developed an interview protocol for focus groups with students. This protocol not only addresses attitudes but the issue of integration of mathematics with the humanities in the course(s) students took, as well as their possible longer-term use of the skills they gained in the course.

It is important for universities to establish standards of performance that students should reach at or near graduation with respect to QR. This is a key part of the new WASC requirement for reporting on students' achievement in core competencies. Direct assessment of QR skills could be used (e.g., evaluation of e-portfolio collections of student work), along with other means, to determine the actual level of performance. Faculty could then apply their findings regarding performance to identify programmatic changes that need to be made to make improvements.

Learning, Teaching, and Faculty Development: There is no single pedagogy for QR, although problem-based or inquiry-focused learning approaches may be the most appropriate. Having students analyze data that is relevant to the course or discipline is a good place to start. News media are ready sources of data that can be used in classes. For example, Dingman and Madison (2011) take a student-centered approach to a general education course that moves the instructor into a moderator role, working with students on problems that stem from their interests and current events. Texts come primarily from the Internet. Grawe (2012) describes several resources for teaching and measuring QR, such as those provided by three national organizations, the Mathematical Association of America (MAA), Project Kaleidoscope (PKAL), and the National Numeracy Network (NNN). Their websites offer a variety of curricular materials, along with assessment resources. NNN also publishes a national journal, *Numeracy*, that "supports education at all levels that integrates quantitative skills across disciplines." This journal publishes the latest developments in QR education. In Volume 6, Issue 2, the theme is financial literacy, with nine articles describing a variety of education approaches, curricular materials, and assessment methods.

This type of teaching has implications for faculty development: not only do faculty members need to be comfortable with the content of QR, but they also need to become skilled in adapting real-world materials to instruction and using more active, less lecture-focused instructional methods. As the writing across the curriculum movement has learned, one of the best ways to help faculty members incorporate QR learning into their courses may be workshops sponsored by the faculty development center. These workshops can help faculty members gain confidence and skills in generating assignments and developing classroom activities for QR in disciplines that do not routinely use mathematics, such as in the arts and humanities. Faculty in these disciplines may also have math anxiety, much as faculty in the sciences and engineering may have anxiety about teaching and grading writing. **Conclusion.** Hughes-Hallett (2001) asserts that what we need is a partnership among departments to help students achieve QR learning outcomes. She argues that this partnership must involve high schools, community colleges, colleges and universities. Before we get to that point, however, institutions need support as they address for themselves the complex issues regarding the development of QR outcomes, learning experiences, assessments, and faculty development programs. This WASC-sponsored workshop will explore the following themes through workshop and mentoring sessions delivered by experts in the field:

- 1. Defining Quantitative Reasoning
- 2. Quantitative Reasoning in General Education and across the Curriculum
- 3. Assessing Quantitative Reasoning
- 4. Faculty Development in Quantitative Reasoning
- 5. Supporting Students' Development of Quantitative Reasoning Skills

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PKAL: <u>http://aacu.org/pkal/resources/teaching/quantitative.cfm</u>

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Developing a Campus Culture that Embraces Assessment of Learning in Majors¹

Jennifer A. Lindholm

Many, if not most, academics instinctively resist external pressures for change such as we are experiencing today with respect to providing new forms of "evidence" of student learning. In large part, this is because they see such mandates as a threat to institutional, program, and faculty autonomy. In cases like this, there is usually awareness within the academic community that something needs to be done. The creative challenge, then, is to mobilize an institutional effort (or efforts) that will be responsive to external pressures in ways that will also (a) further the college's or the university's educational mission and purpose (that is, the efforts are institutionally "meaningful"), (b) build on existing principles, priorities, and practices; and (c) be manageable for campus personnel, particularly faculty, to embark on and sustain. This essay addresses some common barriers to effective use of assessment in majors and professional fields of study and highlights key considerations for developing and sustaining program cultures that embrace new approaches to assessing their students' learning.

Barriers to Using Assessment Effectively

One barrier to effective use of assessment (outcomes-based or otherwise) in higher education institutions is our beliefs and assumptions about current programs and practices. Often we simply assume, for example, that what we are doing works, especially if the particular program is highly ranked. By assuming that traditional practice is efficacious (and, by implication, superior to any known alternative), we limit our capacity to improve our programs and to strengthen our capacity to positively impact student learning and development. If we fall into the trap of assuming that "no news is good news," over time we invariably will lose touch with teaching and learning needs and concerns. Ultimately, this disconnect

¹ This essay draws heavily from three prior essays (indicated with "*" in the reference list) that I authored or co-authored in association with my involvement in The Kellogg Forum on Higher Education Transformation, a collaborative that brought together academic leaders, researchers, and higher education institutions in an effort to enhance our understanding of institutional change and transformation. Selected text from one of those pieces in particular, *The Theory and Practice of Institutional Transformation* (Astin & Associates, 2001) was extracted and/or adapted for use here. Many of the principles our team identified then have been useful in my subsequent efforts related to UCLA's ongoing *Initiative to Evaluate the Effectiveness of Academic Programs for Undergraduate Students*.

compromises our potential to enhance students' learning experiences in what is arguably the most significant part of their college experience: their major or professional field.

Another significant challenge is the cognitive shift that often must take place in how we perceive assessment and how we respond to feedback. Anyone who has been involved with assessment initiatives on a campus knows that resistance may stem from a number of beliefs, including the notion that assessment activities are primarily for satisfying external audiences rather than for improving educational programs; resentment toward the time and resources that must be invested (especially today, given budgetary constraints that have painful implications for academic units and programs); skepticism over the quality and value of information collected; and fear that the results of assessment efforts will, in one way or another, be used against the program or faculty. Most often, it is some combination of such beliefs that creates resistance among those, especially faculty, whose input and support is most crucial for ensuring the success of student learning assessment initiatives in the major (see also, for example, Palomba & Banta, 1999).

Irrespective of institutional type or disciplinary context, the primary challenge is to create an environment that supports the belief that the role of assessment is to provide feedback as a means of promoting improvement in both student learning and program quality; as such, assessment is an integral part of responsible practice. Because assessment necessarily involves multiple actors and interest groups, it is also important to recognize the necessity of honest, on-going communication. When coupled with a commitment to open dialogue about process and outcomes, assessment also can become a tool for "values clarification," a preliminary step in establishing a culture of continuous improvement and ensuring a strong connection to the institution's mission and values.

"Exterior" and "Interior" Considerations in Assessment of Learning in Majors

Too often, we focus exclusively on *exterior* considerations associated with learning outcomes assessment. For example, how are students' achievement and behavior affected by the academic program? Are faculty members "cooperating" by engaging at least minimally in assessment? As a department or program, are we visibly doing "enough" so that we'll be able to pass muster during our next program or accreditation review? The problem with focusing exclusively on these types of questions is we ignore the fact that students and faculty, as well as other members of the academic and surrounding communities, also have *interiors*—beliefs, values, aspirations, and intents that vitally affect everything they do. The move to an assessment culture faces a very tenuous future if it is not accompanied by appropriate changes in the interiors of those who will be affected by the "structural" changes (for example, changes to program policies, curricula, or pedagogical practices). If key program personnel remain indifferent or opposed to changes that they will eventually have to help implement, it is unlikely that any transformation can be sustained. In other words, if sufficient numbers of program faculty persist in their indifference (or opposition) to attempts to implement new forms of assessment or to use assessment findings to inform curricular and programmatic development, they will in all likelihood succeed in sabotaging the effort.

If we regard the collective or *shared* values and beliefs of program personnel as the equivalent of "program culture," then we can state the following principle: successful transformation of any program is always systemic; that is, it requires changes in both the program structures *and* culture(s). At the same time, it is essential for the program–level transformation to be supported and promoted by an analogous institution-level transformation. Recognizing and addressing the necessity for cultural change -- at all levels -- is critically important. In our haste to enact "quick fixes," this critical consideration is all too often overlooked or under-emphasized.

While institutional history, turnover in key personnel, and lack of perceived "crisis" can all present potential obstacles to sustaining transformative efforts, considerations related to institutional and program cultures ordinarily pose the greatest challenge for reformers. There are, of course, many other more mundane shared beliefs that can pose serious obstacles to change: "Everyone's too busy to take on anything new." "The proposed reforms are too costly" (or simply "unfeasible.") "It's impossible to change anything around here." "Maybe if we wait long enough, the issue will simply go away." "The faculty senate will never go along with this." It is not so much a question of whether or not such beliefs are in some sense "true," but rather that if they remain unexamined, they can undermine any

transformation effort. It is also important to realize that academic communities may share unrecognized beliefs that would actually support the type of change that is needed. For this reason alone, it is important at the outset of any transformation effort to initiate conversation that focuses on uncovering and reflecting on the complex beliefs systems that define the academic culture and its various subcultures.

One obvious strategy for facilitating cultural change, at any level, is to involve as many people and as many different organizational units as possible in the process. In this way, people become "informed through participation," which helps to generate a sense both of ownership in the project and of identification with the goals and values that underlie it (Giola & Thomas, 2000). At the program level, involving people from diverse departments and units can not only stimulate new kinds of conversations, forge partnerships, and break down silos; in a spirit of "safety in numbers," it can also provide psychological cover and make individual programs feel less vulnerable.

Another important strategy is simple patience and persistence, even in the face of passive resistance, which can assume many different forms but most often involves some minor (usually verbal) resistance coupled with simply "not doing" (or doing poorly or half-heartedly) whatever is needed to implement or sustain the change. In some cases, critics of the effort can be effectively encouraged to shift their critical energies away from attempts to undermine or defeat the transformation initiative and direct them instead towards improving and strengthening associated efforts. Throughout the process, expressing appreciation for the efforts and contributions of campus community members is critical, as is celebrating key accomplishments and milestones.

Planning for Success in Assessment of Majors

A useful planning exercise is to think ahead with the aim of anticipating some of the likely outcomes of the actual implementation phase. Ideally, such projections include "who," "what," "when," "where," "why," and "how." A plan should also address questions such as the following:

- What aspects of the plan are likely to be the easiest to implement?
- How is the change process most likely to "move through" the program?

- Where is the greatest resistance most likely to come from? How might we respond?
- Who will likely feel "left out" of the process? What options are available to give them a greater sense of involvement and ownership?
- What sorts of resource demands are likely to arise at various points in the implementation

process?

• How will the assessment effort be communicated to the broader institutional community? Should special provisions be made to involve that community?

Tools and Strategies

There are many strategies that can be helpful in facilitating the transformation of a traditional program to one that is truly student-centered, focused on learning outcomes, committed to meaningful use of assessment, and dedicated to continuous improvement. Here are some suggested steps:

- Build on what the department or program is already doing and what is already congenial to the culture of the discipline. English will not approach assessment in the same way as sociology or nursing. Is there already a senior research project? A poster session? A capstone? A signature assignment? A comprehensive examination or senior declamation? Something else that serves as the culmination of the major? Activities like these can easily be used in existing or modified form to serve assessment purposes.
- Focus on a small number of agreed-upon outcomes that apply to all majors in the program. Specializations are welcome to articulate their own more particularized outcomes, but it is simpler to begin with a small number that are common across the program.
- Begin the assessment effort with an outcome or two that many faculty agree they would like to see improved, and that would tangibly raise the quality of their graduates overall. (For many programs, this is math skills, or writing, or ability to evaluate literature in the field.)

- Map the required curriculum, both as a prompt to conversation about what is or is not taught, and as a way to discover how consistently outcomes are introduced, developed, and brought to higher levels of mastery.
- Collect evidence in ways that are minimally intrusive and, to the greatest extent possible, use existing classroom assignments. Use sampling to keep analysis manageable. Think sustainability.
- If faculty feel strongly that they want to use a commercially available test (e.g., one of ETS' Major Field Tests), they should be supported in doing so, but the assessment effort should use multiple methods to get at other outcomes that are not amenable to multiple-choice testing (e.g. laboratory bench skills or patient interaction skills.)
- Involve as many faculty as practical in developing rubrics, training to use them, scoring of artifacts, and analyzing results.
- Have open, inclusive conversations about the findings; if they are controversial, be willing to
 discuss the shortcomings of the assessment but don't use that conversation as a way to avoid hard
 issues related to learning. Make sure that the department's willingness to acknowledge and deal
 with problems is praised and rewarded.
- Create a plan for dealing with any areas in which student performance is not at the level faculty would like to see. Be sure that administrators provide *some* level of support for the response.
- Make sure that there is follow-up, or what is known as "closing the loop." If a change is implemented, it's essential to go back in a year or two and see whether that change had the desired effect and actually improved student performance.
- Involve students! They can tell us things we have no other way of knowing.

Of course, on a more general level, it helps if the department or program can maintain open channels of communication with both internal and external audiences; connect with the institution's broader mission and values; use strategic planning to support the institution's mission and values while advancing its own quality; and engage consultants, as needed, to support faculty efforts, break up logjams, and offer fresh perspective. Program goals should also include developing a shared sense of the "whole" – that is, both how the program functions as a cohesive unit and how the program is part of the whole institutional enterprise; and cheerleading, both when efforts succeed and when colleagues are struggling with process. Working with peer programs at other institutions, obtaining external funding, presenting at scholarly meetings, and getting the go-ahead for new hires can also help greatly to convey status and legitimacy to program-level assessment efforts, while finger-pointing or assigning blame should be avoided at all costs.

Conclusion

Ultimately, the most powerful strategy for facilitating transformation is to show that assessment – and all the faculty effort that goes into it *–actually makes a difference*: it improves individual students' learning, raises the quality of the program's graduates as a whole, strengthens the program's retention, graduation, and graduate-school attendance rates; responds to the needs of local and regional employers as appropriate; enhances the reputation of the department; and attracts more majors. In the final analysis, the success of any program transformation to a culture of assessment will depend on a savvy mix of committed individuals, broader ownership, and shared learning, with the ultimate goal of *commitment*, rather than *compliance*, to the overall effort.

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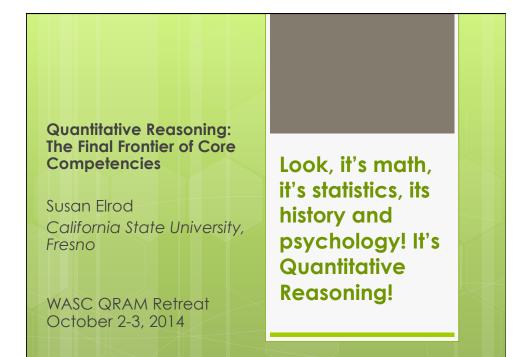
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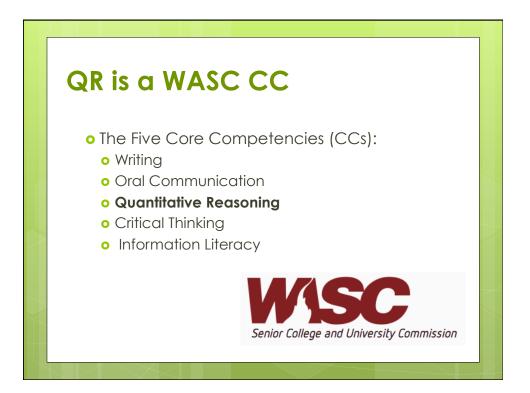


Plenary

Look, It's Math, It's Statistics, It's History and Psychology! It's Quantitative Reasoning!

S. Elrod





QR is an AAC&U LEAP ELO

 Quantitative reasoning is one of the LEAP (Liberal Education for America's Promise) Essential Learning Outcomes (or ELOs) developed by the Association of American Colleges & Universities (AAC&U), along with inquiry and analysis, critical and creative thinking, written and oral communication, information literacy and teamwork and problem solving.





Some Definitions

A comfort, competency, and "habit of mind" in working with numerical data as being as important in today's highly quantitative society as reading and writing were in previous generations.

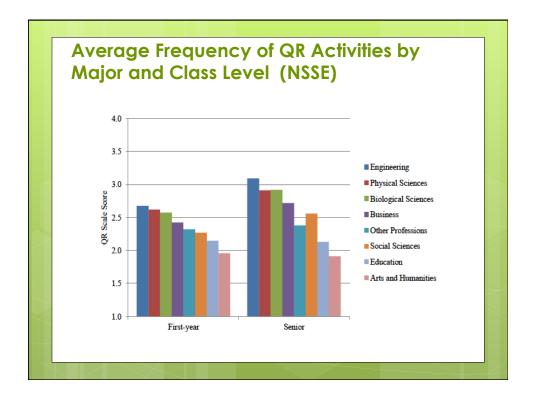
A ability that emphasizes the higher-order reasoning and critical thinking skills needed to understand and to create sophisticated arguments supported by quantitative data.

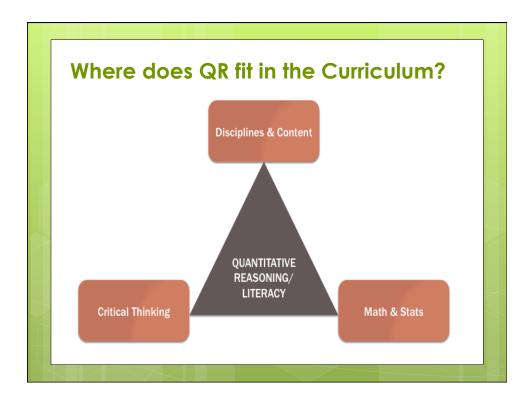
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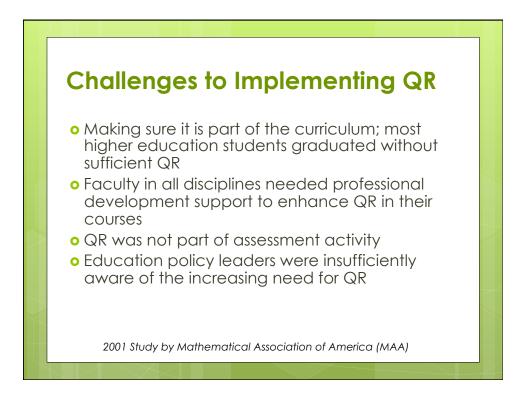
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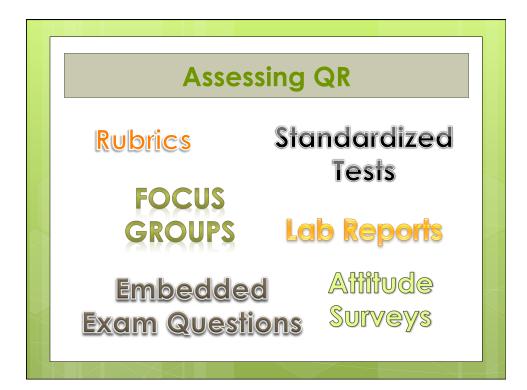
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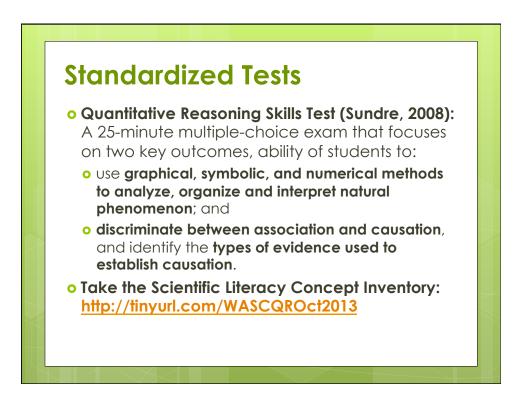
- Associate level:
 - Presents accurate calculations and symbolic operations, and explains how such calculations and operations are used in either his or her specific field of study or in interpreting social and economic trends.
- Bachelor's level:
 - Constructs accurate and relevant calculations, estimates, risk analyses or quantitative evaluations of public information and presents them in papers, projects or multimedia events.



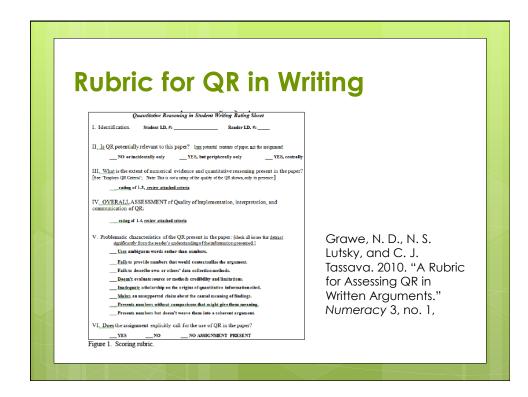








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Quantitative Reasoning Program at Bowdoin College

- Assessing first-year students' quantitative literacy
- Advising students regarding appropriate quantitative courses
- Establishing **study groups** for quantitative courses
- Providing **individual tutoring** for students in quantitative courses
- Offering supplemental support to quantitative courses



Retreat Goals for QR

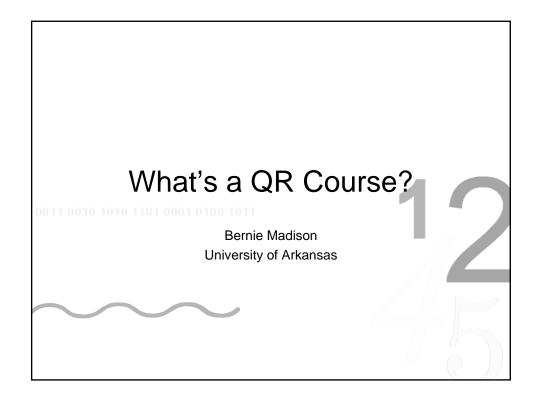
- To help you with:
 - Defining Quantitative Reasoning
 - Establishing Quantitative Reasoning in General Education and across the Curriculum
 - Assessing Quantitative Reasoning
 - Designing Faculty Development in Quantitative Reasoning
 - Supporting Students' Development of Quantitative Reasoning Skills

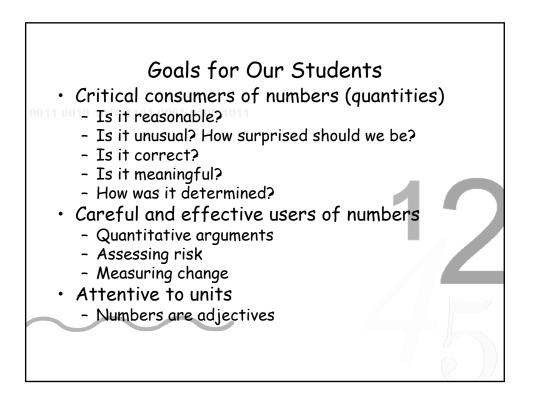


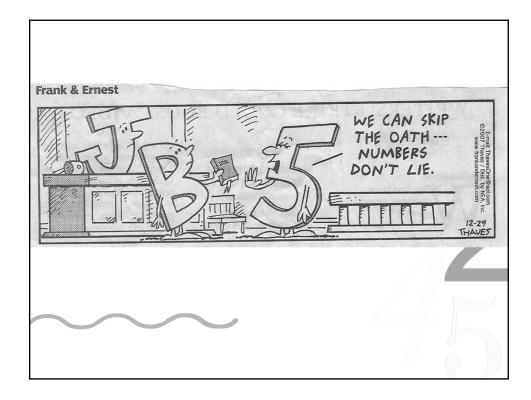
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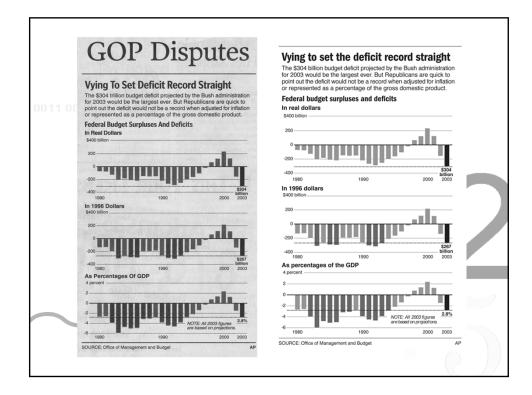
Developing and Evaluating QR Courses

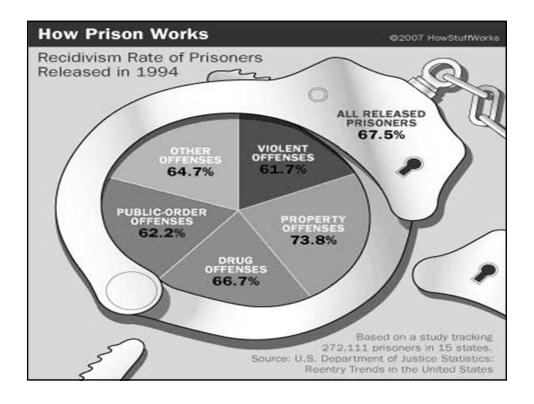
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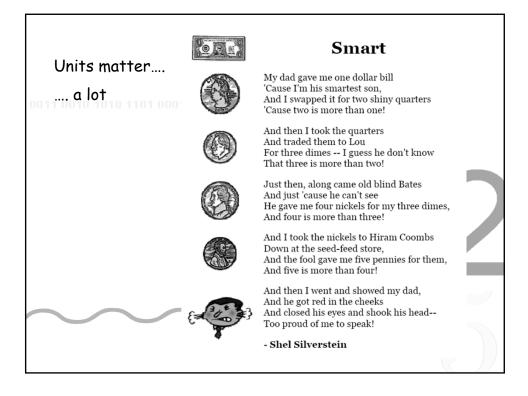


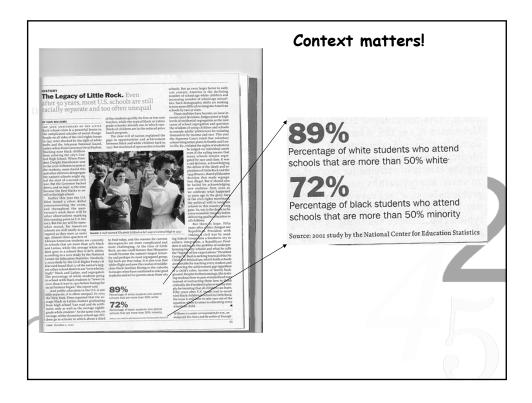






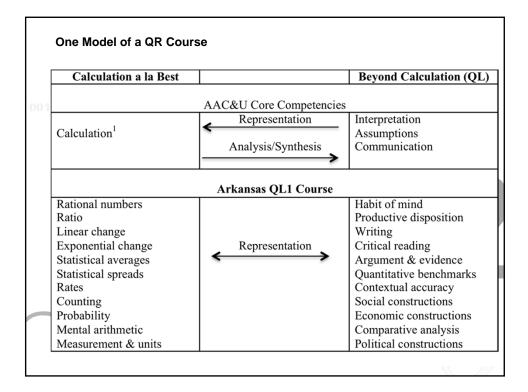


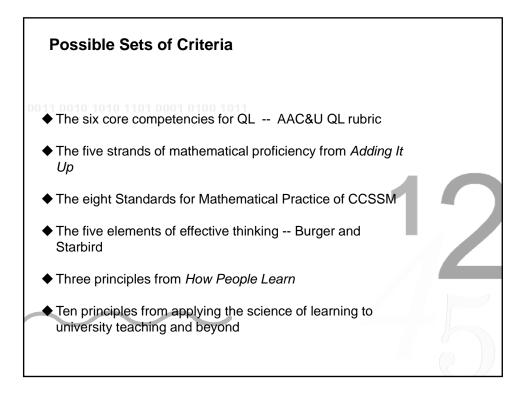












QR Course Design Principles

1. Provide a venue for continued practice beyond the course (and beyond school).

2. Keep the material relevant to students' everyday contemporary world

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3. Use multiple contexts to practice quantitative reasoning.

4. Promote appreciation of arithmetical precision and the power of mathematical concepts and processes.

5. Help students to structure their quantitative reasoning in resolving problematic situations, including ample doses of critical reading and writing.

6. Encourage on-the-fly calculations and estimations.

7. Increase students' supplies of quantitative benchmarks.

8. Encourage students to use technology to enhance and expedite understanding.

9. Allow student interests to emerge.

10. Provide interactive classroom environment.

To appear in Summer 2014 issue of Peer Review

Beyond Calculation

Bernard L. Madison, professor of mathematics, University of Arkansas **David Deville**, graduate student in mathematics, University of Arkansas

Ten years ago, the first author wrote "Two Mathematics: Ever the Twain Shall Meet?" (Madison 2004) for an issue of *Peer Review* that focused on quantitative literacy (QL). In the ensuing decade QL, now referred to by many as quantitative reasoning, has gained considerable recognition as an effort by colleges and universities to ready their graduates for life in the quantitatively demanding US society. In many ways, the quantitative demands of that society differ from the disciplinary world of academe, adding significant challenges to education for QL. Just what kind of course or program can prepare students for confronting the myriad quantitative issues in their everyday lives, saying nothing about the demands of their chosen professions?

A DECADE OF PROGRESS

Before we look at some principles to consider and possible course models, we note some progress in OL education over the past decade. Starting in 2000, historian Robert Orrill and mathematician Lynn Steen led an initiative to promote better education for OL in high school and the early years of college. Part of that initiative was the creation of the National Numeracy Network (NNN), initially conceived as a confederation of QL centers but reconstituted as an interdisciplinary membership organization in 2004. Now NNN has hundreds of members and its journal, Numeracy: Advancing Education in Quantitative Literacy, is publishing in 2014 its seventh volume of two issues annually. Textbooks aiming at QL and instruments for assessing QL have been written, scores of institutions have added courses or learning centers for QL, some institutions have integrated QL across the curriculum, and the Mathematical Association of America has created a special interest group in QL that is noting its tenth anniversary this year. QL is becoming accepted as an expected learning outcome of college. For example, the Arkansas Department of Higher Education approved the inclusion of a QL course as part of the State Minimum Core of collegiate courses as an alternative to college algebra for students not majoring in science, engineering, or mathematics.

In 2009, AAC&U's Valid Assessment of Learning in Undergraduate Education (VALUE) project included QL as one of its ten intellectual and practical skills and developed a rubric for assessing QL at the institutional level. Subsequently modified by Boersma et al. (2011) for assessing individual student work, the rubric identified six core competencies for QL: interpretation, representation, calculation, analysis/synthesis, assumptions, and communication. These VALUE rubric core competencies, described

2

below, provide a way to structure students' work toward QL and a guide for developing instructional materials, as well as a framework of an assessment instrument.

- *Interpretation*: Ability to glean and explain mathematical information presented in various forms (e.g., equations, graphs, diagrams, tables, words).
- *Representation*: Ability to convert information from one mathematical form (e.g., equations, graphs, diagrams, tables, words) into another.
- *Calculation*: Ability to perform arithmetical and mathematical calculations.
- *Analysis/Synthesis*: Ability to make and draw conclusions based on quantitative analysis.
- *Assumptions*: Ability to make and evaluate important assumptions in estimation, modeling, and data analysis.
- *Communication*: Ability to explain thoughts and processes in terms of what evidence is used, and how it is organized, presented, and contextualized.

CHALLENGES THAT REMAIN

The progress toward better QL education has been significant, driven by the recognition that QL is absolutely necessary for understanding democratic processes and thriving in a rapidly moving, economically volatile US society. Yet, significant educational questions remain. What learning theory best identifies issues in QL? Is it situated learning, since, from our view, all QL learning is situational or contextual? What pedagogy is most effective for QL education? What is/are the community/ies of practice for QL? How should QL fit into higher education? In mathematics? In statistics? Across the curriculum? Elsewhere?

Currently, in K-12, QL depends almost completely on the mathematics strand, and in higher education, many QL courses are housed in mathematical science departments or interdisciplinary learning centers. As of now, there are no established guidelines for QL courses and no accepted, effective measures of long-term retention and transfer. Mathematics and statistics courses are usually described by their content (e.g. calculus, differential equations, probability or experimental design). And mastery of content is the measure of success. Such a description for a QL course is elusive, as the mathematical and statistical content needed for QL currently does not have a clear description and consequently varies from course to course. In the absence of accepted mathematical content and measures of success, one must look elsewhere for building or evaluating QL courses. The first author (Madison 2014) has described such a process that stems from evaluating a QL course at the University of Arkansas that is housed in the mathematical sciences department.

MATHEMATICS AS SENSIBLE, USEFUL, AND WORTHWHILE

At about the time "Two Mathematics" was published in *Peer Review* ten years ago, a QL course was introduced at the University of Arkansas and has been evolving since.

Dingman and Madison (2011) wrote for this journal that teaching this course altered their perspectives on several things, including the role of the instructor, relevant mathematical content, use of technology, and sense-making in the messy world of realism. In the past three years our QL faculty members have begun to understand better the structure of QL courses and some guiding principles that seem necessary.

At the current time, there are two Arkansas QL courses: one with college algebra as a prerequisite and another that is an alternative to that course, which in this article will be referred to as QL1. The QL1 course was developed in 2012 using design principles derived from eight years of experience with the other QL course with a college algebra prerequisite. These design principles are supported by research findings about student learning (National Research Council 2000, 2001; Halpern and Hakel 2003). QL1 has two primary goals: (1) encourage students to develop habits of mind to analyze the quantitative content of everyday occurrences, and (2) increase students' productive disposition—that is, the habitual inclination to see mathematics as sensible, useful, and worthwhile, coupled with a belief in diligence and one's own efficacy. Productive disposition is one of the strands of mathematical proficiency from the *Adding It Up* report of the National Research Council (2001) and its absence is a major barrier for QL in many math-phobic students.

Relevant Design Principles for a QL Course

Briefly, the design principles for a QL course are as follows:

Provide a venue for continued practice beyond the course (and beyond school). Quantitative reasoning is a habit of mind, and habits are developed by practice. One or two courses or four years of school can only prepare one for practicing QL. The venue for continued practice in the Arkansas course is media articles.

Keep the material relevant to students' everyday contemporary world. According to John Dewey, "School should be less about preparation for life and more about life itself." Connecting classroom learning to the everyday contemporary world not only can enhance learning in the classroom but can also lead students to adapt their classroom learning to the changing environment of everyday life. Relevance promotes productive disposition, noted above as a primary goal, and keeps material fresh.

Use multiple contexts to practice quantitative reasoning. According to Halpern and Hakel (2003), "The purpose of formal education is transfer" (38). Halpern and Hakel go on to identify retrieval in multiple contexts as one of the most basic principles for enhancing long-term retention and transfer of learning and indicate that periodically spaced, not massed, practice at retrieval is best.

Promote appreciation of arithmetical precision and the power of mathematical concepts and processes. This principle is often difficult to apply in a course where the main goal is to understand contextual situations with quantitative content. Nevertheless, when opportunities arise to make use of mathematical power by developing some

algebra, doing so, when needed, shows students the power and utility of mathematics, getting at half of the dual nature of productive disposition.

Help students to structure their quantitative reasoning in resolving problematic situations, including ample doses of critical reading and writing. One way to do this is by using the QL core competencies of interpretation, representation, calculation, analysis/synthesis, assumptions, and communication (Carey 2009; Boersma et al. 2011). Critical reading is the foundation of interpretation, and writing promotes reflection and clear understanding.

Encourage on-the-fly calculations and estimations. If students are able to assess quickly the validity of a quantitative assertion or mentally compute a numerical result, then they will be better able to practice QR in their daily lives. Practice should become reflexive and habitual.

Increase students' supplies of quantitative benchmarks. Personal quantitative benchmarks are quantities that a student understands. For example, a student may understand a speed of 60 miles per hour (MPH) but not 1200 MPH. Such benchmarks are critical for understanding quantities (e.g. 1200 MPH is 20 times 60 MPH) and being able to determine reasonableness of quantitative assertions or numerical answers to questions. Providing multiple contexts for the use of benchmarks increases the chances that students retain the benchmarks and recognize their utility.

Encourage students to use technology to enhance and expedite understanding. Technology, including personal devices, is omnipresent in students' everyday lives, so it should be leveraged in service of understanding QL.

Allow student interests to emerge. As reported in *How People Learn*, "Students are motivated to spend time needed to learn complex problems that they find interesting. Opportunities to use knowledge to create products and benefits for others are particularly motivating for students" (National Resource Council 2000, 77). Again, this promotes productive disposition.

Provide an interactive classroom environment. Interactive classrooms engage students in sense-making activities and promote personal accountability. Successful QL students are able to step outside of their comfort zones and assume responsibility for their work. Further, if we intend for students to use QL outside of the classroom, possibly in discussions of public issues, then the classroom experience should provide preparation for this practice.

CALCULATION AND BEYOND

At the 2007 Wingspread interdisciplinary QL workshop, considerable discussion focused on the role of mathematical methods and calculations in QL. Sociologist Joel Best (2008A) considered calculation "to encompass all of the practices by which mathematical problems are framed and then solved" (125), or what mathematics classes center on. Best went on to argue that QL courses should go beyond calculation to include issues surrounding constructions—more specifically, social constructions.

We broaden Best's view a bit and consider a model of a QL course that consisting of two components: our model includes calculation, in the sense described by Best, and but also goes beyond calculation to encompass the many issues and dispositions involved in twenty-first-century QL in the United States. By "beyond calculation" we mean to include contributions from the arts, humanities, social sciences, natural sciences, public media, and entertainment— any area of human activity. As a mathematics course, the calculation component is unusual in the sense that it is fragmented, without any obvious unifying concepts. Further, the mathematical concepts and methods in the Arkansas QL1 course do not necessarily include concepts and methods of other QL courses that may be directed at different audiences. The Arkansas QL1 course is directed toward the general education of students in majors other than science, engineering, or business.

Because the mathematics of the QL1 course is largely from the K–12 curriculum, it could be seen as developmental. However, the sophistication of the course is in the "beyond calculation" component—echoing Lynn Steen's characterization of QL as sophisticated uses of elementary mathematics and statistics.

In table1, the top rectangle represents resolving a canonical QL situation using the AAC&U core competencies. One encounters a QL situation—say in a media article about economics—interprets the quantitative content, and produces a mathematical representation—say a linear equation. Then the problem becomes one of calculation. After the calculation and the results are analyzed and assumptions evaluated or noted, the results are communicated. This illustrates the habit of mind we want our students to develop. One of the major obstacles to developing this habit is a low level of productive disposition—the ability to see calculation as useful and have the confidence and skill to use it to understand the situation. Also, observing and critiquing this process can be difficult, especially since many students are comfortable with their traditionally passive roles in the mathematics classroom.

Calculation a la Best		Beyond Calculation (QL)
	AAC&U Core Competencies	
Calculation ¹	Representation Analysis/Synthesis	Interpretation Assumptions Communication
	Arkansas QL1 Course	
Rational numbers		Habit of mind
Ratio		Productive disposition
Linear change		Writing
Exponential change	Representation	Critical reading
Statistical averages	$\leftarrow \rightarrow$	Argument & evidence
Statistical spreads		Quantitative benchmarks
Rates		Contextual accuracy
Counting		Social constructions
Probability		Economic constructions
Mental arithmetic		Comparative analysis
Measurement & units		Political constructions

Table 1. The Arkansas QL1 Course—Calculation and Beyond

¹Calculation here is one of the QL core competencies and differs somewhat from the component of the same name as articulated by Joel Best (2008A).

Some of the items in the beyond calculation component are familiar, but some are not. Neil Lutsky and colleagues (2008) have written extensively about the use of quantitative evidence in argument in student writing at Carleton College. Joel Best (2008B) has noted the importance of statistical benchmarks—broadened here to go beyond statistics—in understanding US social statistics. Economic constructions, such as the various stock indices, appear frequently in the media, and yet they are mysterious to most people. Political constructions that require QL often arise in disagreements about or differing views of budgetary situations—for example, the expression of the annual federal budget deficit in nominal dollars or as a percent of the gross domestic product. And graduates will frequently encounter comparative analyses, which usually require ad hoc methods. For example, comparing two credit card offers often comes down to individual preferences or expected uses, as the specifics of the offers are not directly comparable.

FINAL THOUGHTS

For quite some time, "quantitative reasoning" has been an accepted learning outcome of college, often without exemplification or clarification and frequently without authentic assessment. As US society has become immersed in quantification and quantitative

analyses, specific and intentional QL education efforts have become essential. Over the past decade these efforts have been taking shape, but they remain varied and largely unevaluated. Communities of practice are forming, and research on QL learning is deepening. Professional societies, most notably AAC&U, the National Numeracy Network, and the Mathematical Association of America, lead many of these efforts. Most colleges and universities have created educational responses—courses, cross-curricular programs, or learning centers. Frameworks for QL courses are emerging, presaging standards for evaluation and some coherence, transferability, and expansion of learning. Many of the developments in QL education are described in the NNN journal *Numeracy* available at http://scholarcommons.usf.edu/numeracy/. Significant progress has marked the decade since the 2004 QL issue of *Peer Review*, but the educational ground is fertile for better understanding of QL and ways to help students achieve it. Informed participation in US society and individual prosperity depend greatly on those outcomes.

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How Does One Design or Evaluate a Course in Quantitative Reasoning?

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How Does One Design or Evaluate a Course in Quantitative Reasoning?

Abstract

In the absence of generally accepted content standards and with little evidence on the learning for long-term retrieval and transfer, how does one design or evaluate a course in quantitative reasoning (QR)? This is a report on one way to do so. The subject QR course, which has college algebra as a prerequisite and has been taught for 8 years, is being modified slightly to be offered as an alternative to college algebra. One modification is adding a significant formal writing component. As the modification occurs, the current course and the modified one are judged according to six sets of criteria: the six core competencies of the Association of American Colleges and Universities rubric on quantitative literacy; the five mathematical competencies from the National Research Council (NRC) study report, *Adding It Up*; the eight practice standards from the Common Core State Standards for Mathematics; the five elements of effective thinking as articulated by Edward Burger and Michael Starbird, the summary research findings on human cognition from the NRC study report, *How People Learn*; and the ten principles gleaned from applying the science of learning to university teaching. The QR course, as described by ten design principles, is determined to be generally well aligned with most of the overlapping criteria of the six sets, providing cogent evidence of high educational value.

Keywords

QR course, Design Criteria

Cover Page Footnote

Bernard L. Madison is professor and former Chair of the Department of Mathematical Sciences, University of Arkansas, and former Dean of its Fulbright College of Arts and Sciences. He was founding president of the National Numeracy Network and is a frequent contributor to this journal.

Introduction¹

Over the past decade or so, education for quantitative literacy (QL) or quantitative reasoning (QR) in the US has gained limited recognition as a critical and perhaps distinct component of school and college curricula, but effective educational methods for QR are tentative and unproven.² Focused around the publication of *Mathematics and Democracy* in 2001, several authors (e.g., Steen 1997 and 2001; Madison and Steen 2003 and 2008a), have made the case forcefully for QR education. Various post-secondary professional societies, notably the Mathematical Association of America (MAA 2004), Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U 2004), the American Association of Two Year Colleges (AMATYC) (Blair 2006), and the National Numeracy Network (NNN),³ have initiated policies and structures supporting QR education. Courses are being offered or are under development at individual colleges and universities, and consortia of institutions are working in concert to produce effective college level courses in QR, some in conjunction with developmental mathematics and statistics. Two of the efforts by consortia are centered at the Charles A. Dana Center⁴ at the University of Texas in Austin and at the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching⁵ in Palo Alto, California.

OR education in post-secondary institutions has two major resource hurdles to overcome. First, it has no academic home in either K-12 or post-secondary education (Madison 2001; Steen 2001). In K-12 QR education is highly dependent on the mathematics and statistics curricular strand, and less so on the sciences. Most postsecondary courses and quantitative learning centers (Madison and Steen 2008b; Gillman 2006) have evolved from mathematics or statistics units, but QR units and courses remain largely marginalized in college and university mathematics curricula. In contrast to most mainline collegiate disciplines, collegiate mathematics has long used its standard contentdesignated courses as general education courses – algebra, geometry, and calculus. Most collegiate mathematics courses have titles derived from the mathematical content of the course - e.g., calculus, differential equations, linear algebra. College and university mathematics faculty members, not unlike many of their colleagues in other STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) disciplines, have limited and varying interests in the role of their courses in service of general education. Various attempts at general education mathematics courses over the past century have met with limited acceptance, so mathematics faculty are strongly influenced by this in considering

¹ This paper is a significant revision of a manuscript that was published as "Reverse Engineering a Course in Quantitative Reasoning" in *Quantitative Reasoning in Mathematics and Science Education: Papers from an International STEM Research Symposium* (R. L. Mayes and L. L. Hatfield, eds.), p. 43-64, vol. 3, WISDOM Monograph, 2013, Laramie, WY: College of Education, University of Wyoming.

² In the remainder of this paper QR will be used for either QL or QR except when referring to existing literature that uses QL.

³ <u>http://serc.carleton.edu/nnn/index.html</u>. (all links in the footnotes were accessed 1 May 2014).

⁴ <u>http://www.utdanacenter.org/amdm/index.php</u>

⁵ <u>http://www.carnegiefoundation.org/quantway</u>

and supporting courses such as QR. The titles of such courses do not describe the mathematical content, so faculty are justifiably puzzled by what they are and how effective they would be in promoting learning in mathematics. (One of the author's colleagues characterized the content of the QR course as "fluff.") Mathematics in grades 9-16, from high school through the early years of college, is very linear, equaled only by that of a foreign language, and general education courses have no established place in this linearity (Madison 2003).

The second major resource hurdle for QR education is connected to the first. There are no clear guidelines for courses and no generally accepted measures of success. Consequently there are no widely accepted curricular materials.

Both of these hurdles were obvious when mathematical sciences faculty at the University of Arkansas considered⁶ whether or not to establish a QR course as an alternative to college algebra for students who would not study further mathematics that needed many of the methods of college algebra, i.e. many of the students who were majoring in non-STEM disciplines. Essentially the same QR course as the one proposed had been offered for several years, but with college algebra as a pre-requisite. The new version of the course was more visible in that it was being proposed as a course in the (Arkansas) state minimum core as a substitute for college algebra, and, as such, had attracted critiques in the public media (Arkansas Democrat-Gazette 2012; Brawner 2012). The effectiveness of the current mathematics curriculum, including algebra, had been questioned in two highly visible op-ed pieces in the New York Times, one by David Mumford and Sol Garfunkel (2011) and one by Andrew Hacker (2012). As was verified by many people who commented on the Hacker article, arguments in favor of QR courses as alternatives to college algebra fall victim to being interpreted as finding an easier route for algebra-phobic students. Because QR is neither well established nor well understood, and because QR courses often do not develop any specific mathematical content, the standards for acceptance within the academic community are higher than those for a course such as statistical methods that indicates some generally acceptable (now, but less so a few decades ago) mathematical content. This backdrop prompted an articulation of the analysis of the methods and content of the QR course that is reported here, the results of which provide a framework for designing QR courses.

Developing the Design Principles

The design principles that are presented below evolved over the past eight years of teaching QR courses to college students and are rooted in the author's work with Robert Orrill and Lynn Steen in the QR initiative that Orrill led during 2000-2004 (Madison and Steen 2008b). Almost all of the principles have been described in three research reports on the QR course (Dingman and Madison 2010; Madison and Dingman 2010; Boersma et al. 2011). These principles were articulated more thoroughly in light of five research-based and one experience-based sets of criteria on student learning in the analysis of the QR course at the University of Arkansas in a reverse engineering process prompted by an increased need to evaluate, justify and improve the course and its outcomes.

⁶ The course was recommended narrowly but was questioned as to both its mathematical content and the ways that the success of the course would be measured. To be fair, many courses could be questioned on the latter issue, especially college algebra.

The process of taking something apart and revealing the way it works is often an effective way to learn how to build a device or make improvements to it; this is an aspect of reverse engineering. In order to reverse engineer the QR course I identified six collections of content and process standards and research findings on how students learn in college classrooms and used them as criteria for improvements and evaluation. In brief, these collections are:

- The six core competencies for QL as articulated in the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U) QL rubric (AAC&U 2009; Boersma et al. 2011).
- The five strands of mathematical proficiency from *Adding It Up* (Kilpatrick et al. 2001). This will be referred to as *Adding It Up*.
- The eight Standards for Mathematical Practice of the Common Core State Standards for Mathematics (CCSSM 2010).
- *The 5 Elements of Effective Thinking* as articulated by Edward Burger and Michael Starbird (2012).
- Three principles from *How People Learn* (Bransford et al. 2000) as applied to successful classroom practice. This will be referred to as *How People Learn*.
- Ten principles from *Applying the Science of Learning to University Teaching and Beyond* (Halpern and Hakel 2003).

Five of these six collections are based on research on student learning, and the sixth, by Burger and Starbird, is based on years of highly successful college classroom teaching. There are other possibilities for criteria, especially if one focuses more on immediate outcomes of QR courses rather than long-term retention and instructional design, the primary issues here. Examples are QR assessments such as the Quantitative Literacy & Reasoning Assessment (2012) and the Critical Thinking Assessment Test (Stein, Haynes and Redding 2007). Another possibility is a 1994 MAA committee report that gave a list of mathematical outcomes of QR in college (MAA 1994).

Of course, the real measure of the effectiveness of a course is student learning, especially the learning for long-term retrieval and transfer. Such measures are elusive for single college courses, to say the least, and other reasons why any measures of student learning are both difficult and of limited value will become apparent as we discuss the characteristics of the QR course in question and compare those characteristics to characteristics specified or implied by the six collections of standards and research findings. In the absence of traditional content for a QR course and reliable measures of desired learning outcomes, the six collections of criteria seem a reasonable approach to developing design specifications for or evaluating a QR course. Throughout, two rather startling conclusions from a report (Halpern and Hakel 2003) of the research findings on learning for long-term retrieval and transfer should serve as motivating beacons of a QR course design, and I present them here verbatim, for emphasis:

• "But, ironically (and embarrassingly), it would be difficult to design an educational model that is more at odds with the findings of current research about human cognition than the one being used today at most colleges and universities." (p. 38)

• "There is a large amount of well-intentioned feel-good psychobabble about teaching out there that falls apart upon investigation of the validity of the supporting evidence." (p. 41)

Evolution of the QR Course

As of this writing there are two QR courses, one with college algebra as a prerequisite and one without that prerequisite. The resolution of the relationship between these courses will take a few semesters, but both have the characteristics and philosophies discussed here. Consequently, "the QR course" will refer to either. First offered experimentally in fall 2004, the QR course has been offered each semester since. At present, the enrollment is approximately 600 students per year, mostly majors in the arts, humanities and social sciences. The course is taught in sections of 20-30 students in interactive classroom environments with tables for four, a document projector, and Internet access. The only textbook is the third edition of Case Studies for Quantitative Reasoning (referred to as the Casebook) (Madison et al. 2012) that evolved from duplicated notes and two earlier editions. The course was expanded and enhanced through the support of the National Science Foundation (DUE-0715039) from 2007 to 2012. Typically, the class meets twice weekly for 75-80 minutes throughout a semester. The *Casebook* has 30 case studies of media articles, consisting of an article, warm-up exercises, and study questions on the article. The topics of the case studies are sorted into six sections: 1) using numbers and quantities; 2) percent and percent change; 3) measurement and indices; 4) linear and exponential growth; 5) graphical interpretation and production; and 6) counting, probability, odds, and risk. A typical class meeting begins with students presenting or discussing at tables media articles they have found and brought to class that contain quantitative information. This feature has been referred to as News-of-the-Day, and students are sometimes awarded credits for presenting articles. There is usually a homework assignment of warm-up exercises, but the core activity is addressing the study questions, which probe the quantitative content of the article being discussed. Often, students address the study questions in groups of 3-4 at a single table. Quizzes and tests consist of exercises similar to the warm-up exercises and study questions on one or two articles new to the students. Mathematics is developed or reviewed as needed, when needed. For example, the sum of a geometric series is developed when needed for compounding interest or exploring installment savings or purchasing.

The success rate (grade of A, B, or C) for the course is over 80%, significantly higher than other introductory mathematics courses. The higher success rate is partly due to the prominent role of daily homework in the course but likely also due to the students' heightened interest in the subject matter. Student evaluations of the course have been favorable, and it has received high marks from faculty advisors in departments whose students enroll in the course. Pre- and post-tests were used in 2007-2008 to compare learning in this course with that in two other similar courses (see Table 1 for some summary results), and pre- and post-tests for an attitude survey were administered to the same populations. Although the results were not dramatic, learning gains as measured by the test were larger in the QR course and attitude shifts were all in the desired direction. Former students were surveyed by email after 2-3 years to see if they continued to

4

practice QR in looking at media articles⁷. The response rate was very low (42/300), but about half reported that they continued to practice QR; about 2/3 responded that their confidence in their QR ability had increased; and about 3/4 reported that they now believed QR to be more important to them. Various effects of the course, e.g., on productive disposition, are currently under investigation.

Table 1			
Comparative pre-test	t and post-test res	ults	
Fall 20	07 – 15 multiple-c	hoice items. Three differe	nt courses
Course	Number of Students	Number of Items with significant increase in mean scores (<i>p</i> <0.05)	Number of items with significant increase in mean scores (p<0.1)
Survey of Calculus	106	6	9
For All Practical Purposes	77	6	7
QR	96	9	10
Spring	2008 – 17 multiple	e-choice items. Two differe	ent courses
Course	Number of Students	Number of Items with significant increase in mean scores (p<0.05)	Number of items with significant increase in mean scores (p<0.1)
For All Practical Purposes	83	5	6
QR	95	5	9

Writing and critical reading have been important all along in responding to study questions. In fact, 26 of the 30 case studies have questions that require communication, including writing, and all 30 require interpretation, usually interpreting quantitative information given in words so it can be represented in another form, usually a function or an equation. See Table 2 below for the competency requirements of the case studies in the *Casebook* that are given in full on the website⁸ that supports the *Casebook*.

Table 2. Prevalence of competencies in questions and cases			
Competency	Percent of Study Questions	Percent of Case Studies	
Interpretation	67	100	
Representation	30	73	
Calculation	48	90	
Analysis/synthesis	35	90	
Assumption	7	40	
Communication	38	87	

Over the past three years a significant writing component has been added to a few sections of the course. The results of that and the belief that writing is important to

⁷ An important outcome of QR courses is development of a QR habit of mind that would be expected to continue beyond the course and beyond school. Assessment of such a habit of mind remains to be developed and demonstrated. See Boersma and Klyve (2013).

⁸ <u>http://www.cwu.edu/~boersmas/QRCW/mappingtesting/index.html</u>

improved QR prompted adding a significant formal writing requirement. The writing requirement, added in consultation with English composition program,⁹ adds to the rigor of the course as well as to the difficulty of teaching and assessment. Part of the reason for the writing requirement is to maintain the level of rigor and to protect against the course degenerating to the methods contained therein. The more important reason for adding writing is that writing strengthens quantitative reasoning (Madison 2012; Grawe and Rutz 2009) and increases the metacognitive skills of the students. Because the course requires instructors not only familiar with using case studies in a collaborative learning classroom but also with instruction and assessment in writing, the preparation of instructors for the QR course will be expanded to include writing.

Two challenges that have not been solved are:

- What contextual examples should be generalized and abstracted? The power of mathematics is in abstraction and generalization, and students should not only see this power when it is needed but should combine results of contextual examples with abstractions to increase the long-term retrieval and transfer (Halpern and Hakel 2003; *How People Learn* 2000).
- One of the research findings (*How People Learn* 2000: 16) about developing competence in an area of inquiry is to "understand facts and ideas in the context of a conceptual framework." What are the conceptual frameworks for a QR course, or, more generally, for QR?

Guidance and Boundaries for this Paper

The multiple, complex, and interrelated lists of criteria and principles needed here prompt me to offer some guidance to the reader and place some boundaries on the following discussion. First, the six lists of criteria measures will be articulated more fully than the abbreviated list above. Second, the design principles of the QR course will be listed and discussed both from the point of view of how they influence and are reflected in the QR course and how some of the criteria measures support the principles. Third, the criteria measures will each be discussed in light of how they are reflected in the QR course. Obviously, the six lists of criteria measures overlap and have numerous connections. Comparisons among the six sets of criteria will be minimal here to avoid distractions from our primary purpose of supporting the design principles by noting their alignment with the sets of criteria.

Criteria Measures

How the QR course fares with respect to the six sets of criteria described briefly above is discussed below. First, the criteria are given in more detail. The first set of criteria, the core proficiencies for QR as developed by AAC&U and adapted by Boersma et al.

⁹ Paired sections of the QR course and a composition course were tried, but students did not find an English and mathematics course for six semester hours very attractive. Having a composition instructor alongside a mathematics instructor in a writing intensive section of QR was far more appealing to students, but too labor intensive for staffing.

(2011), is the only set of the six criteria measures that was developed with QR in mind, so this set is listed first.

AAC&U QL Rubric and an Adaptation

In 2009, AAC&U published fifteen rubrics as products of its Valid Assessment of Learning in Undergraduate Education (VALUE) project. One of those fifteen was the Quantitative Literacy rubric.¹⁰ According to AAC&U, "the rubrics are intended for institutional-level use in evaluating and discussing student learning, not for grading." The author and colleagues (Boersma et al. 2011) adapted the AAC&U VALUE QL rubric to one to assess individual student work. The result was the Quantitative Literacy Assessment Rubric (QLAR).¹¹ Like the VALUE rubric, QLAR has six core competencies that are required for responses to QR prompts: interpretation, representation, calculation, analysis/synthesis,¹² assumption, and communication. These are described as follows:

- 1. *Interpretation*: Ability to glean and explain mathematical information presented in various forms (e.g., equations, graphs, diagrams, tables, words).
- 2. *Representation*: Ability to convert information from one mathematical form (e.g., equations, graphs, diagrams, tables, words) into another.
- 3. *Calculation*: Ability to perform arithmetical and mathematical calculations.
- 4. *Analysis/Synthesis*: Ability to make and draw conclusions based on quantitative analysis.
- 5. *Assumptions*: Ability to make and evaluate important assumptions in estimation, modeling, and data analysis.
- 6. *Communication*: Ability to explain thoughts and processes in terms of what evidence is used, how it is organized, presented, and contextualized.

Two of the six – interpretation and communication – involve critical reading and writing (or speaking). In fact, all but calculation can involve non-quantitative communication.

The next two sets of criteria are descriptions of mathematical proficiency (for K-12, but clearly more broadly applicable) that were developed by groups of mathematicians and mathematical educators and have bases in research on teaching and learning mathematics.

Mathematical Proficiency from Adding It Up

Adding It Up is a 2001 report of the Mathematics Learning Study Committee of the National Research Council that summarizes research results on mathematics learning from pre-kindergarten through grade 8. The model of mathematical proficiency articulated in Adding It Up consists of five intertwined strands that are described as follows.

¹⁰ See <u>http://www.aacu.org/value/rubrics/index_p.cfm</u>,

¹¹ See <u>http://www.cwu.edu/~boersmas/QRCW/Casebook/QLAR.pdf</u>.

¹² This was application/analysis in the QL VALUE rubric.

- 1. *Conceptual understanding*: Comprehension of mathematical concepts, operations and relations.
- 2. *Procedural fluency*: Skill in carrying out procedures flexibly, accurately, efficiently, and appropriately.
- 3. *Strategic competence*: Ability to formulate, represent, and solve mathematical problems.
- 4. *Adaptive reasoning*: Capacity for logical thought, reflection, explanation, and justification.
- 5. *Productive disposition*: Habitual inclination to see mathematics as sensible, useful, and worthwhile, coupled with a belief in diligence in one's own efficacy.

The Standards of Mathematical Practice of the Common Core State Standards

The Common Core State Standards' Standards for Mathematical Practice describe varieties of expertise that mathematics educators at all levels should seek to develop in their students (CCSSM 2010). These practices rest on important "processes and proficiencies" with longstanding importance in mathematics education. The first of these are the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM 2000) process standards of problem solving, reasoning and proof, communication, representation, and connections. The second consists of the strands of mathematical proficiency from *Adding It Up* as described above. The eight practice standards are below, each with a one-sentence description. The full descriptions of the standards are at the Common Core State Standards for Mathematics website.¹³ The eight practice standards will be referred to as CCSSM # where # is 1-8.

- 1. *Make sense of problems and persevere in solving them:* Mathematically proficient students start by explaining to themselves the meaning of a problem and looking for entry points to its solution.
- 2. *Reason abstractly and quantitatively:* Mathematically proficient students make sense of quantities and their relationships in problem situations.
- 3. *Construct viable arguments and critique the reasoning of others:* Mathematically proficient students understand and use stated assumptions, definitions, and previously established results in constructing arguments.
- 4. *Model with mathematics:* Mathematically proficient students can apply the mathematics they know to solve problems arising in everyday life, society, and the workplace.
- 5. *Use appropriate tools strategically:* Mathematically proficient students consider the available tools when solving a mathematical problem.
- 6. *Attend to precision:* Mathematically proficient students try to communicate precisely to others.

8

¹³ <u>http://www.corestandards.org/assets/CCSSI_Math%20Standards.pdf</u>

- 7. *Look for and make use of structure:* Mathematically proficient students look closely to discern a pattern or structure.
- 8. *Look for and express regularity in repeated reasoning:* Mathematically proficient students notice if calculations are repeated, and look both for general methods and for shortcuts.

The 5 Elements of Effective Thinking

The fourth set of criteria is documented largely with anecdotes from the classrooms of the book's two authors, Edward Burger and Michael Starbird, both notable award-winning collegiate mathematics faculty members. Although the title of the book (Burger and Starbird 2012) is *5 Elements*, there are four core building blocks of effective thinking; the fifth element, change, is an expected outcome of applying the first four. The authors use the five classical elements that were once believed to be the essential parts of nature and matter – earth, fire, air, and water, plus the quintessential heavenly element aether. Contrary to what was believed about aether (that it was incapable of change), Burger and Starbird have change as their fifth and quintessential element. Briefly, these four building blocks of effective thinking are (p. 6):

- *Earth* Understand deeply. Don't face complex issues head-on; first understand simple ideas deeply. Clear the clutter and expose what is really important.
- *Fire* Ignite insights by making mistakes. Fail to succeed. Intentionally get it wrong to inevitably get it more right. Mistakes are great teachers they highlight unforeseen opportunities and holes in your thinking.
- *Air* Raise questions. Constantly create questions to clarify and extend your understanding. What's the real question? Working on the wrong question can waste a lifetime. Be your own Socrates.
- *Water* Follow the flow of ideas. Look back to see where ideas came from and then look ahead to see where the ideas may lead. A new idea is a beginning, not an end.

Research Findings from How People Learn

Quantitative reasoning has become an indispensable skill for 21st century US residents. In *How People Learn* (2000: 4-5), the situation is summarized as follows:

In the early part of the twentieth century education focused on the acquisition of literacy skills: simple reading, writing, and calculating. It was not the general rule for educational system to train people to think and read critically, to express themselves clearly and persuasively, to solve complex problems in science and mathematics. Now, at the end of the century, these aspects of high literacy are required of almost everyone in order to successfully negotiate the complexities of contemporary life. The skill demands for work have increased dramatically, as has the need for organization and workers to change in response to competitive workplace pressures. Thoughtful participation in the democratic process has also become increasingly complicated, as the focus of attention has shifted from local to national and global concerns.

The expanded edition of *How People Learn* represents reports on the work of two National Research Council committees, both published in 1999, one that summarized research developments in the science of learning, and one that summarized research findings on linking learning research to classroom practices. The expanded volume,

published in 2000, begins with three key findings on how students learn. These findings have strong implications for teaching and are connected to our practices in the QR course as listed below (numerals indicating findings; *T* indicating implication for teaching).

1. Students come to the classroom with preconceptions about how the world works. If their initial understanding is not engaged, they may fail to grasp the new concepts and information that they are taught, or they may learn them for purposes of a test but revert to their preconceptions outside the classroom.

1T. Teachers must draw out and work with preexisting understandings that their students bring to them.

2. To develop competence in an area of inquiry, students must: (a) have a deep foundation of factual knowledge, (b) understand facts and ideas in the context of a conceptual framework, and (c) organize knowledge in ways that facilitate retrieval and application.

2T. Teachers must teach some subject matter in depth, providing many examples in which the same concept is at work and providing a firm foundation of factual knowledge.

3. A "metacognitive" approach to instruction can help students learn to take control of their own learning by defining learning goals and monitoring their progress in achieving them.

3T. The teaching of metacognitive skills should be integrated into the curriculum in a variety of subject areas.

Principles from Applying the Science of Learning to the University and Beyond

What can research on human learning tell us about how to best conduct classes in college (or in any adult education setting) to teach for long-term retention and transfer? About a dozen years ago 30 experts from different areas of the learning sciences met to answer this question. As reported by Halpern and Hakel (2003), these experts identified ten "basic laboratory-tested" principles drawn from what is known about human learning. They follow below and will be referred to as Halpern and Hakel # with # being 1-10.

- 1. The single most important variable in promoting long-term retention and transfer is "practice at retrieval."
- 2. Varying the conditions under which learning takes place makes learning harder for learners but results in better learning.
- 3. Learning is generally enhanced when learners are required to take information that is presented in one format and "re-represent" it in an alternate format.
- 4. What and how much is learned in any situation depends heavily on prior knowledge and experience.
- 5. Learning is influenced by both our students' and our own epistemologies.

- 6. Experience alone is a poor teacher. Too few examples can situate learning. Many learners don't know the quality of their comprehension and need systematic and corrective feedback.
- 7. Lectures work well for learning assessed with recognition tests, but work badly for understanding.
- 8. The act of remembering itself influences what learners will and will not remember in the future. Asking learners to recall particular pieces of information (as on a test) that have been taught often leads to "selective forgetting" of related information that they were not asked to recall.
- 9. Less is more, especially when we think about long-term retention and transfer. Restricted content is better.
- 10. What learners do determines what and how much is learned, how well it will be remembered, and the conditions under which it will be recalled.

Design Principles for the QR Course

As the QR course was refined and expanded over the past eight years, some principles have evolved and been articulated in composing curricular materials and in conducting the QR classes. Some of these are strongly influenced by the circumstances of having a one-semester QR course with no continuing formal education in QR. These ten principles are articulated and discussed in the following with references to the six sets of criteria.

1. Provide a venue for continued practice beyond the course (and beyond school). Ouantitative reasoning is a habit of mind, and habits are developed by practice. Especially because the QR course is for only one semester, extending the practice of QR beyond the course is critical for long-term recall and transfer. As noted in Halpern and Hakel 8, the act of remembering influences what learners will and will not remember in the future. The venue for continued practice for the QR course is media articles with quantitative content. The course utilizes case studies of media articles as the focus of study; the Casebook for the course consists of 30 such case studies. Media articles similar to the ones discussed in the course are now and will continue to be part of the everyday world of the students. There are several examples of successful application in professional education in the US of using problem-based case studies that prepare one for professional practice, even using the word, practice. Among these are case studies in education, medicine, law, architecture, social work, and business. Quantitative reasoning is analogous to a lifelong profession, as effective quantitative reasoning will be needed for informed performance as citizens and for personal prosperity. The QR course moves students toward developing their own habits of analysis of media articles, taking charge of their learning as promoted by principles from How People Learn and by Burger and Starbird (2012). In one of the activities in the QR course, students develop study questions about articles they bring to class, possibly as a News-of-the-Day contribution. Study questions, like those in the Casebook, can aim at, for examples, clarification of quantitative content, checking of quantitative assertions, or extending the quantitative conclusions. The variety is so extensive as to defy definition. This encourages the use of questioning to increase understanding, the element of air by Burger and Starbird (2012).

2. Keep the material relevant to students' everyday contemporary world. According to John Dewey, "School should be less about preparation for life and more about life itself." Connecting classroom learning to the everyday contemporary world not only can enhance learning at the time of study in the classroom but can lead students to adapt their classroom learning to the changing environment of everyday life. As noted in *How People Learn* (2000: 73), "The ultimate goal of schooling is to help students transfer what they have learned in school to everyday settings of home, community, and workplace." The variety of media articles and contexts in non-school environments in the QR course regularly requires adapting thinking in one context to another context. Again following *How People Learn* (2000: 73), "Since these environments change rapidly, it is also important to explore ways to help students develop the characteristics of adaptive expertise." Adaptive reasoning is one of the five strands of mathematical proficiency from *Adding It Up*.

Another of the strands of mathematical proficiency is productive disposition, a double edged proficiency depending on students seeing that mathematics (or QR) is sensible, useful, and worthwhile, coupled with a belief in their ability to understand and use it. Keeping the material relevant to the students' lives aims directly at half of this proficiency.

For various reasons, subject matter should be fresh and authentic. Even older¹⁴ articles can be related to the present, as in Burger and Starbird's looking forward and backward. For example, a 2003 article on a political debate about how to measure the budget deficit (nominal dollars, constant dollars, or percent of GDP) easily relates to the current continuing discussion of deficits and national debt. Or a 2001 opinion piece about the economics of increasing the fuel efficiency of automobiles is analogous to the economics of choosing between a hybrid version and a gasoline version of a type of automobile.

Over the decade of developing the QR course, paper copies of newspapers and magazines have continued to give way to online sources, and online sources are available via numerous personal technologies. The shifting of sources and methods of delivery have changed the way students access media articles and has increased the variety (and uncertain reliability) of articles, adding importance to the question of evaluation of the information reported.

There are potential problems with learning in contexts. As stated in *How People Learn* (2000: 77), "Simply learning to perform procedures and learning in a single context, does not promote flexible transfer," leading to design principle 3.

3. Use multiple contexts to practice quantitative reasoning. According to Halpern and Hakel (2002; 2003), "The purpose of formal education is transfer" (p. 38 in 2003). Halpern and Hakel go on to identify retrieval in multiple contexts as one of the most basic principles to enhancing long-term retention and transfer of learning, and that spaced, not massed, practice at retrieval is best. In a one-semester QR course, significant spacing of retrieval is not possible. Consequently, there is more need for continued practice at retrieval beyond the course. With multiple contexts, students are more likely to abstract the relevant features of concepts and develop a more-flexible representation of knowledge, whereas instruction based on single contexts may lead to situated learning.

¹⁴ a few years to an 18-year-old!

Contextual situations need to be abstracted and generalized, which is closely related to principle 4.

4. Promote appreciation of arithmetical precision and the power of mathematical concepts and processes. This fourth principle is difficult to apply in a QR course that is based on analyzing contextual situations, especially so when contextual circumstances dictate degrees of reasonable accuracy. The CCSSM practice standard, attend to precision, has to be interpreted appropriately here because attending to precision is influenced by context.

Developing mathematical formulas and models when they are needed points to reasons why the work is worthwhile. As stated in *How People Learn* (2000: 139), "An alternative to simply progressing through a series of exercises that derive from a scope and sequence chart is to expose students to the major features of a subject domain as they arise naturally in problem situations. ... Ideas are best introduced when students see a need or a reason for their use – this helps them see relevant uses of knowledge to make sense of what they have learned." In the QR course, an example of this just-in-time-as-needed development is summing of a geometric series when the length of the sum has exceeded calculator capability.

Much of the power in mathematics is in abstraction and generalization, and this is a motivation for the eight CCSSM practice standards. In fact, it is stressed in CCSSM 7, look for and make use of structure, and CCSSM 8, look for and express regularity in repeated reasoning. Abstraction and generalization trouble many students, especially those who are somewhat math-phobic. By seeing uses of and reasons for abstraction and generalization, their difficulties can be reduced. However, multiple uses of similar processes in different contexts give rise to the need for abstraction and generalization, which can organize information to facilitate retrieval.

5. Help students to structure their quantitative reasoning in resolving problematic situations, including ample doses of critical reading and writing. One way to help students structure their quantitative reasoning is to use the core competencies of interpretation, representation, calculation, analysis/synthesis, assumptions, and communication (AAC&U 2010; Boersma et al. 2011). If students understand that they need some or all of these six competencies to address a QR situation, then they can organize their responses accordingly and produce a full response. Curricular materials and questioning prompts should be composed in consideration of which competencies are needed for the proper responses. For example, if the student should communicate a response in writing, the prompt should so indicate. Requiring students to write responses promotes clearer thinking and deeper understanding, and writing requirements should progress from sentences to paragraphs to multi-page reports. Students in one of the sections of the QR course in Spring 2012 commented about combining writing and quantitative reasoning (called math by many students). One wrote, "... instead of just working a problem and moving on, I had to evaluate the process and determine how to explain the process in words." Another was more explicit, showing some negativism toward mathematics, "Math is virtually useless without proper communication of its meaning." College faculty who were participants at a 2012 Conference on Interdisciplinary Teaching and Learning at Michigan State University discussed why writing was an effective vehicle for assessing interdisciplinary learning. As one participant stated, "writing manifests thinking." Students need to get writing structure down in order to progress intellectually and communicate that progress to others. Reflective writing can reveal how well students are integrating ideas from different sources or disciplines. One participant quoted from Richard Guindon's 1989 *San Francisco Chronicle* cartoon: "Writing is nature's way of showing you how sloppy your thinking is."

The QR course now has multiple (currently, four) significant writing assignments (200-500 words) with peer review of the first draft by 2-3 classmates. This moves students toward taking charge of their learning by not only having them judge their own writing but also judge each other's writing. Of course, writing prompts are aimed at having quantitative reasoning as a significant part of an appropriate response.

6. Encourage on-the-fly calculations and estimations. If students are able to quickly assess the validity of a quantitative assertion or mentally compute a numerical result, then they will be more able to practice QR in many aspects of their daily lives. This increased practice will strengthen their analysis and calculation, thereby building formidable QR skills. This practice is one of the places where one can develop automaticity of skills. Facility with mental arithmetic and estimation allows one to "function effectively without being overwhelmed by attentional requirements" (*How People Learn* 2000: 139). This skill is part of the *Adding It Up* strand of procedural fluency, i.e. ability to carry out procedures flexibly, accurately, efficiently, and appropriately. This practice is also part of CCSSM 6, attend to precision. Knowing the degree of accuracy needed to understand a quantitative situation allows for simplification that promotes mental calculations. Further, knowing the constraints that contexts place on precision not only allows simplification but also reflection on the contextual circumstances.

7. Increase students' supplies of quantitative benchmarks. Personal quantitative benchmarks are critical for understanding quantities and being able to determine reasonableness of quantitative assertions or numerical answers to questions. Having known benchmarks to measure results of reasoning can help learners know the quality of their comprehension. Comprehending quantities, especially very large or very small ones, can be aided by expressing them in personally understandable units. One's personally understandable units depend heavily on one's supply of personal quantitative benchmarks. Joel Best (2008: 7) points to the importance of statistical benchmarks in spotting dubious data. "Having a small store of factual knowledge prepares us to think critically about statistics. Just a little bit of knowledge – a few basic numbers and one important rule of thumb – offers a framework, enough basic information to let us begin to spot questionable figures." Best gives four benchmarks that go a long way in understanding US social statistics. These are the US population (approx. 300 million), the annual birth rate (approx. 4 million), the annual death rate (approx. 2.4 million), and the approximate fractions of the population of major ethnic or racial groups.

At the 2012 Quantitative Reasoning Symposium in Mathematics in Savannah, GA, Gail Jones (North Carolina State University) began a presentation by showing a highly magnified image of part of a familiar biological entity and began showing successive images with less magnification (Jones 2012). She asked audience members to take note of the point at which they were able to identify the entity. Namely, at what magnification was the entity understandable—i.e., when could you recognize what it was? (In my case, it was at either the penultimate image or the final image that I was able to see that the entity was a common ant.) Understanding the whole better than parts of the whole is an

inversion of the problem given students in a think-aloud session, namely, express \$1.2 trillion in terms that make it understandable to you. One reasonable solution was to note that \$1.2 trillion is enough to purchase every person in the states of Arkansas and Kentucky a house costing approximately \$150,000 each. Note that in the ant visualization example, one understands by seeing the whole, or nearly whole, animal as opposed to small pieces magnified. In the \$1.2-trillion example one understands by breaking the large entity into smaller pieces. Of course, experts on ants might recognize the ant at higher magnifications of its parts, and managers of large money accounts might not need to re-express the \$1.2 trillion.

As students use quantitative benchmarks, their supply grows, as does their understanding of quantities. Broadening the possibilities of comprehending quantities is consistent with Burger and Starbird's understanding deeply, clearing the clutter of meaningless measurements.

8. Encourage students to use technology to enhance and expedite understanding. Technology, including personal devices, is omnipresent in the everyday lives of QR students, so it is leveraged in service of understanding. As examples, students are encouraged to use technology for calculations exceeding on-the-fly abilities, to graph functions on graphing calculators, and to use spreadsheets for repetitive calculations. In QR class sections, a statistic or another piece of information is often needed. Students use smart phones or sometimes rely on one designated student as "Googler of the Day." How personal technologies affect learning is not clear; research projects to determine answers will have difficulty keeping pace with the changing technologies. However, since these technologies are certain to be a part of students' future everyday lives, they are a part of the QR classes. As stated in the CCSSM 5, use appropriate tools strategically.

9. Allow student interests to emerge. As reported in *How People Learn* (2000: 77), "Students are motivated to spend time needed to learn complex problems that they find interesting. Opportunities to use knowledge to create products and benefits for others are particularly motivating for students." The QR class addresses student interests by way of students finding media articles with quantitative content, bringing them to class and explaining them to the class or formulating questions (like the study questions in the *Casebook*) that they can or cannot answer. Students who are interested in baseball may bring a comparison of the statistics of Albert Pujols and Henry Aaron. Students who are interested in the military may bring a statistical analysis of military budgets of different countries. Increasing student interest encourages student-generated questioning, one of the four elements of effective thinking.

10. Provide interactive classroom environment. Inquiry-based learning is emphasized in the QR classes, and students often work in groups of 3-4. Social interaction is important as a motivation and as a vehicle for developing understanding. According to Halpern and Hakel 10, "What learners do determines what and how much is learned, how well it will be remembered, and the conditions under which it will be recalled" (p. 41). Inquiry-based learning and interactive classrooms are fundamental in the elements of effective thinking by Burger and Starbird. Understanding deeply, making mistakes, asking questions, and looking forward and backward are common components of interactive classrooms.

How Criteria Are Reflected in the QR Course

The discussion above indicates how the QR course design principles are supported by some of the criteria in the six sets. Below, each of the six sets is discussed as to how it is reflected in and influences the QR course.

Core Competencies and the QR Course

The QR core competencies – interpretation, representation, calculation, analysis/ synthesis, assumption, and communication – serve multiple purposes. They provide the basis for rubrics to assess student work; they offer ways to structure students' understandings; they are reminders of what we are seeking to develop in curricular materials and assessments. There are 268 study questions in the 30 case studies in the 3rd edition of the *Casebook*. Although most (1st and 2nd editions) of the *Casebook* was written before the QL core competencies were articulated, the changes for the 3rd edition focused on incorporating what was learned from adapting the AAC&U rubric to assess student work (Boersma et al. 2011). The competencies to assess with study questions were classified, and the rubric for scoring student work was incorporated in the introduction of the *Casebook*. The proportions of the 30 case studies and the 268 study questions that require each of the six competencies are shown in Table 2.

An example of a case study (Boersma et al. 2011, p. 7) where the study questions require all six competencies is an op-ed article that argues that forcing fuel efficiency on consumers does not work. The argument is based on the economics of buyers, namely making assertions that the \$1466 extra for a more fuel-efficient pick-up truck is a bad investment. Study questions focus on testing the economic assertions made in the article. Interpretation, representation, calculation, analysis/synthesis, and communication are required for answers to several of the questions, and assumptions need to be made about the cost of gasoline and the number of miles driven annually.

Strands from Adding It Up and the QR Course

Although the five strands – conceptual understanding, procedural fluency, adaptive reasoning, strategic competence, and productive disposition - were part of the basis for the CCSSM standards for mathematical practice, the articulation of these five as above is more succinct and identifies what appears to be a critical proficiency for many of our students – productive disposition.

The core competencies in QLAR are manifestations of these and related proficiencies. In work with QR students, productive disposition seems to be critically important for practicing QR in contemporary society, and all six core competencies seem to depend on productive disposition. As reported in describing the experience in developing the QRCW course (Dingman and Madison 2010), the students are initially (on average) negative about their view of and experiences in mathematics, both in its utility to them and their abilities to use it. Improving this productive disposition is paramount in efforts to help the students toward stronger QR.

Interpretation in QLAR depends more on conceptual understanding; representation depends more on both conceptual understanding and strategic competence; calculation is strongly related to procedural fluency; analysis/synthesis depends on strategic competence and adaptive reasoning as does assumptions; and communication is closest to

adaptive reasoning. Reflection, explanation, and justification in adaptive reasoning play major roles in resolving contemporary QR situations.

CCSSM Practice Standards and the QR Course

Practice standards 1, 2, 3, and 4 are dominant in contemporary QR as addressed in the QR course. Making sense of problems; modeling with mathematics or statistics; reasoning quantitatively; and drawing, supporting and communicating conclusions are integral parts of QR. Critiquing the reasoning of others is often the entry point into a QR situations as they appear in public media articles. Practice standards 5–8 are less central to QR. There is attention to precision (CCSSM 6), but most attention focuses on the precision needed or possible in resolving the QR situation. Certainly the use of appropriate units is crucial in QR and somewhat unusual as noted above in QR course design principle 7. Tools (CCSSM 5) for our QR students include calculators (and sometimes, spreadsheets) and quantitative benchmarks for detecting reasonableness of answers. CCSSM standards 7 and 8 are less obvious in resolving QR situations.

5 Elements and the QR Course

Burger and Starbird's five elements are aimed at students (and others) taking control of their own learning, as in *How People Learn* #3. Although there are anecdotes from their classrooms that illustrate the five elements in action, the real message is to the learner-thinker.

Earth. Burger and Starbird (2012) get at teaching in depth of *How People Learn* #2 in several ways. While giving advice on how to understand deeply, they say, "Sweat the small stuff" (p. 25). They note that when studying some complex issue, instead of attacking it in its entirety, find one small element of it and solve that part completely.

Deep understanding at first blush seems like something that one cannot achieve in a one-semester QR course. In fact, as mathematics faculty tend to judge mathematics courses, they are likely to consider a QR course such as the one discussed here as not promoting or requiring deep understanding. They likely are judging on the depth of understanding of the mathematical concepts and not on the sophisticated and habitual use of rather elementary mathematical concepts to understand quantitative situations. Deep understanding of ratios, proportions, rates of change, and graphical representations are not the aim of most college mathematics courses, but they are among the aims of the QR course. Clearing the clutter in analyzing a quantitative argument in a media article and getting to the gist is a critical first step in understanding. This requirement of depth in understanding contextual situations is one of the major distinctions of a quality QR course.

Fire. Mistakes can be great teachers, but QR students initially are not inclined to venture opinions or propose solutions. In the QR class every mistake is a learning opportunity. This is a major issue in the student presentations of News-of-the-Day articles. Many students are reluctant to stand up in front of a class (and the teacher) and demonstrate their quantitative reasoning, which often contains errors. Reluctance can be defused by handling mistakes carefully and straightforwardly because everyone makes mistakes, and everyone can learn from them. One of the most common mistakes occurs in backing up a percentage change. Canonically, one knows the value of a quantity now and a percent change from some point in the past and wants to find the value at the point in the past.

About ³/₄ of the students entering the QR course answer this incorrectly, and these same mistakes persist throughout the semester. This canonical mistake in a News-of-the-Day presentation provides an opportunity to point out how common this is and urge remembering the correct way. By semester's end, about half the students still make this mistake.

Air. Raising questions by QR students is initially stymied by the same attitudes that keep them from venturing solutions or opinions. Their experiences in traditional mathematics and statistics courses point them toward responding to questions that have definite and often unique answers. The core material in the *Casebook* consists of study questions on media articles that serve as examples of questioning that they should employ in QR in everyday life beyond the course. Many of these questions do not have clearly defined answers, which can be frustrating to students not accustomed to such situations. However, the vague nature of some situations invites student questioning, and QR instructors model such questioning, especially in regard to News-of-the-Day articles being presented by students.

Water. News media articles invite looking backward at the origins of the information and forward to where it might lead. Further, the ideas developed in exploring and understanding one media article are often applicable to other articles. So the flow of ideas has two channels, one regarding a particular context of one article and one that takes the understanding of one article and utilizes it in understanding other articles, perhaps even in very different contexts. As an example, one of the QR case studies aims at understanding inflation by way of looking at the cost of a product (in this case, the Chuck Taylor All Star canvas shoe) that has remained essentially the same over the past half century. This is a very real situation as it is often the case that some student in a QR class may be wearing the All Star shoe. One has the chance to think backward to the 1950s and forward to see what the shoe might cost in 20 years. And the ideas here easily extend to more complex situations, say, considering arguments about how to measure federal revenues, spending, and deficits or surpluses.

How People Learn and the QR Course

The three principles, in brief, are: (1 and 1T) engaging preexisting understandings; (2 and 2T) factual knowledge, conceptual framework, and facilitating retrieval; and (3 and 3T) metacognition. How does the QR course respond to these principles?

1 and 1T. Some of the preconceptions that students bring to the QR course are molded by their experiences in previous mathematics classes (Dingman and Madison 2010). They are accustomed to courses with structured lectures, template problems, textbooks with numerous example exercises, and homework that utilizes the method of the day to solve problems that have one and only one solution. Because this is very different from the everyday QR challenges these students will face, the QR course and "textbook" are different. The absence of multiple template problems frustrates some students, illustrating that varying conditions of learning makes it more difficult for students but results in more learning. Students are also not accustomed to seeing mathematics, especially algebra, as a tool for understanding media articles, and this is the central purpose of the QR course. Students usually are not prepared to make the connections between the QR circumstances and their previous learning in arithmetic and algebra. They do not see the utility of their

arithmetic and algebra in resolving the QR issues, and so these connections are made within the QR class often serving to review the algebra, in particular.

2 and 2T. Presentation of an organized set of facts is not specified in the QR course. The knowledge that students are to apply consists of mathematics and statistics learned in school or early college. Beyond that, they need to understand or learn the basics of various contexts – political, social, economic, etc. – of the media articles in the case studies and articles brought to class by students. One of the weaknesses (noted above) of the QR course is in developing conceptual frameworks for QR, and the absence of conceptual frameworks takes away a powerful retrieval and transfer mechanism.

3 and 3T. The one-semester QR course functions like a prelude to continuing practice beyond the course. Having students take charge of their learning is a major goal. Much of what is done is aimed at that: creating a venue for continued practice, contexts from contemporary student life, increasing the supply of personal quantitative benchmarks, asking good questions, reflective writing on answers, and being able to judge ones comprehension.

Applying the Science of Learning to the University and Beyond *and the QR Course*

What can research on human learning tell us about how to best conduct classes in college (or in any adult education setting) to teach for long-term retention and transfer? About a dozen years ago 30 experts from different areas of the learning sciences met to answer this question. As reported by Halpern and Hakel (2003), these experts identified ten "basic laboratory-tested" principles drawn from what we know about human learning. They follow below, and after each principle, connections to the QR course are given.

- 1. The single most important variable in promoting long-term retention and transfer is "practice at retrieval." Practice at retrieval within the QR course can take place with questioning in class, collaborative learning situations where one student explains to another, and responding to assessment items or homework assignments. Spaced practice is better than massed practice, so spreading concepts such as relative change versus absolute change over an entire course, in different contexts, facilitates learning for long-term transfer.
- 2. Varying the conditions under which learning takes place makes learning harder for learners but results in better learning. The absence of template problems, as noted above, is the main adherence of our QR course to this principle. Each case study is different, but there are conceptual strands that run through multiple cases. Identifying and emphasizing these strands remains one of the challenges of the course.
- 3. Learning is generally enhanced when learners are required to take information that is presented in one format and "re-represent" it in an alternate format. As noted earlier, all of the case studies and 2/3 of the study questions require interpretation (i.e., gleaning and explaining information presented in various forms) and ³/₄ of the cases require representation, i.e., converting information from one mathematical form to another.

- 4. What and how much is learned in any situation depends heavily on prior knowledge and experience. This principle is basically the same issue as 1 and 1T above, so the discussion there applies. In addition, all of the QR students have demonstrated modest facility with algebra, and almost all have been successful in two English composition courses.
- 5. Learning is influenced by both our students' and our own epistemologies. One of our findings about the QR students is that they are weak on productive disposition, i.e., the habitual inclination to see mathematics as sensible, useful, and worthwhile, coupled with a belief in diligence in one's own efficacy. A principal aim of the QR course is to convince students that QR is important to them and that they are capable of making use of it in their daily lives.
- 6. **Experience alone is a poor teacher.** Too few examples can situate learning and deter transfer. Many learners do not know the quality of their comprehension and need systematic and corrective feedback. The use of a variety of authentic cases can point out to students the consequences of various conclusions in real-life situations. The feedback can convince students that their experiences are not conclusive and push them to consider other alternatives.
- 7. Lectures work well for learning assessed with recognition tests, but work badly for understanding. Learning via case studies as in the QR course does not rely on extensive lecturing, relying more on just-in-time mini-lectures to address a needed concept or method. Assessments are not recognition tests and the QR habits rely more on questioning, relationships, and elementary arithmetic than on algorithms and formulas.
- 8. The act of remembering itself influences what learners will and will not remember in the future. Asking learners to recall particular pieces of information (as on a test) that have been taught often leads to "selective forgetting" of related information that they were not asked to recall. As noted above, the QR course does not emphasize facts and processes that students need to remember. Identifying a few conceptual frameworks that have broad application would alleviate the possibility of promoting "selective forgetting."
- 9. Less is more, especially when we think about long-term retention and transfer. Restricted content is better. The mathematical and statistical methods in the QR course are quite restricted but broadly applicable. Mathematical formulas or concepts are developed only if there is an immediate reason, and most of those developed have broad applications to QR.
- 10. What learners do determines what and how much is learned, how well it will be remembered, and the conditions under which it will be recalled. We keep the admonition that the mind remembers what it does in front of all our instruction. Collaborative inquiry-based learning is a major theme of the course.

Final Thoughts

The QR course was not designed with the principles listed above explicitly stated. Nor was it designed in overt consideration of any of the six sets of criteria, except perhaps the

research results on human cognition, which were reasonably well known to the author as the course was initiated and refined by the author and colleagues S. Dingman, S. Boersma, and C. Diefenderfer over the past eight years. And looking at the result in light of the six sets of criteria has no doubt influenced forming the now-recognized ten design principles. The qualitative evidence that the design principles of the course align reasonably well with most of the principles in the six sets of criteria is a good starting point for a more rigorous evaluation of the course. The alignment is far from perfect. As noted earlier there are two unresolved alignment issues:

- 1. What contextual examples should be generalized and abstracted to take advantage of the power of mathematics?
- 2. What are the conceptual frameworks for QR?

The alignment with the QL core competencies is understandably strong since these are competencies for QR. The alignment with the five strands of mathematical proficiency is stronger than that with the practice standards of CCSSM, which are attuned more to traditional mathematics proficiency. Alignment with the *5 Elements* of Burger and Starbird (2012) seems reasonably strong, but the explication of these in their book by the authors points clearly to the personal pedagogies of the authors, so alignment here likely depends more on the implemented course. Alignment with the principles from *How People Learn* and those articulated by Halpern and Hakel (2003) is probably the strongest of all, and this might be surprising except for the fact noted above that I knew of these principles before I began designing and teaching the QR course. There are sprinkles of other evaluations, some pre- and post-test data, and some follow up survey data of former students. Most of the evidence appears to support the conclusion that the design of the course supports strong learning by QR students.

However there are uncertainties. One is the uncertainty of how well aligned the implemented course is with the designed course. With most of the instructors inexperienced in leading this kind of course, implementation can vary from design. The design has been reviewed rather thoroughly during the past year, and professional development programs for QR instructors are being formulated.

Until there are assessment instruments that are reliable measures of long-term retention and transfer or QR habits of mind, qualitative evidence of alignment with research-based principles that apply to QR learning will continue to be useful. These principles constitute a fairly high standard as indicated by the six sets of criteria here, and not the "well-intentioned feel-good psychobabble about teaching out there that falls apart upon investigation of the validity of the supporting evidence," as quoted from Halpern and Hakel (2003) in the introduction. Such alignment with accepted principles adds some concurrent validity to the face validity of the QR course at the University of Arkansas.

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24



Breakout 2

QR across the Curriculum: From Creating Assignments to Measuring Outcomes

E. Gaze



Numeracy Advancing Education in Quantitative Literacy

Manuscript 1147

Teaching Quantitative Reasoning: A Better Context for Algebra

Eric Gaze

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Teaching Quantitative Reasoning: A Better Context for Algebra

Abstract

This editorial questions the preeminence of algebra in our mathematics curriculum. The GATC (Geometry, Algebra, Trigonometry, Calculus) sequence abandons the fundamental middle school math topics necessary for quantitative literacy, while the standard super-abundance of algebra taught in the abstract fosters math phobia and supports a culturally acceptable stance that math is not relevant to everyday life. Although GATC is seen as a pipeline to STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics), it is a mistake to think that the objective of producing quantitatively literate citizens is at odds with creating more scientists and engineers. The goal must be to create a curriculum that addresses the quantitative reasoning needs of all students, providing meaningful engagement in mathematics that will simultaneously develop quantitative literacy and spark an interest in STEM fields. In my view, such a curriculum could be based on a foundation of proportional reasoning leading to higher-order quantitative reasoning via modeling (including algebraic reasoning and problem solving) and statistical literacy through the exploration and study of data.

Keywords

quantitative reasoning, STEM education, proportional reasoning, modeling, statistical literacy

Cover Page Footnote

Eric Gaze is President of the National Numeracy Network. A mathematician, he is the Director of the Quantitative Reasoning Program at Bowdoin College, and Lecturer in the mathematics department. Eric has been involved with developing QR curricula for over 15 years and leads workshops around the country on teaching and assessing QR.

Introduction

There has been a steady growth of QR-type courses since 1995 with Math for the Liberal Arts and Finite Math enrollments rising 63% from 195,000 students in 1995 to 318,000 students in 2010 (Table 1).¹ Meanwhile, Calculus I enrollments rose only 20% over the same period, from 250,000 to 300,000 It is worth underscoring that the two general education math courses exceeded mainstream Calculus I enrollments 318,000 to 300,000 in fall 2010.

Conference Board of Mathematical Sciences 2010 Survey* (Enrollments in thousands)						
	1995	2000	2005	2010		
Two-year colleges						

Two-year colleges						
Finite Math	24	19	22	18		
Liberal Arts Math	38	43	59	91		
Calculus I	58	53	51	65		
Four-year colleges and universities						
Finite Math	59	82	94	62		
Liberal Arts Math	74	86	123	147		
Calculus I	192	192	201	235		
* Blair et al 2013					1	

* Blair et al. 2013

Table 1

Even so, Math for Life: Crucial Ideas You Didn't Learn in School by Jeffrey Bennett (Bennett 2012; Gaze 2012) raises the still-relevant question of why the current mathematics curriculum is so devoid of the material needed to navigate our personal worlds of finance, business, and citizenship. We in the National Numeracy Network and the QR movement are undoubtedly familiar with the rationale for the "GATC" sequence (Geometry, Algebra, Trigonometry, Calculus). It is billed as a pipeline to the STEM fields (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics) and, hence, the critical professions that drive job growth and scientific/technological innovation. Conventional wisdom dictates that calculus, in particular, holds pre-eminent status as the gateway to STEM. Fifty years ago, if you asked STEM faculty in universities and colleges for the mathematical pre-requisites for success in calculus, they undoubtedly would reply algebra, with a bit more algebra, some trig, and then more algebra. Not only does the GATC sequence completely abandon the fundamental middle school math topics necessary for quantitative literacy but this super-abundance of algebra taught in the abstract fosters math phobia and supports the *culturally acceptable* stance that math is not relevant to everyday life.

1

¹ Data are from the CBMS 2010 Survey of Undergraduate Mathematical Sciences Programs (Conference Board of the Mathematical Sciences). For the full report, see Blair, Kirkman, and Maxwell, 2013.

The unquestioned super-importance of algebra has been close to gospel in the mathematics education community. U.S. Secretary of Education Arne Duncan's speech April 15, 2011, to the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) contains the line: "Algebra is the key to success in college."² Educators are, however, beginning to question this bold claim. Consider NCTM President Michael Shaughnessy's message in February 2011 titled: "Endless Algebra – The Deadly Pathway from High School Mathematics to the College Mathematics"³ This is a good example of two well-meaning advocates arriving at radically opposed positions while looking at the same data: Of the 4,012,770-member cohort of 2001 9th graders, only 1,303,050 were college-ready in fall 2005 and only 166,530 graduated with a STEM degree in the next six years (on or before May 2011). The paltry 166,530 STEM degrees (4% of the entering 9th grade cohort) led Secretary Duncan to conclude we are experiencing a STEM crisis and need to increase the numbers of STEM graduates by "increasing the rigor of what is taught in the classroom" (i.e., algebra). Mike Shaugnessy, on the other hand, looks at the other 3,846,240 students (96%) for whom the "tunnel of repetitive algebra" paid no dividends and sees a *QR crisis*; he asks for a better mathematical experience for these students.

Just how crowded is this tunnel of repetitive algebra? The developmental math program at two-year colleges is centered on algebra with 61% of all math enrollments at two-year schools in Fall 2010 in some flavor of algebra (Table 2). This statistic is even higher given that 30% of two-year schools have their precollege level math programs offered outside of the math department in developmental (remedial) programs.

(Ilousalius)					
	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010
Pre-College Level					
Pre-Algebra	45	91	87	137	226
Elementary Algebra (HS level)	262	304	292	380	428
Intermediate Algebra (HS level)	261	263	255	336	344
Pre-Calculus Level					
College Algebra	153	186	173	206	230
College Algebra + Trigonometry	18	17	16	14	11
Total	1272	1425	1347	1696	2024
* Dl-in -+ -1 2012					

lable 2	
Enrollments in Math Courses at Two-Year Colleges* (Enrollments in	1
thousands)	

* Blair et al. 2013

T 11 A

² http://www.ed.gov/news/speeches/math-teachers-nation-builders-21st-century (accessed 11 June 2012)

³ http://www.nctm.org/about/content.aspx?id=28195 (accessed 11 June 2012)

For students enrolled in these courses, algebra is not so much the key to success in college as the barrier to entry. To continue to teach these students the standard form of algebra over and over hoping for a better result is pointless. What is needed is a better way to teach algebra. A rigorous QR course can provide just the setting by grounding algebra in real-world context. The QR community appreciates the severity of the STEM crisis and does not see addressing the QR crisis (creating quantitatively literate citizens) as being at odds with creating more scientists and engineers. In some sense, they are two sides of the same coin. The QR community seeks to create a curriculum that addresses the quantitative reasoning needs of all students, providing meaningful engagement in mathematics that will simultaneously develop quantitative literacy and spark an interest in STEM fields. NCTM President Mike Shaughnessy points out that the current "layer cake of algebra-dominated mathematics" exists solely to prepare students for calculus, and he offers four concrete alternative pathways:

- 1. Data analysis, combinatorics, probability and numerical trends/modeling.
- 2. Statistical thinking and decision making.
- 3. Linear algebra.
- 4. Multivariate applications of calculus and statistics.

Quantitative Reasoning courses can provide the necessary foundation for this mathematics curriculum, building and developing the critical middle school mathematics topics that currently are abandoned in high school but serve as the foundation for numeracy. In addition, a QR course can deepen algebraic reasoning through intentional teaching utilizing spreadsheets for data analysis and modeling.

Developing QR Curricula

My background in QR includes both teaching and assessing QR spanning the entire K-16 curriculum:

- teaching and developing a QR course for college students which has led to the writing of a QR textbook, *Thinking Quantitatively* (Gaze, in preparation),
- creating and developing the curriculum for a Masters in Numeracy Program for K-12 teachers at Alfred University (Gaze 2010),

• working as Principal Investigator on an NSF-funded TUES Type I project, *Quantitative Literacy and Reasoning Assessment* (QLRA), DUE: 1140562, 2/15/12-1/31/14.

Over the last four years I have had the opportunity to work with many partners on QR curriculum initiatives including the Carnegie Foundation's *Quantway* project, the Dana Center at UT Austin's *National Math Pathways* project, and QR curriculum development projects with the community college systems in the states of Indiana and North Carolina. These diverse projects have all led to the development of QR curricula that are remarkably consistent. There are three main content areas that are incorporated into the QR courses:

- 1. Proportional Reasoning
- 2. Probability and Statistics
- **3.** Modeling

The course outcomes and objectives are all similar to those written by Ivy Tech Community College faculty in Indiana:

Upon successful completion of this course the student will be expected to define problems clearly, identify relevant information, ask pertinent questions, and support conclusions using persuasive quantitative reasoning. Students will be able to:

- 1. Use and interpret ratios in all their guises: rates/percentages/decimals.
- 2. Use proportional reasoning in context (real world data sets), including scale and similarity.
- **3.** Operate within and between different measurement scales including **unit conversion** and **dimensional analysis**.
- **4.** Use **estimation**, check reasonableness of answers, and evaluate **precision** and **accuracy** of data.
- 5. Use and interpret percentages in various forms: probability, risk, rates of return, percentiles, and relative frequency.
- 6. Develop fundamental **financial literacy** including annual percentage rates, periodic rates, loans (amortization tables), retirement (annuities).
- 7. Compute, contrast, and interpret **absolute and relative change**, including margin of error.
- 8. Explore and interpret rates of change, contrasting **linear** versus **exponential growth** (simple versus compound interest).
- **9.** Interpret visual representations of **data**, examine statistical arguments including sampling, **correlation and causation**.

- **10.** Analyze real world data through **descriptive statistics** (measures of central tendency and dispersion), **normal distributions**, and **z-scores**.
- **11.** Use **algebraic reasoning** to explore relationships between variables, including the construction and use of equations to solve problems, i.e. modeling.
- **12.** Research and select appropriate formulas/strategies to solve real world problems. Solve a variety of application problems in the above areas.
- 13. Use relevant mathematical language, laws, and notations appropriately.
- 14. Use a scientific calculator proficiently as related to coursework.
- **15.** Use computer technology, which may include the Internet, **spreadsheets**, or computer tutorials/simulations to enhance the course objectives.

Conclusion

The above-listed QR curriculum focuses first on the key numeracy skill set of proportional reasoning by systematically developing the concepts of unit, scale, fraction, percent, proportion, decimal, and rate around the common theme of ratio. This foundation leads to higher-order quantitative reasoning via modeling, with statistical literacy guiding the exploration and study of data. Spreadsheets offer an easy entry into modeling with computers, while at the same time developing students' algebraic reasoning.

References

- Bennett, Jeffrey. 2012. *Math for Life: Crucial Ideas You Didn't Learn in School.* Greenwood Village, CO. Roberts and Company Publishers.
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- Gaze, Eric. 2010. Creating a Masters in Numeracy Program. *Numeracy* 3 (2), Article 8. http://dx.doi.org/10.5038/1936-4660.3.2.8 (accessed 15 Nov 2013).
 - 2012. Review of *Math for Life* by Jeffrey Bennett. *Numeracy* 5 (2), Article 7. http://dx.doi.org/10.5038/1936-4660.5.2.7 (accessed 15 Nov 2013).
 In preparation. *Numeracy: A Quantitative Literacy, Communicating with*

Numbers. Boston, MA: Pearson Publishing.

2014	Name:
QUANTITATIVE LITERACY & REASONING ASSESSMENT	ID: Time to complete exam:

Directions for Assessment

You may use a calculator, but few problems require exact calculations. Please have scratch paper and pencil handy. Please select the one best answer to each question.

This is designed to test your quantitative reasoning skills, which is different from traditional mathematics material. You may not be familiar with all the concepts on the exam. Do not worry if something is new to you. Read each problem carefully and do your best. The test is not corrected for guessing, so it is to your advantage to answer each question.

1. In a certain company there are 3 times as many men working as women. What is the fraction of employees that are female?

a. <mark>1</mark>	b. $\frac{3}{10}$	c. $\frac{2}{2}$	d. -	e. $\frac{1}{4}$
3	10	3	u. 4	4

2. Maine lobstermen netted a record catch of 75,298,328 pounds of lobsters in 2006, which was a 5.2% increase over the previous record catch in 2004. What was the weight in pounds of the 2004 catch?

a. 79,213,841 b. 71,576,357 c. 71,122,366 d. 73,465,298 e. 7	e. 71,382,815
--	---------------

- 3. There are 0.15 grams of powder in a dish. One-fifth of the powder spills out of the dish. How many grams of powder are left in the dish?
 - a. 0.12 b. 0.75 c. 0.30 d. 1.2 e. 0.03

4. Use the following table of 2010 exchange rates to solve the problem.

Currency	Dollars per Foreign	Foreign per Dollar
British pound	1.678	0.5958
Canadian dollar	0.7483	1.336
Епюреан епю	1.169	0.8554
Japan ese y en	0.008482	117.9
Mexican peso	0.0943	10.6045

You wish to exchange 100 British pounds for Japanese yen. How many yen do you receive?

a. 0.8482	b. 0.505	c. 167.80	d. 11,790.43	e. 19,783.62
a. 0.8482	b. 0.505	c. 167.80	d. 11,790.43	e. 19,783.6

5. The age dependent population consists of the under 18 and over 64 year old populations. The age dependency ratio is computed by dividing the age dependent population by the 18-64 year old population, and multiplying by 100. In 2010 this ratio is 59.08. Which of the following sentences correctly uses the ratio?

- a. The population that is age dependent is 59.08%.
- b. The age dependent population is 59.08% of the population.
- c. There are 59.08 people in the in the age dependent population per 100 people in the 18-64 population.

- d. The percentage of the combined age dependent population that are dependent on the 18-64 population is 59.08%.
- e. There are 59.08 people in the combined age dependent population per 100 people in the population.

6. A parcel of land measures $2^{3}/_{5}$ acres. A developer wishes to divide the land into lots for houses each measuring 1/3 of an acre. Into how many complete lots can the acres of the parcel of land be divided?

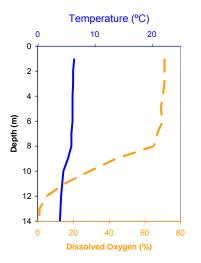
- a. 2 b. 6 c. 7 d. 8 e. 11
- The 2010 federal budget for the United States includes spending \$164 billion to pay interest on the national debt. If this amount is 4.62% of the total budget, what is the total federal budget? (1 billion = 10⁹, 1 trillion = 10¹²)
 - a. \$355 billion b. \$156 billion c. \$7.6 trillion d. \$7.6 billion e. \$3.55 trillion
- 8. A married couple are calculating their federal income tax using the tax rate tables:

If Taxpayer's Income Is		Then Estimated	Taxes A	re
Between	But Not Over	Base Tax	+ Rate	Of the Amount Over
\$0	\$16,700	\$0	10%	\$0
\$16,700	\$67,900	\$1,670.00	15%	\$16,700
\$67,900	\$137,050	\$9,350.00	25%	\$67,900
\$137,050	\$208,850	\$26,637.50	28%	\$137,050
\$208,850	\$372,950	\$46,741.50	33%	\$208,850
\$372,950		\$100,894.50	35%	\$372,950

How much tax will they have to pay on their taxable income of \$112,000?

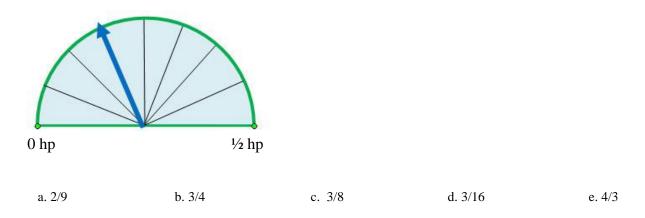
a. \$28,000	b. \$20,375	c. \$9,350	d. \$11,025	e. \$37,350
u . φ = 0,000	0. 4=0,070	••••	a. 411,020	0. 001,000

9. The following graph shows temperature (solid line) and dissolved oxygen (dotted line), plotted against depth in a lake. Which of the following statements is correct?

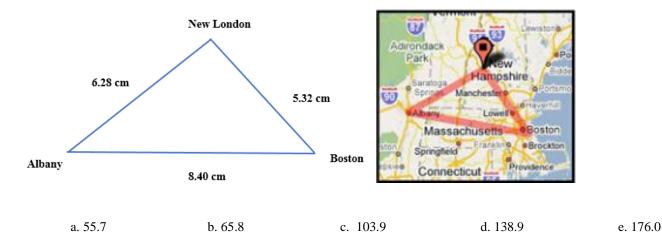


- a. As depth increases both temperature and dissolved oxygen increase.
- b. As depth increases dissolved oxygen increases and temperature decreases.
- c. As depth increases both temperature and dissolved oxygen decrease.
- d. As depth decreases both temperature and dissolved oxygen decrease.
- e. As depth decreases dissolved oxygen decreases and temperature increases.

10. The attached gauge shows the power output of a small motor up to one-half horsepower (hp). Express the power output shown by the gauge in horsepower (hp), simplifying any fractions. Assume that the sections are evenly spaced.



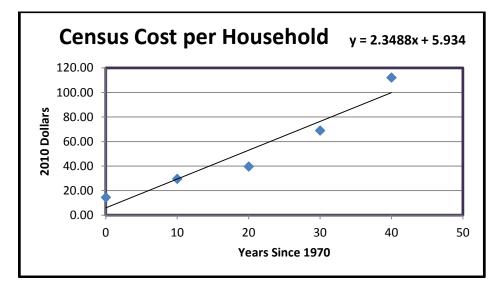
11. A triangle can be formed by drawing line segments on a map connecting New London, NH; Boston, MA; and Albany, NY. If the actual distance from New London to Boston is 88 miles, use the scaled triangle to calculate the distance between New London and Albany.



12. Let $U_A = \frac{r}{1 - U_B}$. Solve this equation for U_B in terms of U_A and r.

a.
$$\frac{r-U_A}{r}$$
 b. $\frac{r-U_A}{U_A}$ c. $\frac{1-r}{U_A}$ d. $\frac{U_A-r}{r}$ e. $\frac{U_A-r}{U_A}$

13. The following scatterplot shows the cost per household of the US census where y = 2010 dollars and x = years since 1970. What is the slope of the linear trendline, = 2.3488x + 5.934, telling us?



- a. The cost per household in 1970 was \$2.35.
- b. The cost per household has been increasing by \$2.35 per decade.
- c. The cost per household was \$5.93 in 1970.
- d. The cost per household has been increasing by \$5.93 per decade.
- e. The cost per household has been increasing by \$2.35 per year.

14. There were 480 students who entered as the Class of 2009. Of these, 430 submitted SAT scores by the time they enrolled. If you select a name at random from this class, what is the probability that the student did not submit an SAT score?

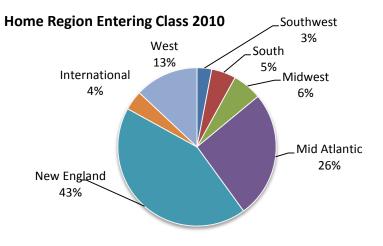
a. 5/43	b. 5/48	c. 43/48	d. 1.04%	e. 0.104%

15. Rangers tagged and released 300 salmon into a Maine lake. A month later, fishermen on the lake were surveyed. They reported catching 80 salmon, 12 of which had tags. Using this sample, estimate the salmon population in the lake.

a. 450	b. 2000	c. 2400	d. 3000	e. 4500

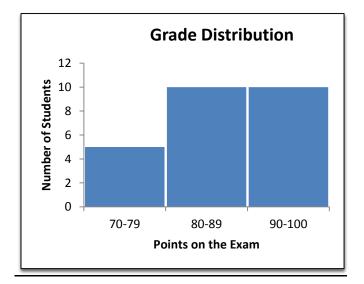


The following graph displays the home region of the approximately 500 students who will enter Q College as the Class of 2014. Refer to it for problems #16-17.



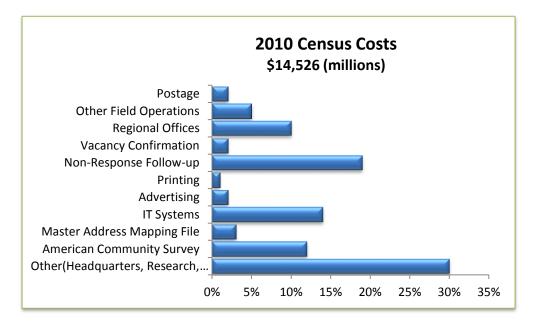
- **16.** Choose the answer that best describes a comparison between the number of students from the Midwest and the number of International students.
 - a. The number of students from the Midwest is 2% more than the number of International students.
 - b. Twice as many students came from the Midwest as from International locations.
 - c. There are 25 more students from the Midwest than from International locations.
 - d. The number of International students is 25% more than the number from the Midwest.
 - e. The number of students from the Midwest is 50% more than the number of International students.
- 17. Of the entering students in 2010, 46% were male and 54% were female. Assume that gender is independent of the home region. What is the probability that a student selected at random is a female from the South?
 - a. 0.027 b. 5/54 c. 0.09 d. 0.27% e. 0.9%

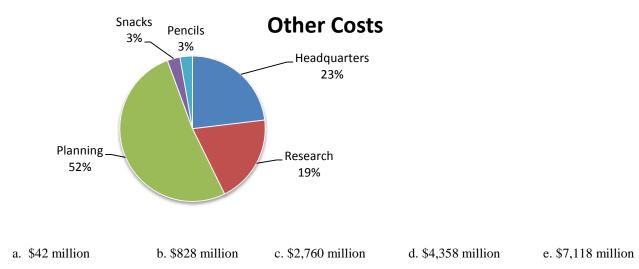
18. The grade distribution for the midterm in your Economics class with 25 students is given below. Which of the following statements below must be correct?



- a. The highest possible class average (mean) for this exam is 93.
- b. The class average (mean) for this exam is 87.
- c. At least half of the people in the class got below an 85.
- d. The lowest possible class average (mean) for this exam is 82.
- e. At most, five students got a 100.

19. Using the charts below, compute how much was spent on *Research* for the 2010 Census.





20. In 2009, the median earnings for men in the US workforce was \$42,588 and the median earnings for women in the US workforce was \$34,164. Which of the following is NOT a possible explanation for this discrepancy?

- a. Women are paid less for the same work because of gender discrimination.
- b. Men work more overtime.
- c. There are more men in higher-paying jobs.
- d. There are fewer women in the workforce.
- e. Women take more time off of the work force for family leave.



This project supported by the National Science Foundation, DUE 1140562

Demographic and Surve	y Questions					
Please complete the fol	lowing demog	graphic ir	nformation.			
1. Please state your sex	ĸ					
a. Female	b. Male	e				
2. How many full years	of college hav	/e you co	ompleted?			
a. 0	b. 1		c.	2	d. 3	e. 4 or more
3. Please state your rac	ce					
a. Hispanic or Latino	b. Asiai	1	c. B	lack	d. White	e. American Indian
4. What is your major o	or intended ar	ea of stu	dy?			
a. Math/Science	b. Social Sc	ience	c. Hun	nanities	d. Engineering or Technology	e. Other or Not Applicable
5. Have you passed a co	ourse in(ci	ircle all tl	hat apply)		of reemistogy	of from pphotoic
a. College Algebra?	b. Pre-Calc	ulus	c. Cal	culus?	d. Statistics	e. None of These
Please complete the fol agreement/disagreeme			-		t closely captures your	
6. Numerical information	•			_	Church a burch a sure o	
Strongly disagree	ee a	b	c d	e	Strongly agree	
7. Numbers are not nee Strongly disagre	-	ost situat b	ions. c d	е	Strongly agree	
8. Quantitative informa Strongly disagre		or accurat b	te decisions c d	5. e	Strongly agree	
9. Understanding numl Strongly disagre	-	brtant in b	daily life as c d	reading a e	nd writing. Strongly agree	
10. It is a waste of time	e to learn infor	mation o	containing a	a lot of nu	mbers.	

Strongly disagree **a b c d e** Strongly agree



The Numbers Game: Understanding Numbers in the News, in Politics, and in Life

WSCUC QRAM Workshop Cal Poly Pomona, CA October 2-3, 2014

Eric Gaze

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- 1. How many Centenarians are there now in the US?
 - **a.** 4,000
 - **b.** 15,000
 - **c.** 35,000
 - **d.** 53,000
 - **e.** 106,000
- 2. How many homeless people are there in the US?
 - **a.** 10,000
 - **b.** 50,000
 - **c.** 100,000
 - **d.** 500,000
 - **e.** 3,000,000
- 3. What percentage of students loans have defaulted since 2005?
 - **a.** 2%
 - **b.** 8%
 - **c.** 20%
 - **d.** 35%
 - **e.** 60%
- 4. How many anorexia deaths are there in the US each year?
 - **a.** 70
 - **b.** 500
 - **c.** 2,000
 - **d.** 150,000
 - **e.** 300,000
- 5. What is the US Household debt per capita?
 - a. \$500 per person
 - **b.** \$2,000 per person
 - **c.** \$45,000 per person
 - d. \$120,000 per person
 - e. \$1,000,000 per person

6. Use the number 41.1 from the table below in a sentence.

Black and White Vict	timizations and Arrests f	for Crimes of Violence 19)7	
	Number	Percent	Rate ⁱ	
Victimization ⁱⁱ				
White	7,068,590	82.1	37.1	
Black	1,306,810	15.2	46.8	
Arrests ⁱⁱⁱ				
White	284,523	56.8	1.5	
Black	205,823	41.1	7.4	

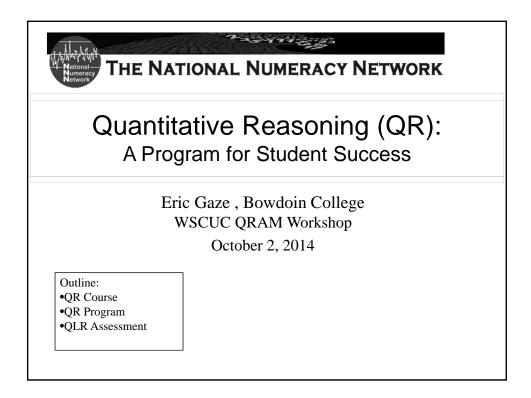
- 7. If a 1% risk of contracting a disease increases by 5%, then the new risk is:
 - **a.** 1.05%
 - **b.** 1.5%
 - **c.** 2%
 - **d.** 6%
 - **e.** 15%
- 8. The average US Household income is:
 - **a.** \$41,000
 - **b.** \$52,000
 - **c.** \$67,000
 - **d.** \$83,000
 - e. \$100,000 (oops! Didn't realize how low these were...)
- 9. The household income needed to be in the top 10%:
 - **a.** \$140,000
 - **b.** \$180,000
 - **c.** \$230,000
 - **d.** \$250,000
 - **e.** \$330,000

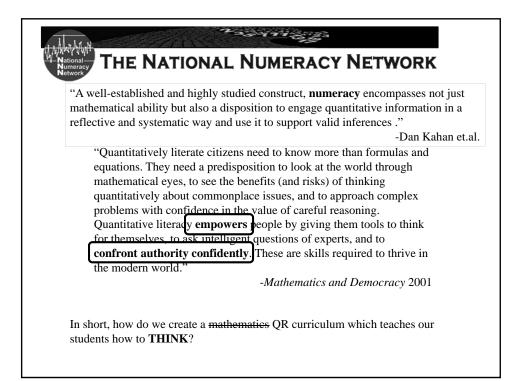
10. The household income/net worth needed to be in the top 1%:

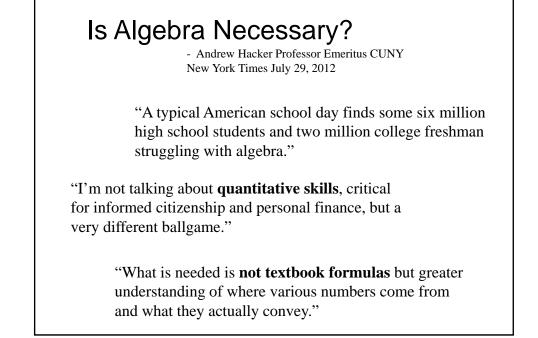
- **a.** \$140,000/\$1,000,000
- **b.** \$250,000/\$3,000,000
- **c.** \$300,000/\$8,000,000
- **d.** \$550,000/\$10,000,000
- **e.** \$1,250,000/\$25,000,000
- **11.** The top 1% of household income earners pay what share of income tax:
 - **a.** 5%
 - **b.** 8%
 - **c.** 14%
 - **d.** 22%
 - **e.** 35%

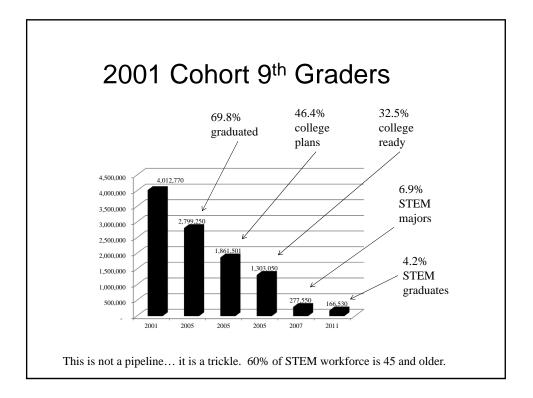
- **a.** \$200,000**b.** \$250,000
- **c.** \$500,000
- **d.** \$1,000,000

ⁱ Per 1,000 people aged 10 and above
 ⁱⁱ Estimates for personal victimization (crimes of violence) derived from 1997 National Crime Victimization Survey
 ⁱⁱⁱ Arrests for violent crime reported in 1997 Uniform Crime Reports









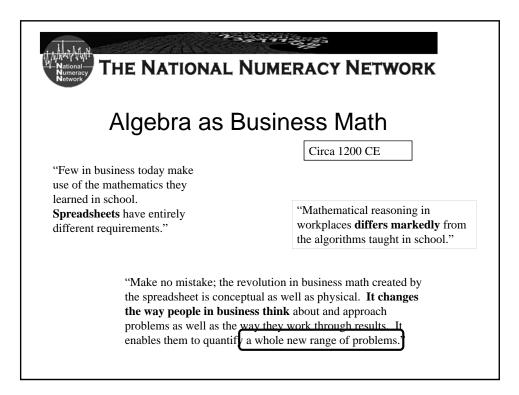
How Much Math Do We Really Need?

- Professor Emeritus U. Ill. Chicago Washington Post 10/22/2010

"Unlike literature, history, politics and music, math has **little relevance** to everyday life."

"All the math one needs in real life can be **learned** in early years without much fuss."

> "Most adults have no contact with math at work, nor do they curl up with an **algebra** book for relaxation."



Impatience with Irresolution Sitcom Culture: Problems should not take more than 30 minutes, be easy to understand, and have a happy ending.

- Well Structured Problems
 - Objective Clear
 - Assumptions Obvious
 - Data available
 - One right answer

• Examples:

- Solve $2x \frac{5}{x} = 12$ for x.
- Balance the books.
- Do your taxes.
 - Hopefully this is well structured!

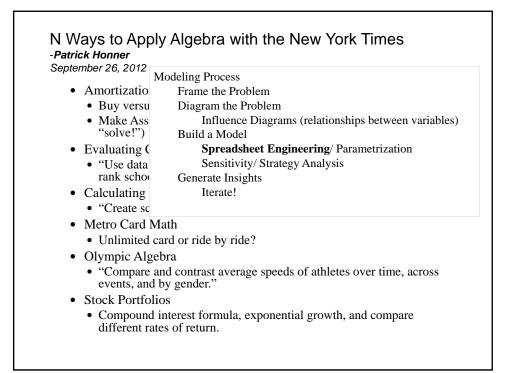
Problem Solving vs. Modeling -Modeling for Insight

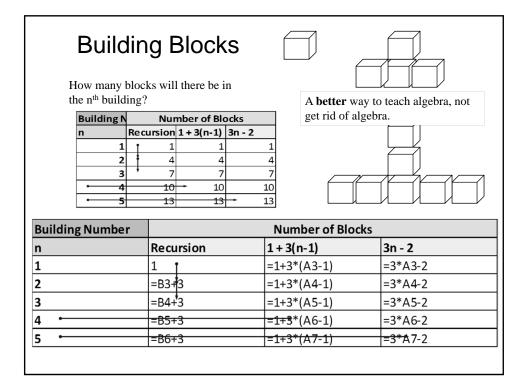
Powell and Batt

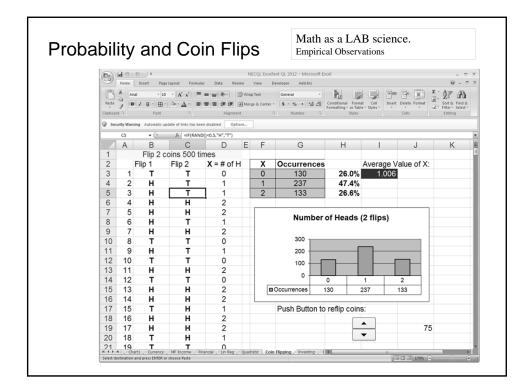
- Ill Structured Problems
 - Objectives, Assumptions, Data ambiguous
- Examples
 - Should the Red Cross pay for blood donations?
 - Should we tax soda?
 - How much should an advertiser allocate to creative over delivery of ad?
 - Should spreadsheets be taught K-12?

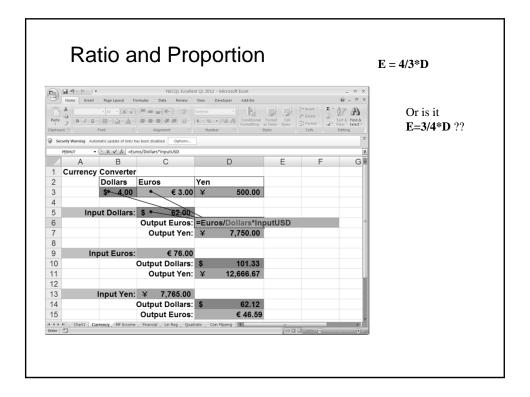
Tolerance for Ambiguity

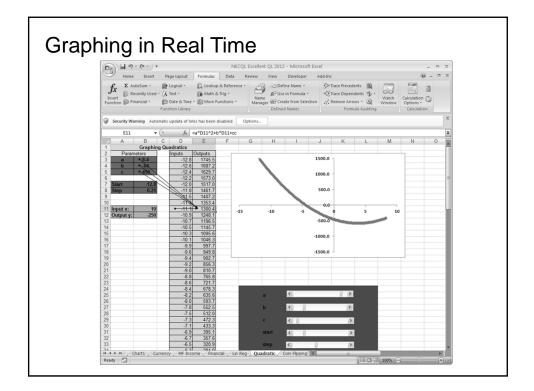
	Problem Solving vs. Mode -Modeling for
•	Ill Structured Problems are Explored
	Make assumptions
	Formulate Hypotheses
	• Generate Insights (don't "solve!")
•	Modeling Process
	• Frame the Problem
	• Diagram the Problem
	• Influence Diagrams (relationships between variables)
	• Build a Model
	• Spreadsheet Engineering/ Parametrization
	Sensitivity/ Strategy Analysis
	• Generate Insights
	5



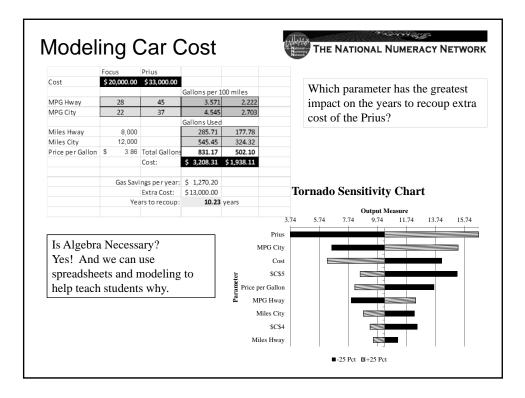


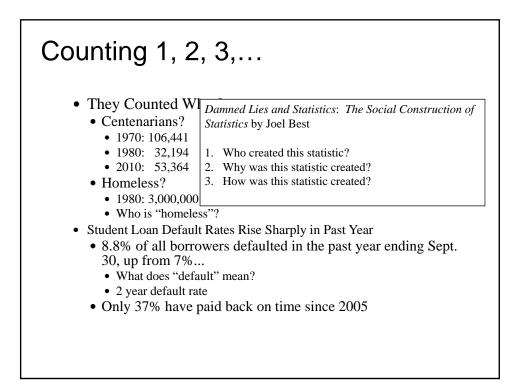






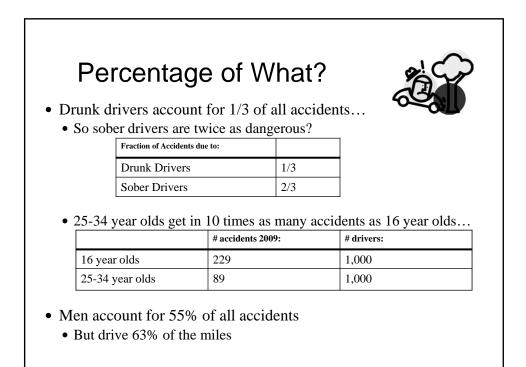
	Focus	Prius			
Cost	\$20,000.00	\$33,000.00			
			Gallons per 1	.00 miles	
MPG Hway	28	45	3.571	2.222	
MPG City	22	37	4.545	2.703	
			Gallons Used		
Miles Hway	8,000		285.71	177.78	
Miles City	12,000		545.45	324.32	
Price per Gallon	\$ 3.86	Total Gallons	831.17	502.10	
		Cost:	\$ 3,208.31	\$1,938.11	
	Gas Sav	ings per year:	\$ 1,270.20		
		Extra Cost:	\$13,000.00		
	Ye	ars to recoup:	10.23	years	



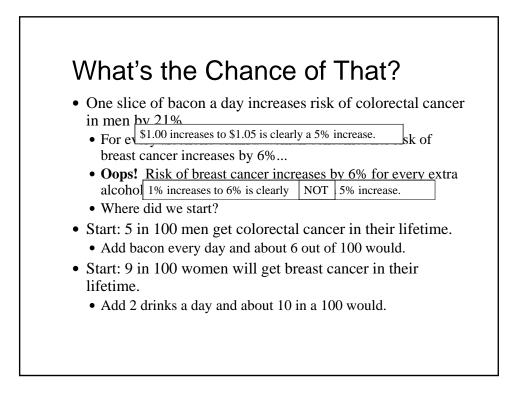


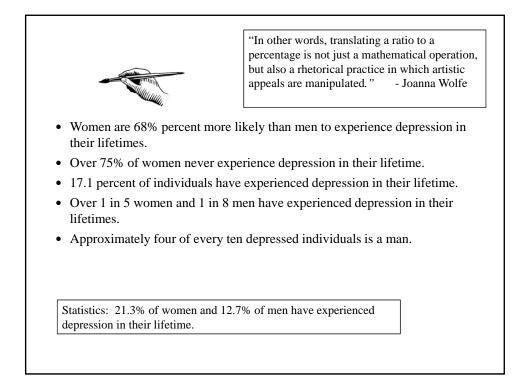
Counting 1, 2, 3,...

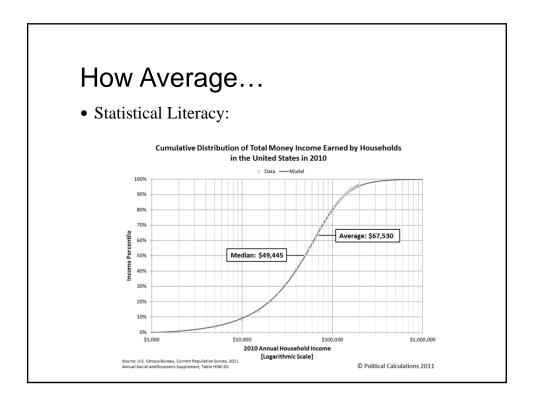
- How big is that?
 - Keen sense of proportion... RATIOS!
 - Anorexia Deaths: 150,000 (1994)
 - Mutant Statistic: only 55,500 women 15-44 died that year!
- US Household Debt
 - Record \$13.8 trillion in 2011
- Is that a BIG number?
 - ~\$46,000 per person
 - \$884/week per person for 1 year (using \$15.6 billion as a yardstick)



black c	riminal"		
	Really? So 56.8% of wwell?	whites were arrested for	r violent crimes as
Black and	White Victimization's	and Arrests for Crin	nes of Violence 1997
	Number	Percent	Rate
Victimiza	tion	I	1
White	7,068,590	82.1	37.1
Black 1,306,810		15.2	46.8
Arrests			
White	284,523	56.8	1.5
Black	205,823	(41.1)	7.4







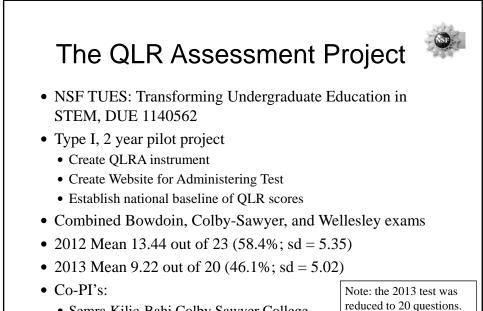
How Average...

- Speaking of Mean People:
- What household income do you need to make to be in the top 10%?
- What percentage of income tax do the top 1% pay?
- How many standard deviations from the mean is someone in the top 0.01% at \$35 million? (N = 11,000)
 - 92 standard deviations
 - A person who is 92 sd from mean in height would be 27 feet tall!

Math 050: Quantitative Reasoning

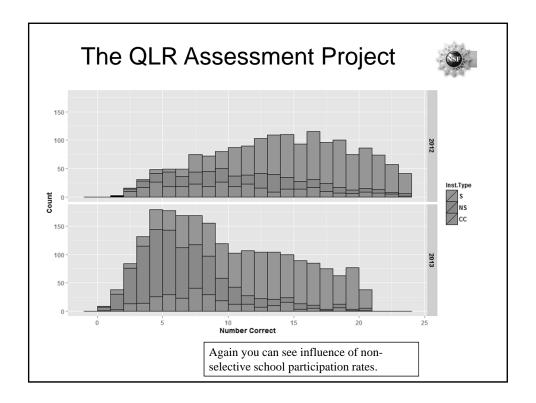
• Pre-Post Assessments

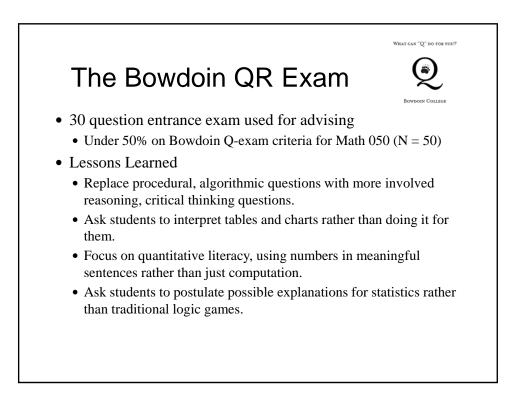
	Pre-Qzscore	Post-Qzscore	Total Improvement
Mean	-1.219	-0.253	0.966 sd
StDev	0.905	0.913	
	Ma	ath 50: QR Fall 201	.1
	Pre-Qzscore	Post-Qzscore	Total Improvement
Mean	-1.337	-0.210	1.127 sd
StDev	0.670	0.913	
	Ma	ath 50: QR Fall 201	.2
	Pre-Qzscore	Post-Qzscore	Total Improvement
Mean	-1.45	-0.230	1.220 sd
StDev	0.694	0.607	

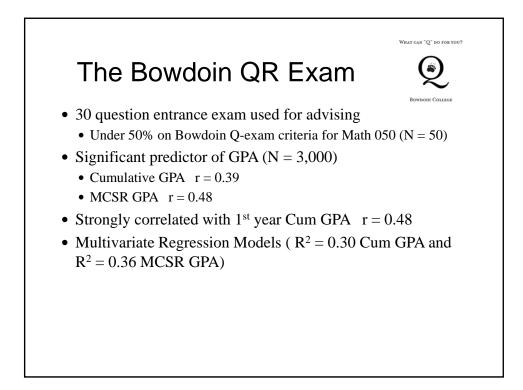


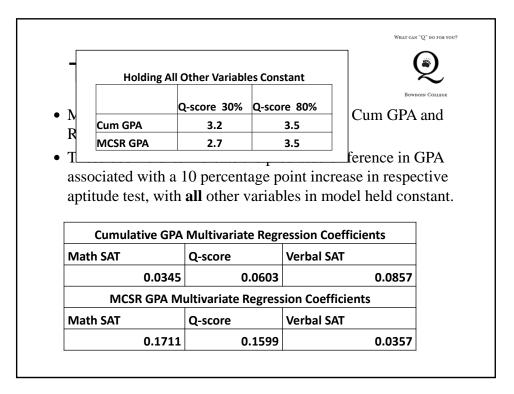
- Semra Kilic-Bahi Colby Sawyer College
- Linda Misener Southern Maine Community College

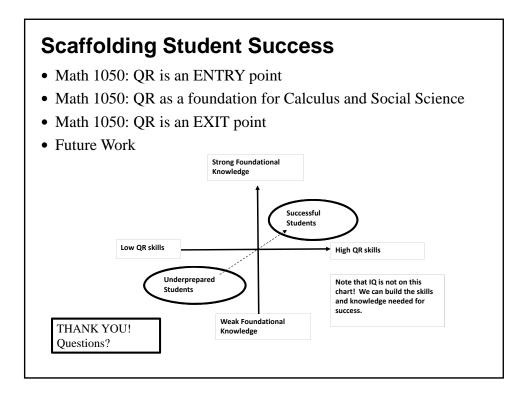
Institution Ty	pe 201 Mean	-	201 Std. D	-	2013 Mean		2013 Std. Dev.	
2-Year	44	.7	23.4	4	39.3	;	20.2	
Selective 4-yea	ar 66	.4	20.0	0	59.7	'	22.8	-
Non-selective year	4- 47	.2	21.0	6	30.1		17.9	
Total	58	.4	23.	3	45.6	5	24.7	
		-	nificant d on-select	-]
Institu	ition Type	201	2 N	2012	%		2013 N	2013 %
2-Year	•	31	4	18.9			273	12.6
Non-s	elective 4-year	33	34	20.1			811	37.3
Select	ive 4-year	10	11	60	.9		1088	50.1
Total		1659		100.0		2172		100.0









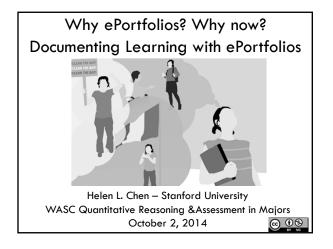




Breakout 3

Why ePortfolios? Why Now? Documenting Learning with ePortfolios

H.Chen



In our general education programs, do students have the opportunity to demonstrate **what they know** and **can do**? Can they:

- 1. self-assess their own abilities; and
- 2. paint a picture of accomplishment for employers?

-- Debra Humphreys, 6/1/13

In our <u>majors</u>, do students have the opportunity to demonstrate what they know and can do? Can they:

- 1. self-assess their own abilities; and
- 2. paint a picture of accomplishment for employers?

ePortfolios and Folio Thinking

Portfolio: A purposeful selection of artifacts together with reflections that represent some aspect of the owner's learning

A culture of **Folio Thinking** provides structured opportunities for students to:

1. create learning portfolios

public

2. reflect on learning experiences

emphasizing integration, synthesis, and self-understanding

ePortfolio Purposes

(Lorenzo & Ittelson, 2005)

1. Showcase

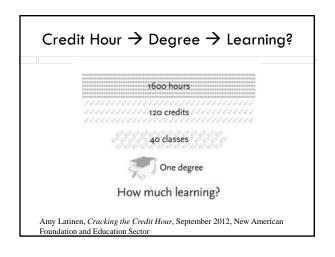
- □ Finding a job
- □ Highlighting achievements, skills, and abilities
- 2. Assessment
- $\hfill\square$ Tracking development within a course or program
- $\hfill\square$ Performance monitoring and evaluation
- 3. Learning
 - $\hfill\square$ Educational Planning, advising, mentoring
 - $\hfill\square$ Documenting knowledge, skills, and abilities over time
- 4. Hybrid (some combination of the above)

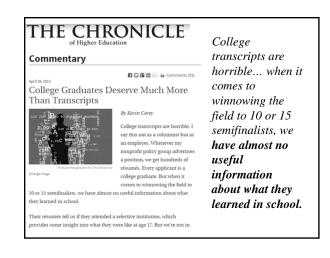
Showcase Portfolios vs. Learning ePortfolios Showcase ePortfolio Learning ePortfolio <u>Purposes</u>: Showcase <u>Purposes</u>: Exploratory & Developmental over time <u>Content</u>: Curated collection highlighting exemplary work; Content: Could include works in formal and/or verified progress, drafts, goals, plans <u>Focus</u>: the ePortfolio product □ <u>Focus</u>: the ePortfolio process □ Goals: Outward facing, Goals: Self-knowledge and networking; your professional understanding; growth over time; identity your intellectual identity Audience: Employers, grad schools, professionals, the

 <u>Audience:</u> Selected mentors, advisors, faculty, alumni, peers & family

Why ePortfolios? Why now?

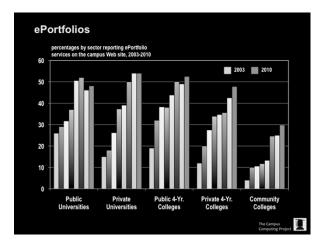


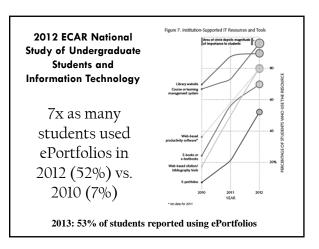


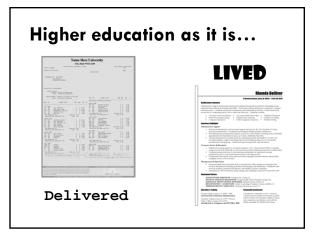










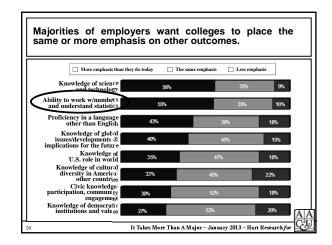


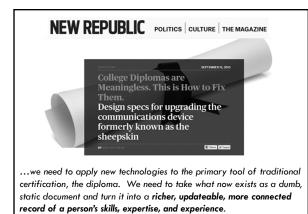


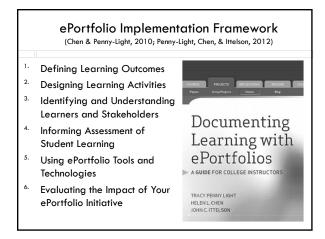


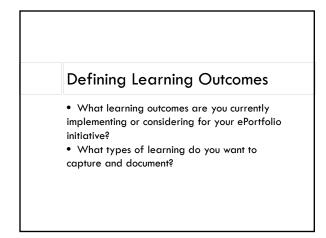


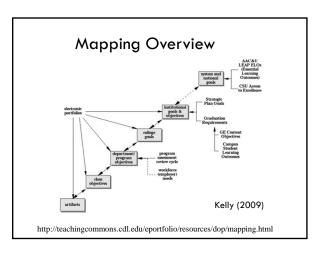
Majorities of empl emphasis on selec	oyers want colleges to ted outcomes.	o place more	
More emphasis t	han they do today 🔲 The same emphasis [Less emphasis	
Critical thinking/ analytical reasoning	82%	11% 7%	
Ability to analyze/solve complex problems	81%	13% 6%	
Effective oral communication	80%	12% 8%	
Effective written communication	80%	12% 8%	
Apply knowledge/skills to real-world settings	78%	16% 6%	
Locate, organize, evaluate info from multiple sources	72%	19% 9%	
Innovation/creativity	71%	20% 9%	
Teamwork/collaboration in diverse group settings	67%	22% 11%	
Ability to connect choices and actions to ethical decisions	64%	27% 9%	1
9	It Takes More Than A Major – January	2013 – Hart Research for	Ċ

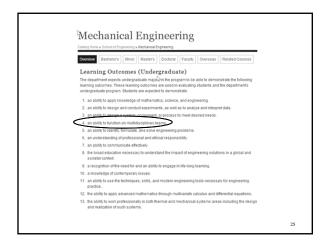


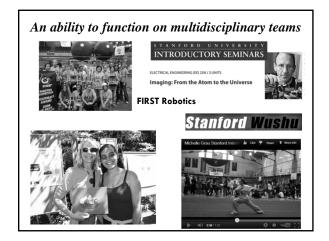


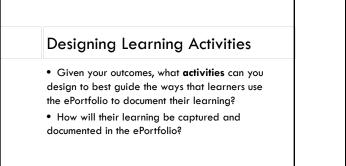


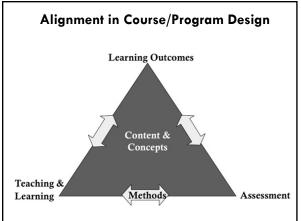


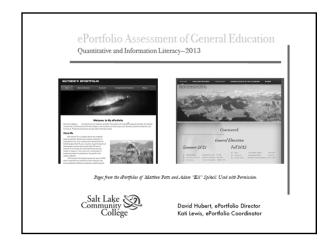


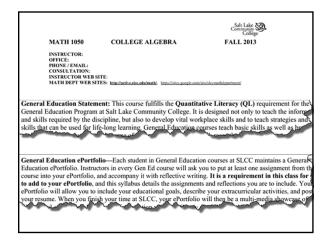


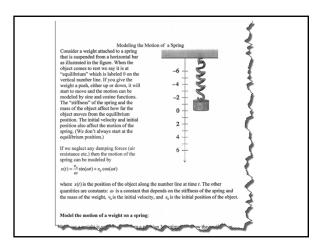


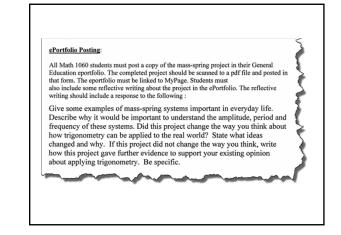






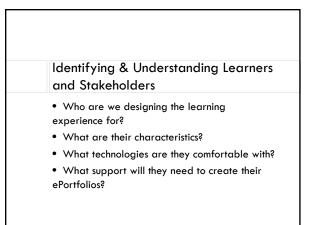


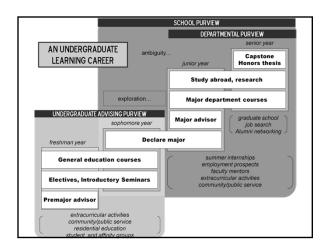


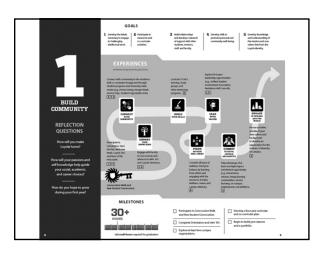




The intent of this assignment was to help us to understand some of the ways trigonometry can be used in everyday life. ...At first I was really confused by this process, but in the end it all came together and made sense.

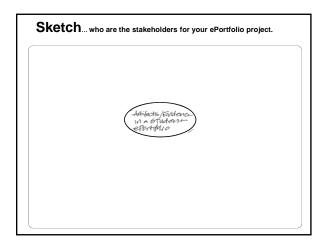




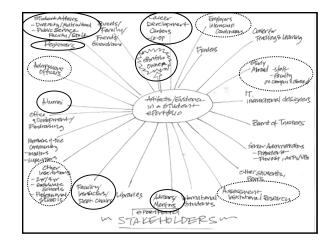


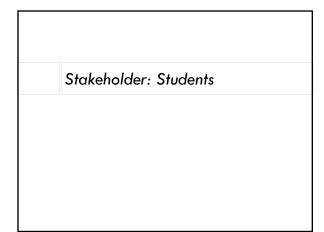
What does the learning career for your institution, program, or course look like?

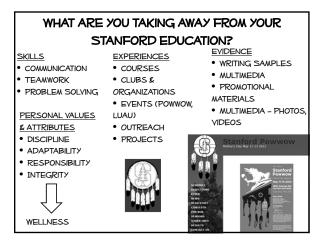
- What are the major milestones in the student's academic trajectory?
- □ When and where is **reflection** occurring, e.g. assignments, RA applications, jobs, internships, fellowships, scholarships?
- Who are students interacting with along the way? What faculty, staff, offices, programs, services are supporting students in their educational trajectory?

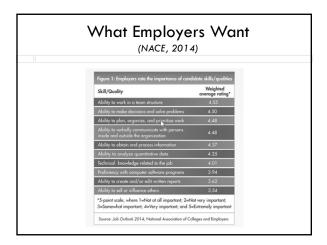




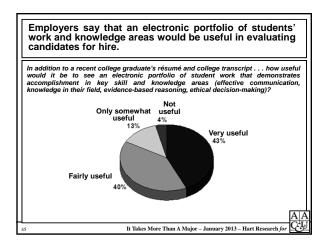


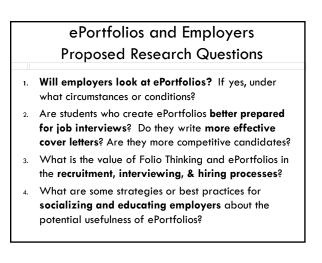


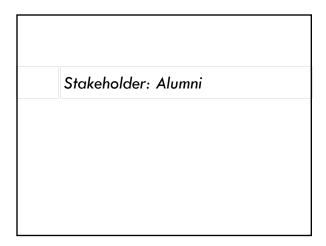


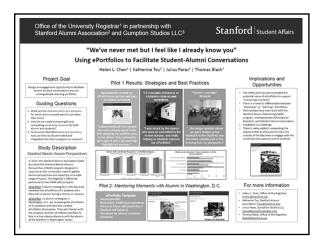


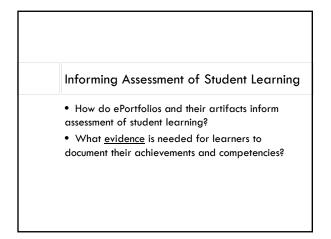


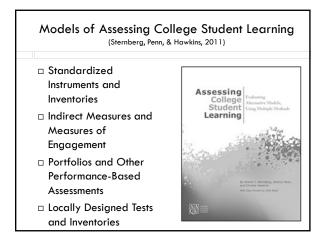


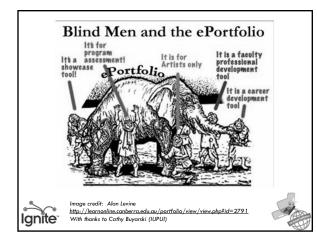




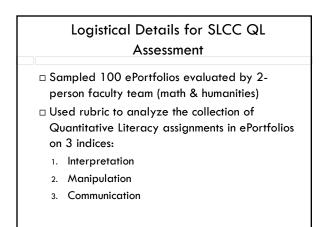




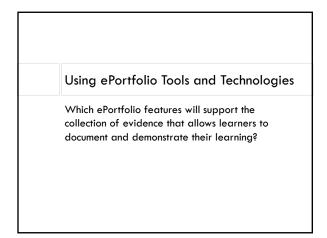




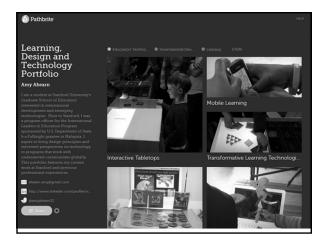




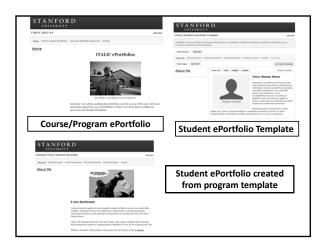
uantitative Litera	antitative Literacy Rubric*		Hubert & Lewis (2013) - SLCC				
	Exceeds Expectations (4)	Meets Expectations (3)	Below Expectations (2)	Well Below Expectations (1)			
	Provides accurate	Provides accurate	Provides somewhar				
Interpretation Ability to explain information presented to the student in the form of equations, graphs, diagnees rakies, words, ex. Total # Assignments	rootes acta are explanation; presented information presented in machematical forma. Makes appropriate information. e of Assignments	eronnes acculare explanation presented information presented in machematical forms. # of Assignments	revises sources and accurate splanation of information presented in mathematical format, but occasionally makes mainor errors related to computations or units. e of Assignments.	Amengers on explain information presence in mathematical forms, but draws incorrect conclusions about what the information mean. # of Assignments			

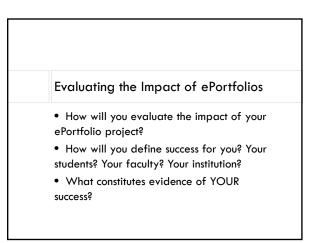








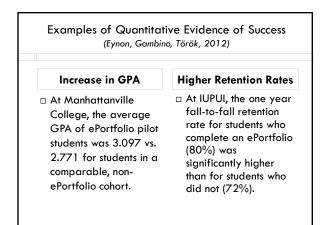


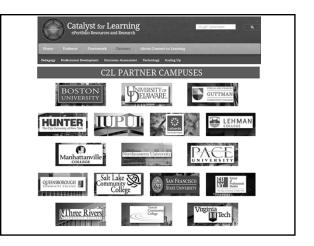


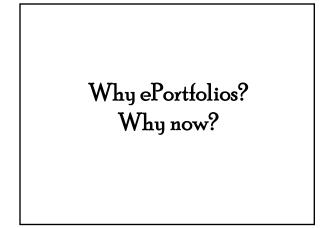
Defining "Success" (Venezsky, 2001)

Imagine that your ePortfolio project is completed and that it succeeded in all of its goals. You are to appear tomorrow at a press conference to explain what you have accomplished. Write a press release to distribute at this meeting



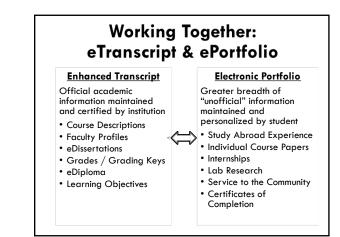


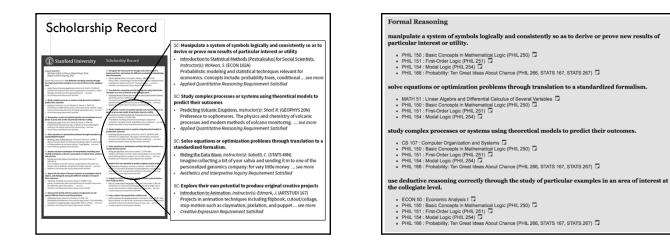


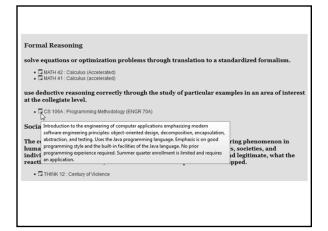




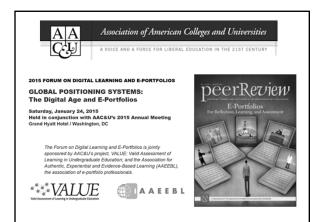












Thank you!

Helen L. Chen, Ph.D. Director of ePortfolio Initiatives Office of the Registrar Research Scientist, Designing Education Lab <u>hlchen@stanford.edu</u>

EPAC Community of Practice <u>http://epac.pbworks.com/</u>

Sketch... who are the stakeholders for your ePortfolio project.

Artifacts/Evidence



Plenary

Developing a Campus Culture that Embraces Outcomes Assessment

J. Lindholm

Developing a Campus Culture that Embraces Assessment of Learning in Majors

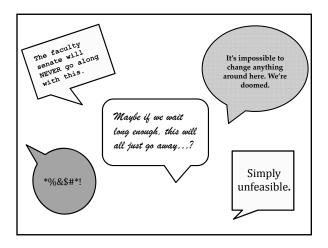
Jennifer A. Lindholm

Culture

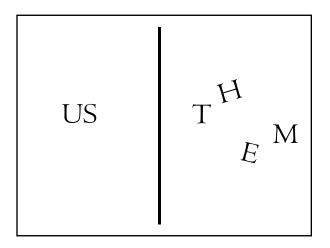
• Shared values, assumptions, beliefs, and ideologies that members have about their organization and its work

• Embedded patterns of organizational behavior

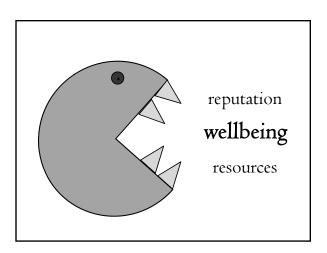




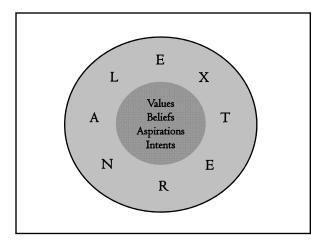




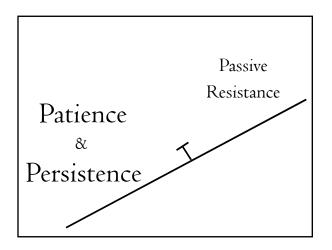




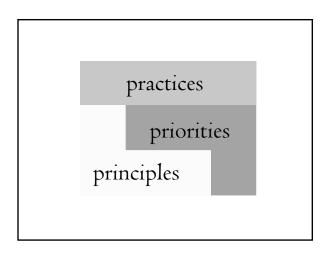


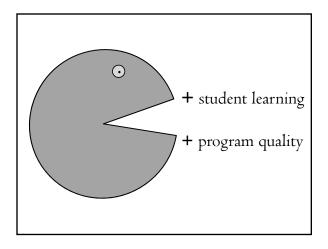


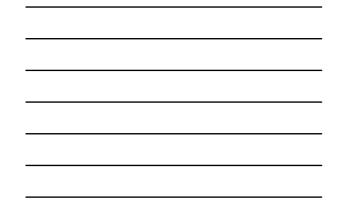


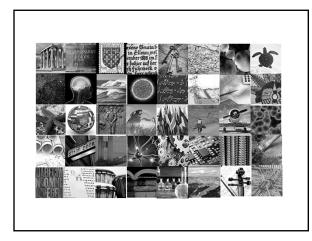




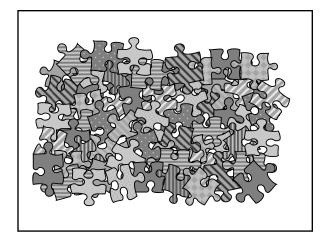




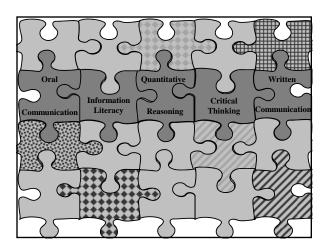






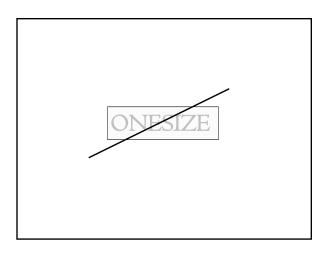


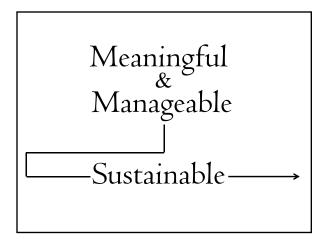


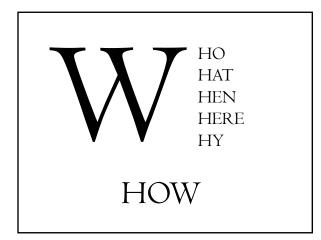




```
    signature assignment 
    portfolio 
    comprehensive exam 
    capstone experience 
    research project 
    creative performance 
    standardized test 
    internship
```



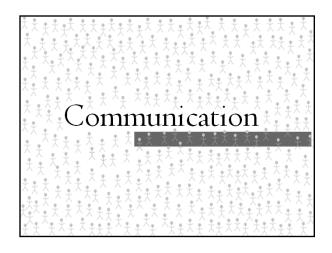






Commitment

Compliance







Breakout 4

Student Learning Assessment and Academic Program Review

J. Lindholm

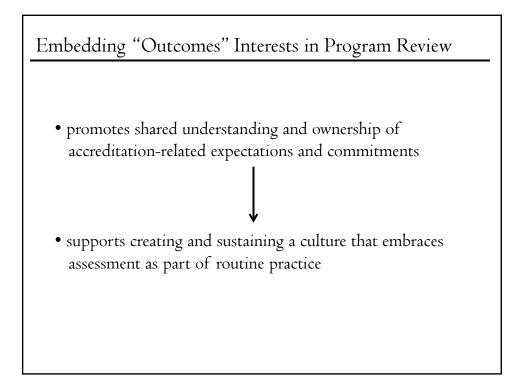
Student Learning Assessment & Academic Program Review

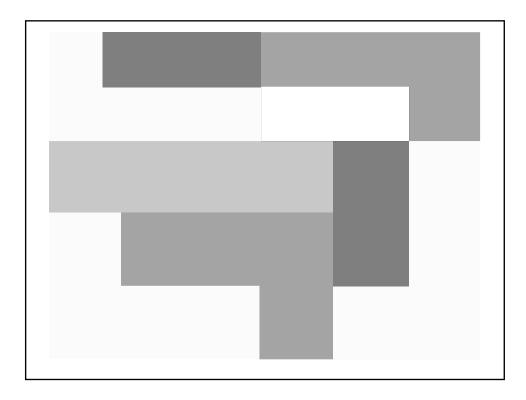
Jennifer A. Lindholm

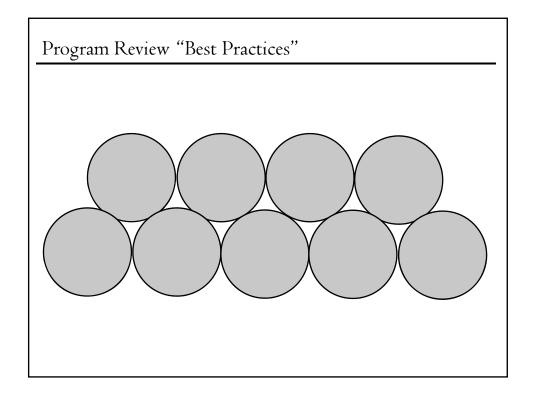
Academic Program Review Goals

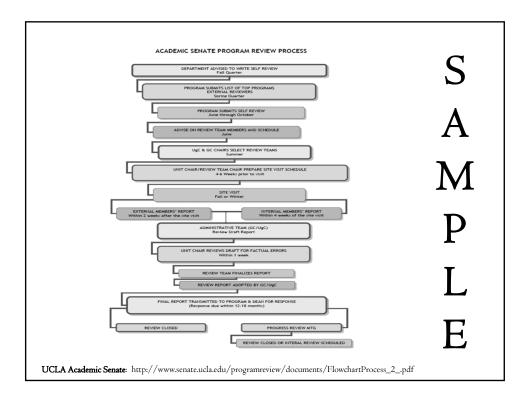
Maintain and strengthen the quality of undergraduate and graduate degree programs by:

- recognizing strengths and achievements
- promoting goal setting and planning
- identifying areas in need of attention









Self-Study Report Guidelines: Undergraduate Programs

Provide an overview of the goals, rationale, structure, and effectiveness of your undergraduate programs, providing evidence and support as appropriate.

- What aspects of undergraduate education do you do well?
- What areas do you feel need to be strengthened?
- What changes do you anticipate in the future?
- How does your program compare to other programs, departments, or units within UCLA and in your discipline at other universities?

Self-Study Report Guidelines: Undergraduate Programs

In compliance with federal expectations that colleges and universities document evidence of student learning (beyond grades earned in individual courses), and in keeping with UCLA's accreditation-related commitments, please be sure to:

- include the articulated learning objectives for each of your major programs, noting any changes introduced since the last program review;
- describe efforts made to evaluate achievement of those learning objectives; and
- summarize key findings and describe any changes you have implemented in your major degree program(s) as a result of your evaluation efforts

Self-Study Report Guidelines: Undergraduate Programs

Please also address, as appropriate, the following:

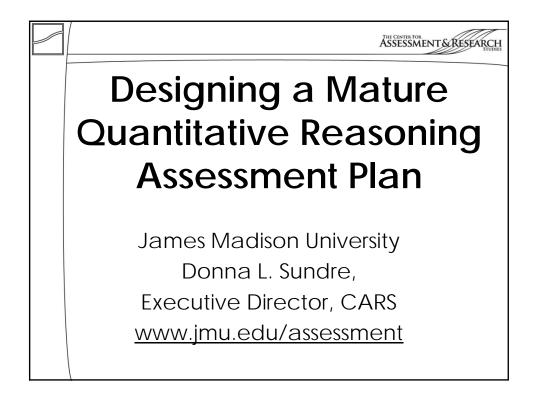
- your department contributions to broader undergraduate education at UCLA
- time-to-degree statistics for your undergraduate majors
- the role of online courses in your undergraduate program, any impact on student experience, and any efforts to assess the effectiveness of online course delivery
- your department's summer session course offerings, including the balance between academic year and summer offerings of upper division courses
- how issues of diversity are included in your undergraduate curriculum

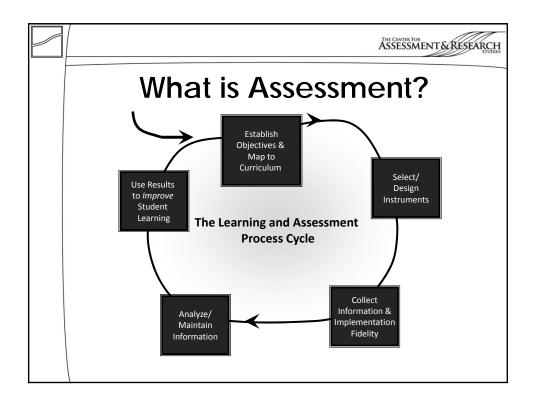


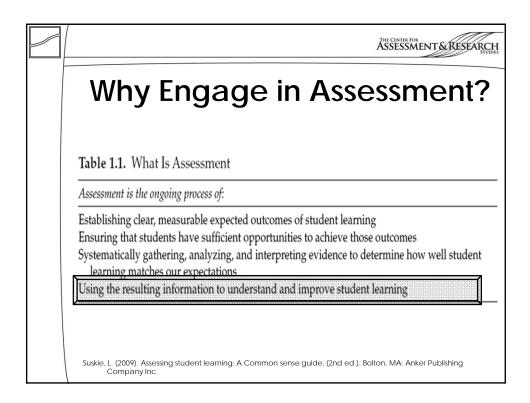
Breakout 5

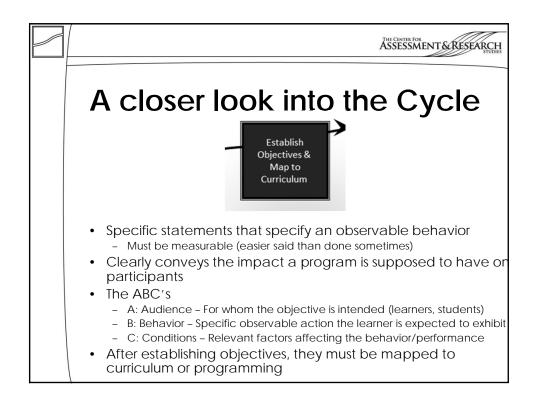
Designing a Mature Quantitative Reasoning Assessment Plan for the Major

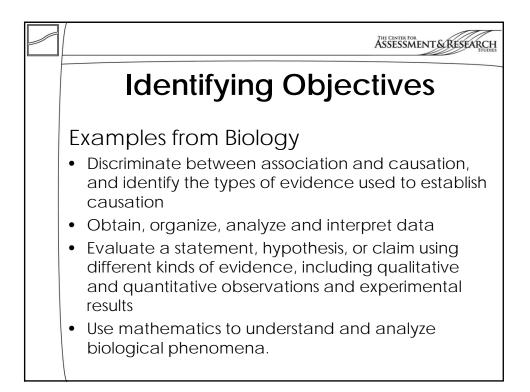
D. Sundre

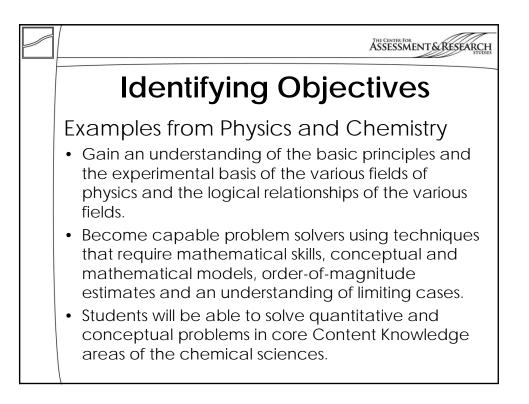




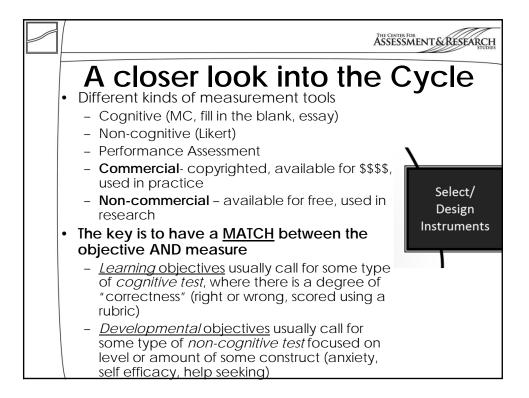


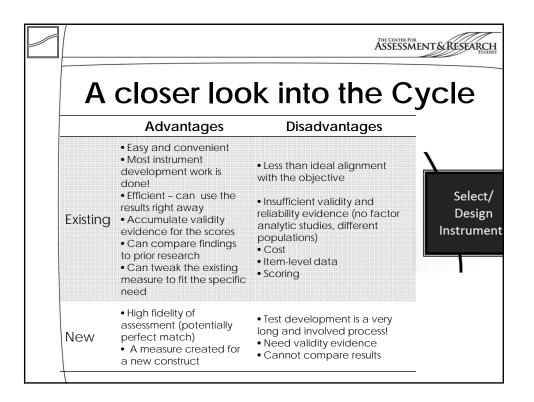


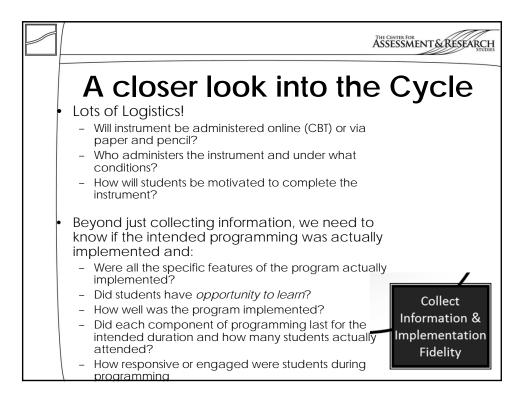


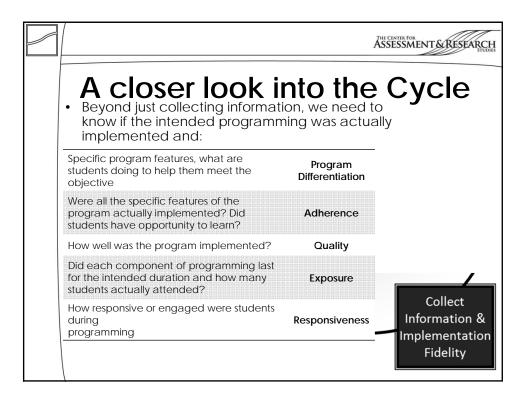


Марр	oing	j Ok	oject	ives	to (Curric
Course	Go	al 1	Goal 2	G G	bal 3	
	1.1	1.2	2.1	3.1	3.2	3.3
105	Х	Х	Х	Х		
ASTR 120	Х	Х	Х			
ASTR 121	Х	Х	Х	Х		
125	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х
126	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х
140	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х
150	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х

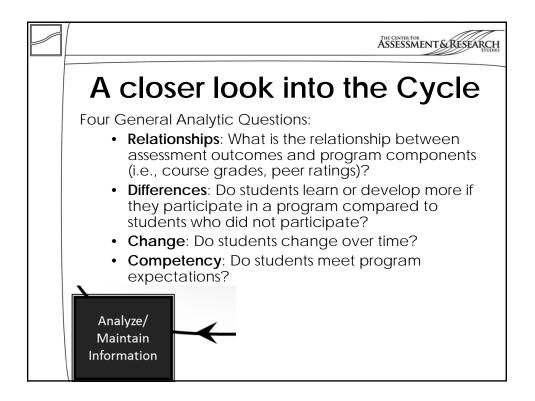


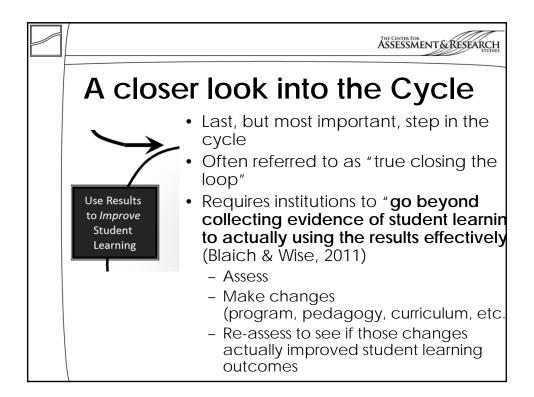


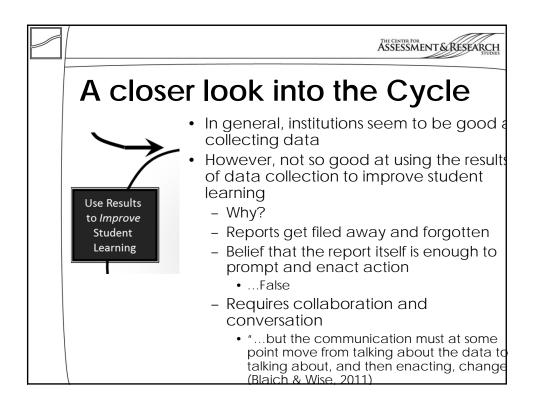


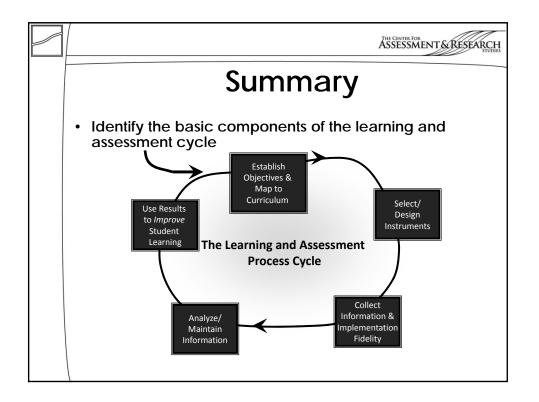


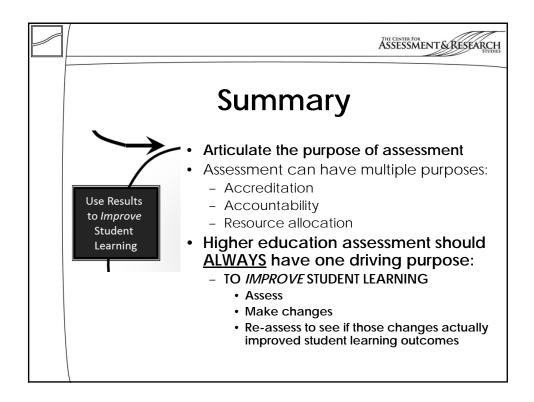
	ASSESSMENT & RESEARCH
Example fro	m Biology
Objectives:	Method(s) to Assess:
1.Discriminate between	NW-9 Items: 3, 34, 35, 3
association & causation	37, 53, 60-63, 79-85
2. Formulate a hypothesis	NW-9 Items:18, 34-37,
& identify relevant	41-42, 47-50;
variables	ASI Items 1-7
3. Design and execute	NW-9 Items: 9-23, 48-50
experiments to test	67-78
hypothesis	ASI Items: 8-12
4. Obtain data	ASI Items: 13-19

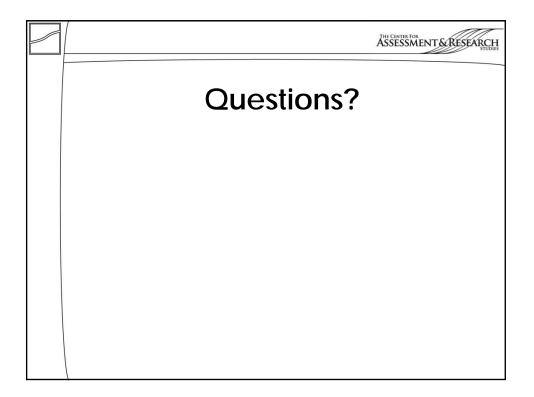




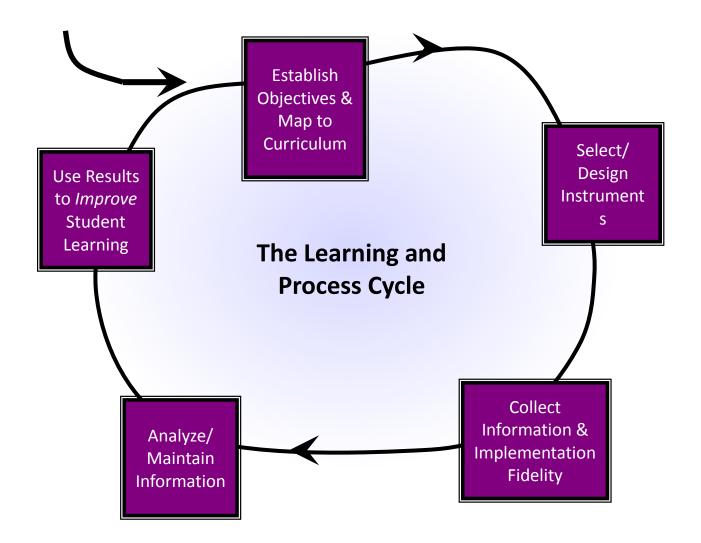








The Learning and Assessment Cycle



Objectives	Courses and Co-Curricular Opportunities Where the Objective is Addressed:
Objectives:	

GENERAL ASSESSMENT PLAN

GENERAL ASSESSMENT PLAN

Objectives:	Method(s) to Assess Objective:

GENERAL ASSESSMENT PLAN

Objectives:	Items to Assess Objective:



Part 1

Stem



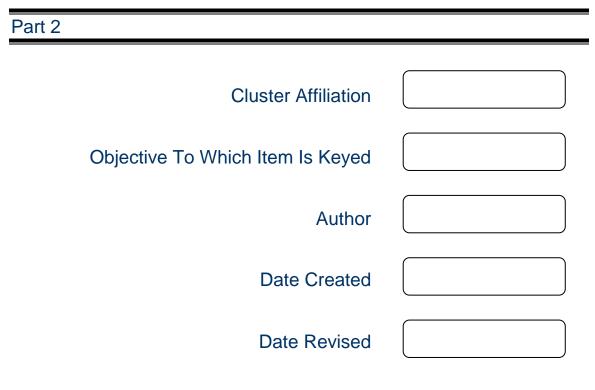
Correct Answer

Distractor 1

Distractor 2

Distractor 3

Preferred Order of Options on Test Form



Brief Justification Of Correct Response

Brief Explanation Of Errors Within Distractors

Associated Media/Stimulus Material



Breakout 6

A Framework for Leading Campus-Wide Change Initiatives

S. Elrod

The Keck/PKAL Scientific Framework for Strategic Change in STEM Education: A Workbook for Campus Teams to Promote Institutional Change

Susan Elrod and Adrianna Kezar

Executive Summary

This workbook provides campus teams and leaders practical guidance on how to apply the newly developed *Scientific Framework for Strategic Change in STEM Education* for planning, implementing and sustaining reforms that improve student learning and success, particularly for students who come from underrepresented minority (URM) populations. Many change efforts have been started but few have reached the transformational level of entire programs, departments, or colleges in the STEM disciplines. The Framework begins with the establishment of a vision and goals for the change project. After this step, then the Framework guides teams through an analysis phase to gather data and collect information about the current STEM learning and student success landscape. This analysis leads to the identification of specific campus challenges defined by the data and couched in the context, mission, and priorities of the campus. These challenges help teams establish the outcomes of the change project and lead them to choose, implement and evaluate specific strategies that will address the challenges and improve STEM student learning and success. Any change process is dynamic and nonlinear so this Framework is described as a flow, much like a river where there are multiple points of entry (and exit!) as well as obstacles that might be encountered along the way that create eddies in the flow. This workbook is a compilation of tools provided in the more detailed Framework Guidebook (Elrod and Kezar, in press). The specific tools are as follows:

- Key questions, timeline considerations and challenge alerts for teams to consider at each phase of the process.
- Resources to help teams determine how to get started, conduct data analyses, avoid common pitfalls, build effective teams, address leadership, and sustain change.
- Example interventions and highlights from campus case studies.
- A readiness survey will also help teams determine whether they are prepared to move forward with implementation of their chosen strategies and interventions.
- A rubric to help campus teams gauge their progress in the Framework phases.

While this Framework was developed with STEM education reform in mind, it can be applied more generally for any campus-wide or institutional change project. This handout provides information about the Framework in the context of any type of campus initiative.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to acknowledge the generous support of the W.M. Keck Foundation and the contributions by the campuses that participated in the project:

- California State University, East Bay
- California State University, Fullerton
- California State University, Long Beach
- California State University, Los Angeles
- San Diego State University
- San Francisco State University
- The W.M. Keck Science Department of Claremont McKenna, Pitzer and Scripps Colleges
- University of San Diego
- University of La Verne
- The California State University Chancellor's Office
- University of California, Davis

They should be applauded for their willingness to dive into this project, explore new territory and build new models with us. Their success is a result of intense campus passion and expertise as well as tenacity and persistence! We are also grateful for the support of Project Kaleidoscope and AAC&U for sponsoring the project, providing staff support and opportunities for presentation at national meetings.

I. Introduction

A. Background

For the past 20 years, countless reports have been issued calling for change and reform of undergraduate education to improve student learning, persistence and graduation rates for students in STEM; however, by many measures recommendations in these reports have not been widely implemented (Seymour 2002; Handelsman, et al. 2004; Fairweather 2008; Borrego, Froyd and Hall 2010). Aspirational student success goals in STEM have been set most recently by the President's Office of Science and Technology (PCAST) recent report, entitled Engage To Excel: Producing One Million Additional College Graduates in Science, Engineering, Technology and Mathematics (2011). The report states that STEM graduation rates will have to increase annually by 34% to meet this goal, and the greatest opportunity for improvement is in the graduation rates of under-represented minority (URM) students since their graduation rates lag behind those of majority students. More recent reports reiterate the need to focus on creating more student-centered learning environments that are built on a foundation of conceptual learning goals and use of the most effective research-based teaching, learning and assessment strategies (AAAS, 2012; AAMC/HHMI, 2012). The meta analysis that Scott Freeman and his colleagues conducted of recent science education research papers and conclusively confirms that by using active learning strategies as opposed to traditional lecture, student exam scores increase and failure rates drop dramatically (Freeman et al, 2014). Moreover, the increasingly interdisciplinary nature of the 21st century and the global challenges our society faces require that students be engaged in learning that will prepare them to address and solve these problems (National Academies 2009, 2010a, 2011, and 2012). Still other research and program development has shown that changing the learning environment toward more interactive and engaging teaching methods is only one factor that leads to improved student success.

In addition to improvements in pedagogy and curriculum, STEM leaders are also recognizing the multifaceted changes needed in order to create student success. Student advising, faculty professional development, student research mentoring, academic support programs, clear STEM-focused institutional articulation agreements, external partnerships with business and industry related to internships and other research experiences, among other critical areas are often overlooked within reform efforts and have been identified as central to student success. These programs are particularly important for students who are typically underrepresented in STEM disciplines, the group with the largest potential to contribute to the PCAST report's lofty degree production goals. These multifaceted changes that include partnerships with student affairs and other support programs as well as entities outside the institution suggests an institutional rather than departmental approach to change. Also key instructional and curricular reforms also need support from the institution in terms of altering promotion and tenure and reward structures or getting enough support for professional development. There is gaining recognition that reform in STEM is an institutional imperative rather than only a departmental one. For example, the Meyerhoff Scholars Program at the University of Maryland, Baltimore County combines specific academic, social and research support interventions that have resulted in dramatic improvements in graduation of minority STEM students (Lee and Harmon, 2013). In addition, research suggests that changes made to improve student engagement, such as implementation of high impact practices, has a benefit for all students, but has a greater impact on URM students (see for example, Beichner, 2008; Kuh and O'Donnell, 2013; Finley and McNair, 2013). The

Center for Urban Education's Equity Scorecard (<u>http://cue.usc.edu/our_tools/the_equity_scorecard.html</u>) provides a specific approach – both qualitative and quantitative - for addressing URM equity issues across all disciplines at the institutional level.

Thus, approaches to change in STEM higher education require a systemic and comprehensive approach that engages all levels of the institution, from department faculty to student affairs professionals to deans, provosts and presidents. As a result, this framework focuses on institutional change in the way that STEM change agents can facilitate this particular type of reform. In fact, one of the major contributions of this report is to help STEM leaders recognize and leverage institutional resources needed for STEM student success. It was informed by research and developed in collaboration with eleven campus teams from both public and private universities working on STEM education change projects with the generous support of the W.M. Keck Foundation over a three-year project period.

B. Fostering Change

In order to make progress toward more institutional reform efforts, a comprehensive, *Scientific Framework for Strategic Change in STEM Education* has been developed. This Framework is geared toward helping campus leaders plan, implement and assess systemic change strategies that improve recruitment, access, retention, learning, and completion for all students in all STEM disciplines. This includes the breadth of ways that students engage in STEM learning on our campuses, from students in STEM majors to those taking science and mathematics general education program requirements, meeting quantitative reasoning requirements, and taking science or mathematics prerequisite courses required for applied majors such as agriculture or those in the health professions.

As noted above, most prior initiatives or reports have been aimed at altering individual faculty or departmental activities, and there is little research that has helped leaders to understand the various interventions that might be implemented that extend beyond departments creating an institutional vision for STEM reform. In addition, earlier efforts have not addressed the policies and practices at the institutional level that often hinder reforms or can be leveraged to enable greater changes. For example, a very common problem is a lack of faculty workload adjustments to provide them with the time to devote to redesigning courses or participating in the required professional development.

"New insights gained from the ongoing interactions have contributed to an iterative design process and to the non-linear nature of our work. The constant need and desire to adjust plans and actions based on new knowledge and insights acquired makes it challenging to develop a single plan." - CSU East Bay

There are many different approaches to creating change within colleges and universities. A typical model is often of strategic planning and this Framework includes some of the practices often included in strategic planning such as vision setting, identifying benchmarks, and conducting a

landscape analysis. However, our approach to change is based on practices of organizational learning. Within this approach to change, information gathering and data analysis play a central role in helping individuals to identify directions and appropriate interventions for making strategic forward progress. Participants in any organizational learning planning process foreground the data, reflection, dialogue, and non-hierarchical teams learning and developing innovative approaches. This means having campus teams look at data related to student success in order to determine the specific challenges and problems and to orient themselves towards a vision for change. But an organizational learning model also focuses on learning throughout the change process.

The Framework is focused on facilitating organizational learning, but it also incorporates key ideas from other research on change, such as the need to address politics, developing buy-in and a shared vision, understanding the power of organizational culture, and helping campus leaders unearth underlying assumptions and values that might create resistance to change. It should be noted that almost all these processes – organizational learning, addressing politics, creating a shared vision and unearthing cultural assumptions – were extremely hard for STEM leaders in the project to embrace. These processes are often messy and non linear. However, strategic planning approaches that are linear and less messy were often preferred by the leaders we worked with, which suggests that teams are not naturally inclined to use the strategies that work to create change. We describe this challenge in more detail later under implicit theories of change (Kezar, Gehrke and Elrod, in preparation).

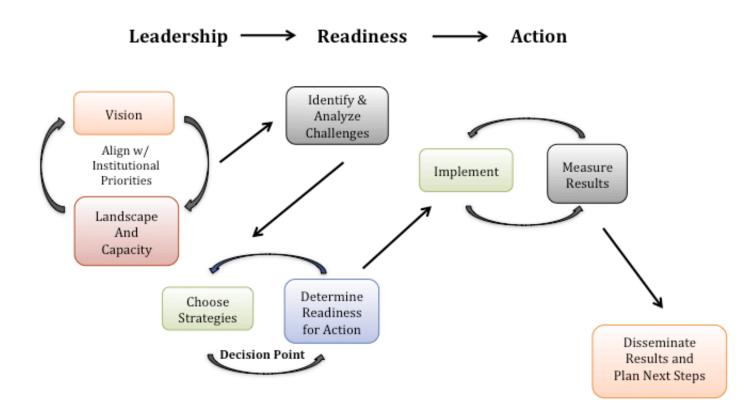
The Framework, described below, articulates both the practical steps and logistics of the work of STEM reform as well as the key phases for leading, supporting, implementing and sustaining program interventions that result in improved student learning and success, particularly for under-represented minority (URM) students. Most campuses in the project had URM student success as a primary component of their project goals; however, they took different approaches to achieve improved outcomes for these students based on various factors identified in the Framework process (e.g., leverage points, existing expertise, capacity, etc.). While it was developed explicitly for STEM reform projects at the institutional level, we believe it has utility for any systemic reform project.

II. Keck/PKAL Scientific Framework for Strategic Change in STEM Education

A. The Framework

The Framework process is illustrated as a river to illustrate the dynamic, flowing nature of change (Figure 1). It begins at the upper left and proceeds toward the lower right with the colored boxes representing the practical steps that need to occur along the way. Leadership is critical for starting the process. The process also requires a significant readiness assessment component to gauge campus climate, capacity for change and resources required for program development. And, finally the process leads to action of the planned strategies that leads to desired results.

Figure 1. The Framework



A river analogy is most apt, not only because of the flowing nature of a river, but because a river is a dynamic, changing structure. The flow (change process) encounters obstacles (challenges presented by certain aspects of the change process) that may result in a eddy where the flow circles around the obstacle until it can break free. Travelers on the river may enter at various points or put out at certain locations to rest. New travelers may enter and join a party already on a journey down the river. Indeed, teams working on system change may start at different points, change membership or even stop out for periods of time because other campus priorities emerge, team members take on other duties, campus leadership changes, etc.

The eddies in the Framework flow indicate where effort has a tendency to loop back in an iterative process. For example, in the visioning process, the data landscape analysis informs and refines the vision. It is not a linear, stepwise process, but one that is more dynamic like a flowing river that produces occasional eddies off to the side as it encounters obstacles. The resulting eddy motion is an apt analogy for the circular swirl, or iterative process, that campus teams experience when they encounter resistance, challenges along their path toward reform. They must work through the issue, determine the nature of the challenge and figure out how to get the flow going again in the desired direction. In a "reform eddy" teams "peel out" or pause while the obstacle is investigated and further analyzed before they are able to get out of the circular flow and continue further downstream. Teams may also enter the river at different points, depending on where they are in terms of understanding of the problem, existing expertise, campus leadership capacity, etc. Teams can also swim up or downstream, although the general flow will be ultimately to go downstream toward action and success. Deploying the Framework using these elements can be painful and challenging but it is extremely helpful to envision what you think will work for you and to identify where you are, based on campus context, expertise, leadership, etc. Wherever you start, we believe you must somehow address all the elements at some point or time.

Throughout the flow, leadership is required, readiness must be assessed and, ultimately, action is taken (represented in the upper part of the Framework diagram). Leaders must be identified early in the process. These leaders may be from the central administration, departmental, division, or college. External experts and/or partners may also play a critical early leadership role (board of trustee member, K-12 partner). Early adopters/disrupters who are faculty that are already engaged in course redesign or DBER (discipline-based educational research) or are champions (influential faculty leaders) are common early leaders for change in STEM. These individuals make up important members of an initial team to get the project started. Some resources (particularly time for faculty leaders to devote to planning and initial analysis) are extremely helpful during this phase. Funding from special project funding pools or external grants can seed initial efforts.

There are eight Framework elements:

1. Vision -- The vision represents the direction that the campus is aimed in terms of altering the learning and student experience to support success. We encourage a vision that is clear and shared.

2. Landscape and capacity -- A direction forward is typically best created through an analysis of the existing landscape (internal campus data as well as external trends, research and reports) as well as a review of current capacity to engage in change generally -- such as history of reform, leadership, and buy-in and ownership among faculty. This stage focuses on the collecting of data and information to conduct analysis.

3. Identify and analyze challenges -- The landscape and capacity information needs to be analyzed in order to identify both challenges and opportunities for the campus. This phase often brings in aspects of both politics and culture that might be sources of both opportunities and challenges.

4. Choose strategies/ interventions/opportunities -- Campuses need to familiarize themselves with a host of strategies or interventions that they might choose from to address the challenges identified. They can examine these strategies in light of the capacity of the campus as well as opportunities identified earlier.

5. Determine readiness for action -- In addition to reviewing the capacity and opportunities, there are key issues that emerge when implementing specific strategies such as resources, workload, institutional commitment, facilities, timeline and other areas that should be reviewed in order to effectively implement the strategy and to ensure that the campus is ready to move forward with that particular strategy. Campuses will be able to identify opportunities, such as a newly established special campus projects fund, a new faculty hire with appropriate expertise, etc. that can be leveraged in support of effective implementation. Besides ensuring that a solid plan for action has been developed, this phase also involves exploring campus politics and culture.

6. Implementation - Implementation involves drafting a plan for putting the intervention or strategies in place. The plan builds off of the ideas from the readiness for action, capacity of the campus, and opportunities identified. All of these will be built into the plan as well as a process for understanding challenges as they emerge. In addition to a well laid out plan, campuses may decide to pilot an initiative first and then consider how to modify and scale it after an initial trial.

7. Measure results -- Campuses will also create an assessment plan to inform whether the intervention is working and ways they can be changed over time to work better.

8. Disseminate and plan next steps – In order to prevent the continued siloization of our work, it is important for campuses to think about dissemination opportunities on campus as well as off campus, either regionally, statewide or nationally. Also, keeping the momentum going will require deliberate planning for next steps.

Figure 2 below represents the Framework elements arranged in the stages of the scientific method. Science faculty may find this version more approachable because it represents the change process in terms of the development of scientific knowledge, from hypothesis development to experimental design and testing. The Framework stages are placed in this context to show the parallels between these two processes. Through our work, we identified that faculty may resonate better at least initially with this representation of the framework. A similar framing has previously been used by Handelsman et al., (2004) and Weiman (2007) to help science faculty see the connections between their disciplinary mindset of discovery and experimentation, and that of educational research and reform. What we found is that one way to orient or approach change often does not work, so we offer this different vantage point that may more strongly resonate.

Vision Measure Choose Implement Results Strategies Landscape Disseminate And Determine Results Do the experiment! Capacity Readiness for Action Identify & Experimental Analyze Challenges Design Hypothesis confirmed? Rejected? Hypothesis What is the next experiment/action?

Figure 2. A Scientific Version of the Framework

Development

B. Steps in the Framework Process

Step 1. Determine where to enter the Framework

It needs to be emphasized that each campus must construct its own "framework" process. Our experience is that this Framework provides a

general outline that can be used by individual campuses and customized to help them institutionalize and sustain STEM reform efforts. Individual campus processes vary tremendously, navigating through the framework in very different ways. However, campuses will eventually hit on all of the aspects of the Framework. From our experience with the participating campuses, if a particular area was ignored they found themselves drawn back to that issue because it became a barrier to their forward movement. As a result, most campuses did not move through the framework in a linear fashion. Sometimes it took

Wherever a campus starts, we believe you must somehow address all the elements at some point or time.

teams 2 to 3 years to reassess goals and to experience enough roadblocks that they finally returned to the initial steps. When they did, there was a new clarity of purpose. But at the end of the project, each team noted that had they been open to following the framework from the beginning they would have saved themselves a lot of stops and starts, resistance and headaches, and likely time and resources. So it's important for campuses to identify what steps they have already taken and then help consider next steps moving forward. However, it is important to keep the framework in the background to identify specific barriers and help teams return to issues they had ignored.

The entire process takes leadership. Leadership can take a variety of forms, from informal faculty leaders to formal institutional administrators. Regardless, though, leaders must understand change processes and management issues in order to help the team stay the course down the river of change. Leaders must also help their teams determine the best entry point and the questions in Table 1 are designed to help.

Key Questions	Yes or No?	If yes, then	If no, then
Vision: Is there a campus vision and/or goal		use this as a lever to bring	this may be a good place to start.
statement that is specific to		people together to discuss	Present this as an opportunity to start
related to student success? Do programs,		common goals and specific	a conversation about what is
departments and/or Colleges have articulated goals		outcomes.	important regarding student learning
for?			and success.
Landscape Analysis: Does the campus regularly		tie the data to your vision if	this may be a good place to start,
collect and analyze data regarding		that hasn't already been done.	assuming there are appropriate
, retention and graduation? Is		Data can be an important lever	resources and expertise for
there faculty or staff expertise with respect to		for change and an opportunity	performing this type of analysis. If

Table 1. Getting Started

?	for conversations with faculty	not, the campus may need to consider
	and staff. Interview faculty,	how it will obtain the expertise
	attend department meetings,	needed either through staffing or use
	leverage educational experts.	of consultants.
Identify and analyze challenges: Has the campus	leverage this analysis for a	begin by collecting data and put
identified student attributes, programmatic	focused discussion on specific	together a team that can analyze it.
bottlenecks, policy, scheduling or other factors that	areas where interventions might	This will be an important analysis to
impeded?	be fruitful.	carry out and is a critical step needed
		before moving forward to the next
		step.
Choose strategies and interventions: Does the	bring the people who have	conduct a review of the relevant
campus have any experience with implementation of	this experience together to	literature (see section on strategies
evidence-based practices related to	share their knowledge and	and interventions) as well as devoting
(e.g., course redesign, problem-	assess results; tie results back to	resources to professional development
based learning, summer bridge programs,	vision and landscape analysis to	opportunities for faculty and staff is
supplemental instruction, learning communities,	see how they fit together,	warranted.
etc.)?	identify where gaps exist and	
	them create a plan for how to	
	move forward that addresses	
	concerns.	

Questions to ask when considering this step:

1. Answer the questions provided in Table 1 (yes/no) column. Where do you think your team should start, based on your responses to the questions in Table 1? Why?

2. What challenges do you think might face? What opportunities might you have to leverage for starting at this point?

Action Step	When	
1.		
2.		
3.		

3. What will be your first three action steps, using the information in Table 1?

Step 2. Establish your Framework baseline.

Before you get started, rate your campus' current status on the Framework elements below. Use this rubric to check in on your progress periodically. To determine your campus' status, identify the benchmark description that best fits your campus right now and tally your score. Fill out the worksheet questions provided in the separate worksheet document.

		Benchmark		
Framework Element	Developed (3 points)	Emerging (2 points)	Initial (1 point)	Score
Vision	The campus has a well-defined statement that describes their collective vision for improving (which may include overarching outcomes like quantitative reasoning). The vision includes clear goals for your efforts as well as specific outcomes and measures, and is linked to institutional mission and priorities.	Individual units may have statements that relate to ; however, they are not coherent across relevant units or tied to institutional mission and priorities.	The campus has not developed a vision or goals for, although isolated courses may have these goals. There may also not be a campus-wide vision for student learning and success.	
Landscape and Capacity Analysis	The campus has a clear picture of how students are performing in classes and programs regarding , as well as how this relates to student success (e.g., attainment of degrees); how, what and when they are learning; how they are moving into and through the institution; what roadblocks are	The campus has capacity for colleting and analyzing data but has not fully analyzed or disaggregated for 	The campus has not yet collected or analyzed data on student learning or success; may not have the staff or other resources to collect and analyze data.	

Table 2. Framework Rubric

	they facing; what programs or		
	other factors facilitate their		
	progression.		
Identify and	Specific challenges regarding	The campus may have a desire to	There is a general lack of awareness
Analyze		implement one or more strategies	among faculty and/or administrators
Challenges	have been articulated and	but these are not connected to the	regarding effective practices for
	supported by evidence. Pointers	evidence regarding student	promoting
	to particular programmatic or	learning and success indicators; a	;
	institutional opportunities that	few opportunities have been	the campus has not identified any
	might be leveraged have been	identified, although some may not	opportunities that might be leveraged.
	recognized.	be directly applicable.	
Strategy and	Specific strategies or	Programmatic strategies or	Strategies have not been identified or
Intervention	programmatic interventions have	interventions are not fully	developed.
Choice	been identified that address the	developed or do not address needs	
	gaps or needs identified by the	identified by landscape and	
	landscape analysis and are	capacity analysis.	
	focused on the vision.		
Determine	The campus has identified and	Some resources have been	No analysis or identification of
Readiness	obtained the faculty, staff,	identified, although the campus	resources has been completed.
	financial, physical and cultural	may not have obtained all the	
	resources to implement the	needed resources.	
	identified strategies.		
Implementation	The campus has carried out at	Plans are not complete; scattered	No plans to implement exist.
	least one pilot or small-scale	or isolated attempts at strategies	
	implementation of their planned	may have been made by	
	strategy and collected adequate	individuals or in single courses.	
	assessment data to monitor		
	effectiveness, make		
	improvements and inform scale		
	up.		
Measuring	Key data will have been	Implementation has occurred;	No data has been collected or

, where it may incomp ow you might next round of analyze nd eventual roject purpose, Some d	ed; dataset may be plete; if data has been ed it may not have been ed. descriptions of project goals sults may be available in	Very little information about the	
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rious formats project,	, department or college	engaged in the process. No plan exists	l
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l media sites, not wid	dely available across	program implementation.	l
ions, campus	s or beyond. Planning for		l
articles, next ste	eps may be incomplete,		l
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Questions to ask when considering this step:

1. What was your institution score on the rubric: a score of 8 indicates you are at the very beginning stages; a score of 24 indicates you are at a very advanced stage of work. Was your score expected, unexpected? Why?

2. What strengths, weaknesses and opportunities can you identify as a result of your rubric analysis?

Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities

Step 3. Team and Leadership Development

Team development is extremely important because the team is the engine creating the forward momentum of the project. Assembling the best team can take several months and we encourage projects to take the time to create high functioning teams. Once teams are created they also need time to get to know each other, create a common language and vision around the change, and build trust. Regular meetings or an in-depth annual retreat can facilitate team building. Before moving into the detailed work of data analysis and identifying interventions, team members need to trust each other, gain respect, understand each other's expertise, and develop relationships. Everyone must feel welcome and that they are in a safe environment for discussion of potentially controversial ideas or data and for free expression of opinions as well as experimentation with innovative interventions.

Having a team leader who can keep the team focused and on track is critical. If one or two senior leaders are willing to serve on the team or be able act as liaison this is helpful in gaining the type of leadership needed for institution wide change. Some teams find that they get better thinking by identifying unexpected people to put on the team—some one from technology services or other disciplines such as the humanities. It is also important for team leaders to continually reflect on the process to monitor team effectiveness as well as project progress. We provide questions that can be used by leaders to be mindful of team process and practice:

Leader Reflection Questions:

- What aspects of this stage went well? Where did you encounter challenges? Were you able to overcome them? If so, how? If not, why not?
- What important team and/or institutional values were uncovered?
- What did you learn about what your campus does well and can further leverage?
- How well is your team functioning? How are you empowering and rewarding their work? Are there any issues communication, collaboration, commitment, capacity? How are you addressing these challenges?
- What were your leadership challenges? What were your leadership successes?
- Overall, how well do you think the team executed this stage of the process? What might you do next time to improve?

Questions to ask when considering this step:

1. Who do you think you need on the team? Think about the expertise you might need, expertise you have on campus and membership from across the institution.

Types of Expertise	Name(s)
Faculty	
Staff	
Student Affairs	
Office of Institutional Research	
Administration	
Students	
Other	
Other	

- 2. Who will lead the team? You will need faculty leaders and institutional champions.
 - a. Faculty leaders:
 - b. Institutional champions:
- 3. How will the team work and communicate?

Team Development Resources: For more guidance on working as a team, please see Bensimon and Neumann (1993) and also the Equity Scorecard Project's guides for campus teams (<u>http://cue.usc.edu/our_tools/the_equity_scorecard.html</u>).

Leadership Development Resources: Project Kaleidoscope offers a yearly summer leadership Institute (Elrod and Kezar, 2014). Close to 2,000 faculty have gone through the training and found it extremely important to assisting them in leading change efforts on campus as well as advancing in their careers and to roles as department chair, dean and provost. Many disciplinary societies offer leadership training at their annual meetings. Other faculty have developed their leadership skills by participating in regional and national STEM reform networks such as SENCER (Science Education for New Civic Engagement and Responsibilities; http://www.sencer.net), BioQUEST (http://bioquest.org), and POGIL (Process Oriented Guided Inquiry Learning; https://pogil.org). Each of these networks provides different opportunities for developing leadership skills, mostly through the lens of mounting projects related to undergraduate STEM reform. Campuses that are successful in reforming STEM typically send faculty to these various professional development opportunities to gain the skills required to lead processes like we describe in this guidebook. Faculty leaders, chair and deans may also realize greater success when they "lead up" by creating short talking points for higher level leaders so they can speak with authority about STEM education and/or campus projects. Additionally, senior leaders are needed to change reward structures, help with resources, and provide the infrastructure such as professional development or outcomes assessment to support long-term changes. Senior leaders are more likely to be supportive when they see the initiative is aligned with institutional goals. We found that campus teams were much more successful when they determined institutional priorities and aligns their STEM reform efforts with institutional goals.

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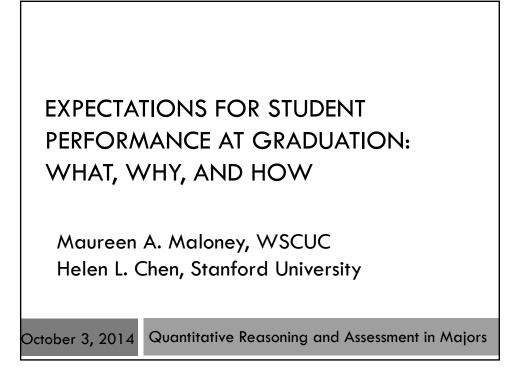
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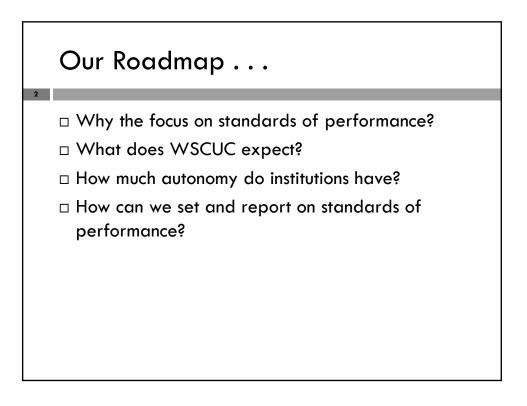


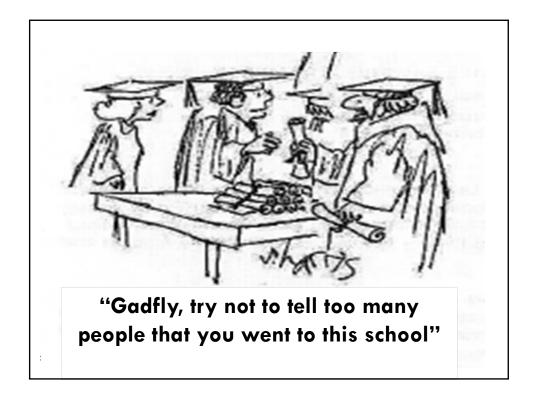
Breakout 7

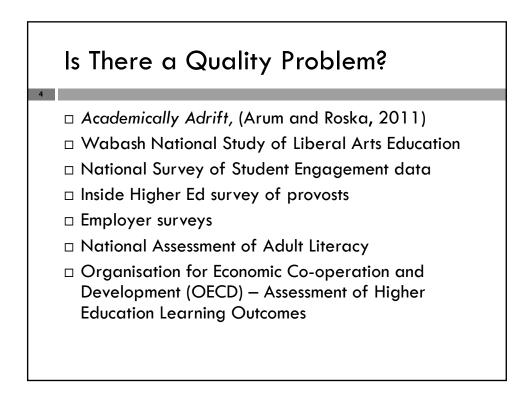
Expectations for Student Performance at Graduation: What, Why, and How

H. Chen M. Maloney





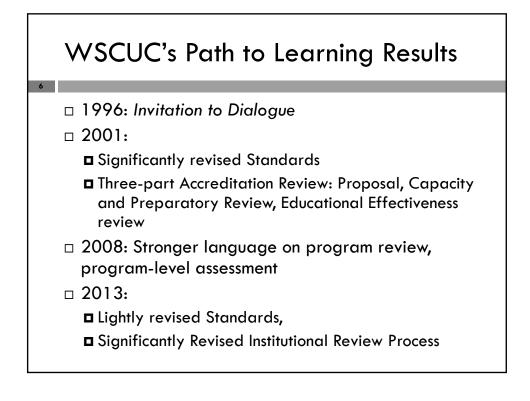


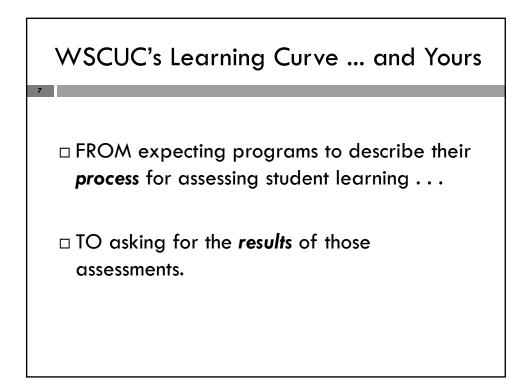


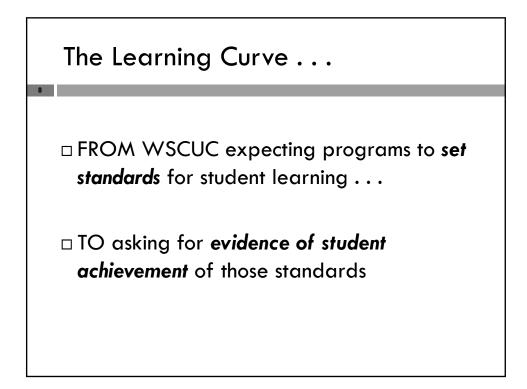
Is There an Accreditation Problem?

Does accreditation...

- focus on process or results? Inputs or outcomes?
- address proxies or actual learning?
- serve accountability or improvement?
- review rigorously or is it a club of peers?
- protect institutions or protect consumers?
- stimulate innovation or stifle it?

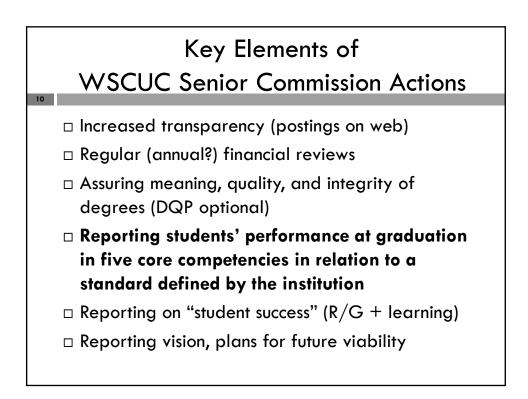


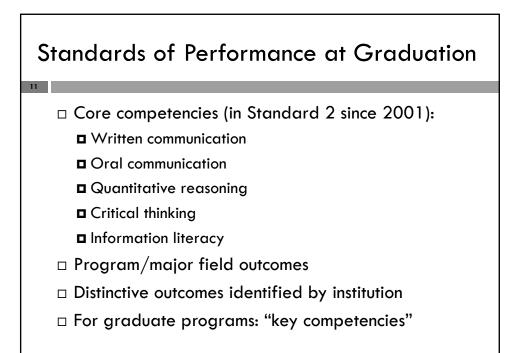


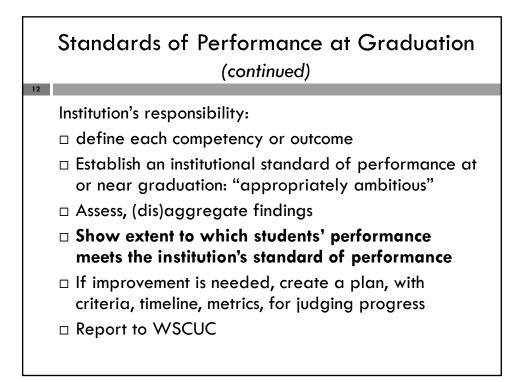


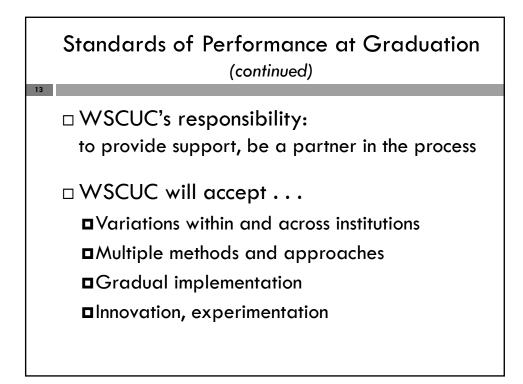
The Learning Curve . . .

- □ FROM evidence that the institution acts on findings and can show *improvement*...
- TO also asking "Is this good enough? How do we know? What means do we use to establish standards of performance or proficiency?"

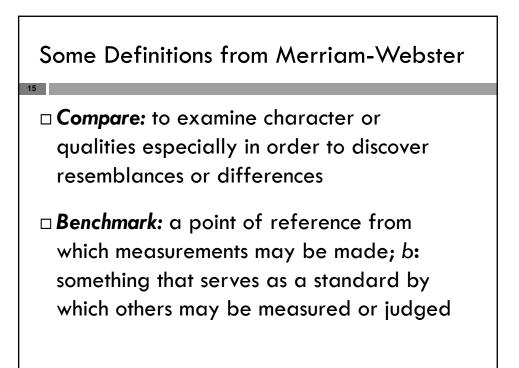


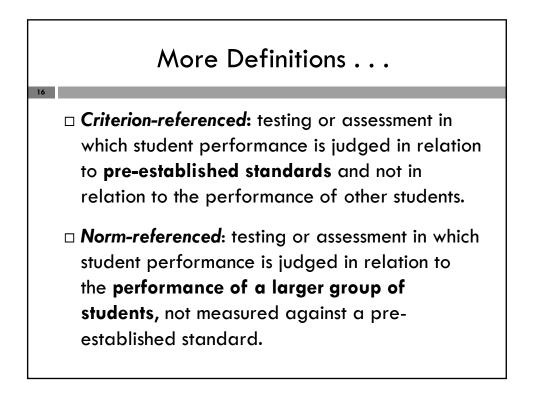












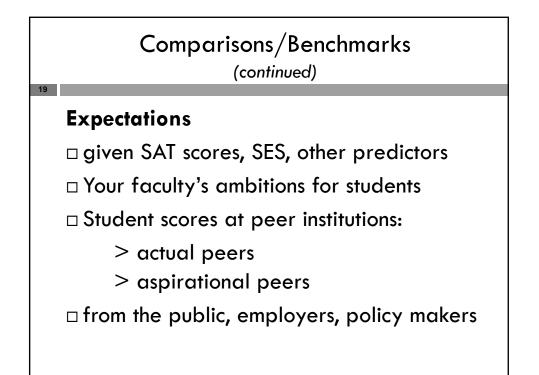


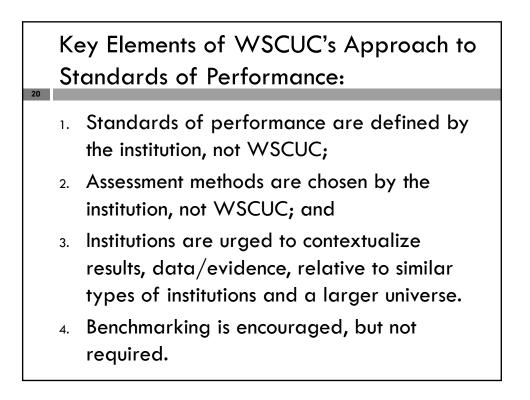
How Do We Define a Standard of Performance?

Consider...

18

- Your baseline, e.g. current graduating students' achievement
- Previous class(es) of graduates (or rising juniors, transfers, others)
- □ Students' progress from entry to exit

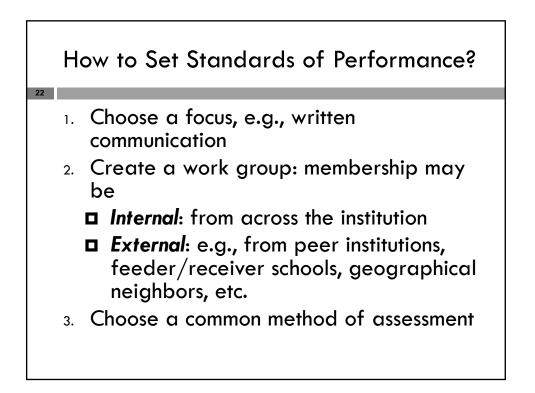


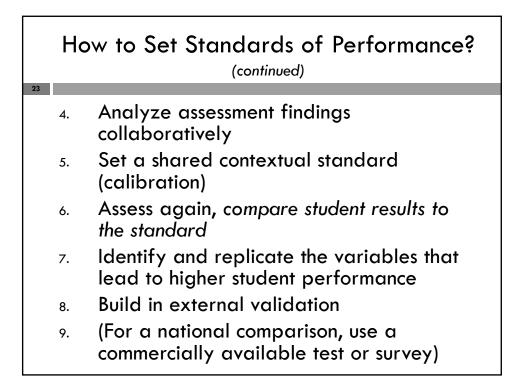


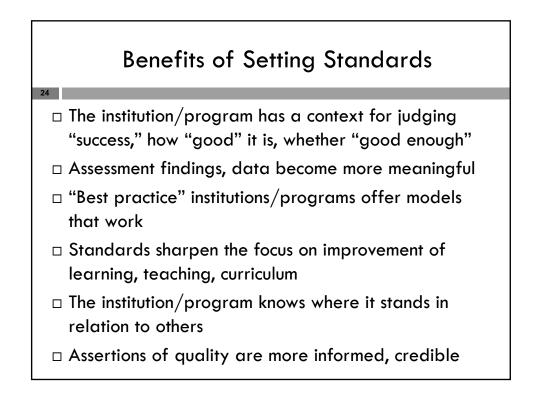
WSCUC's Role:

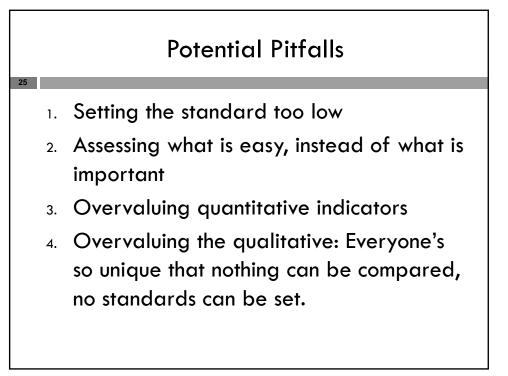
To validate that the institution has...

- 1. set its own standards of performance;
- 2. calibrated its level of performance and proficiency in some way, e.g., internally, against peers, employer expectations
- generated data/evidence of learning results;
- 4. developed plans for improvement where needed

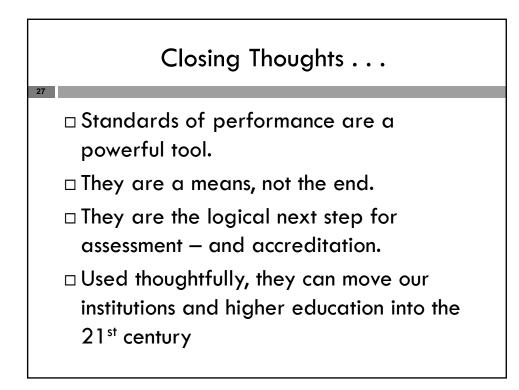


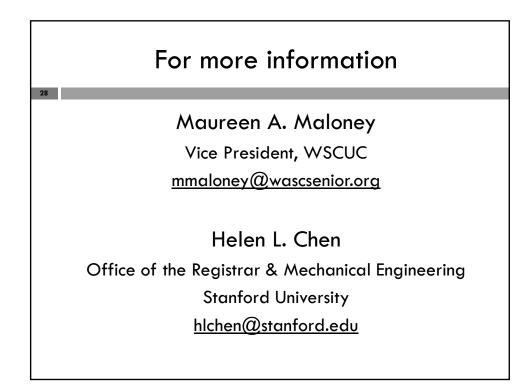






26	Potential Pitfalls (continued)				
	5.	Focusing "within the box," on current results; not looking beyond, to higher ambitions, "out of the box" innovation			
	6.	Fear, which shuts down candor, collaboration, learning			
	7.	A competitive approach, pitting collaborators against each other			
	8.	Temptation to game the system: improve the appearance but not the reality			







RESOURCES



Association of American Colleges & Universities (AAC&U) VALUE Rubrics

CRITICAL THINKING VALUE RUBRIC

for more information, please contact value@aacu.org



The VALUE rubrics were developed by teams of faculty experts representing colleges and universities across the United States through a process that examined many existing campus rubrics and related documents for each learning outcome and incorporated additional feedback from faculty. The rubrics articulate fundamental criteria for each learning outcome, with performance descriptors demonstrating progressively more sophisticated levels of attainment. The rubrics are intended for institutional-level use in evaluating and discussing student learning, not for grading. The core expectations articulated in all 15 of the VALUE rubrics can and should be translated into the language of individual campuses, disciplines, and even courses. The utility of the VALUE rubrics is to position learning at all undergraduate levels within a basic framework of expectations such that evidence of learning can by shared nationally through a common dialog and understanding of student success.

Definition

Critical thinking is a habit of mind characterized by the comprehensive exploration of issues, ideas, artifacts, and events before accepting or formulating an opinion or conclusion.

Framing Language

This rubric is designed to be transdisciplinary, reflecting the recognition that success in all disciplines requires habits of inquiry and analysis that share common attributes. Further, research suggests that successful critical thinkers from all disciplines increasingly need to be able to apply those habits in various and changing situations encountered in all walks of life.

This rubric is designed for use with many different types of assignments and the suggestions here are not an exhaustive list of possibilities. Critical thinking can be demonstrated in assignments that require students to complete analyses of text, data, or issues. Assignments that cut across presentation mode might be especially useful in some fields. If insight into the process components of critical thinking (e.g., how information sources were evaluated regardless of whether they were included in the product) is important, assignments focused on student reflection might be especially illuminating.

Glossary

The definitions that follow were developed to clarify terms and concepts used in this rubric only.

- Ambiguity: Information that may be interpreted in more than one way.
- Assumptions: Ideas, conditions, or beliefs (often implicit or unstated) that are "taken for granted or accepted as true without proof." (quoted from www.dictionary.reference.com/browse/assumptions)
- Context: The historical, ethical. political, cultural, environmental, or circumstantial settings or conditions that influence and complicate the consideration of any issues, ideas, artifacts, and events.
- Literal meaning: Interpretation of information exactly as stated. For example, "she was green with envy" would be interpreted to mean that her skin was green.
- Metaphor: Information that is (intended to be) interpreted in a non-literal way. For example, "she was green with envy" is intended to convey an intensity of emotion, not a skin color.

CRITICAL THINKING VALUE RUBRIC

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Definition

Critical thinking is a habit of mind characterized by the comprehensive exploration of issues, ideas, artifacts, and events before accepting or formulating an opinion or conclusion.

Evaluators are encouraged to assign a zero to any work sample or collection of work that does not meet benchmark (cell one) level performance.

	Capstone	Milestones		Benchmark	
	4	3	2	1	
Explanation of issues	Issue/ problem to be considered critically is stated clearly and described comprehensively, delivering all relevant information necessary for full understanding.	Issue/problem to be considered critically is stated, described, and clarified so that understanding is not seriously impeded by omissions.	Issue/problem to be considered critically is stated but description leaves some terms undefined, ambiguities unexplored, boundaries undetermined, and/or backgrounds unknown.	Issue/problem to be considered critically is stated without clarification or description.	
Evidence Selecting and using information to investigate a point of view or conclusion	Information is taken from source(s) with enough interpretation/ evaluation to develop a comprehensive analysis or synthesis. Viewpoints of experts are questioned thoroughly.	Information is taken from source(s) with enough interpretation/evaluation to develop a coherent analysis or synthesis. Viewpoints of experts are subject to questioning.	Information is taken from source(s) with some interpretation/ evaluation, but not enough to develop a coherent analysis or synthesis. Viewpoints of experts are taken as mostly fact, with little questioning.	Information is taken from source(s) without any interpretation/evaluation. Viewpoints of experts are taken as fact, without question.	
Influence of context and assumptions	Thoroughly (systematically and methodically) analyzes own and others' assumptions and carefully evaluates the relevance of contexts when presenting a position.	Identifies own and others' assumptions and several relevant contexts when presenting a position.	Questions some assumptions. Identifies several relevant contexts when presenting a position. May be more aware of others' assumptions than one's own (or vice versa).	Shows an emerging awareness of present assumptions (sometimes labels assertions as assumptions). Begins to identify some contexts when presenting a position.	
Student's position (perspective, thesis/hypothesis)	Specific position (perspective, thesis/hypothesis) is imaginative, taking into account the complexities of an issue. Limits of position (perspective, thesis/hypothesis) are acknowledged. Others' points of view are synthesized within position (perspective, thesis/hypothesis).	Specific position (perspective, thesis/hypothesis) takes into account the complexities of an issue. Others' points of view are acknowledged within position (perspective, thesis/hypothesis).	Specific position (perspective, thesis/hypothesis) acknowledges different sides of an issue.	Specific position (perspective, thesis/hypothesis) is stated, but is simplistic and obvious.	
Conclusions and related outcomes (implications and consequences)	Conclusions and related outcomes (consequences and implications) are logical and reflect student's informed evaluation and ability to place evidence and perspectives discussed in priority order.	Conclusion is logically tied to a range of information, including opposing viewpoints; related outcomes (consequences and implications) are identified clearly.	Conclusion is logically tied to information (because information is chosen to fit the desired conclusion); some related outcomes (consequences and implications) are identified clearly.	Conclusion is inconsistently tied to some of the information discussed; related outcomes (consequences and implications) are oversimplified.	

PROBLEM SOLVING VALUE RUBRIC

for more information, please contact value@aacu.org



The VALUE rubrics were developed by teams of faculty experts representing colleges and universities across the United States through a process that examined many existing campus rubrics and related documents for each learning outcome and incorporated additional feedback from faculty. The rubrics articulate fundamental criteria for each learning outcome, with performance descriptors demonstrating progressively more sophisticated levels of attainment. The rubrics are intended for institutional-level use in evaluating and discussing student learning, not for grading. The core expectations articulated in all 15 of the VALUE rubrics can and should be translated into the language of individual campuses, disciplines, and even courses. The utility of the VALUE rubrics is to position learning at all undergraduate levels within a basic framework of expectations such that evidence of learning can by shared nationally through a common dialog and understanding of student success.

Definition

Problem solving is the process of designing, evaluating and implementing a strategy to answer an open-ended question or achieve a desired goal.

Framing Language

Problem-solving covers a wide range of activities that may vary significantly across disciplines. Activities that encompass problem-solving by students may involve problems that range from well-defined to ambiguous in a simulated or laboratory context, or in real-world settings. This rubric distills the common elements of most problem-solving contexts and is designed to function across all disciplines. It is broad-based enough to allow for individual differences among learners, yet is concise and descriptive in its scope to determine how well students have maximized their respective abilities to practice thinking through problems in order to reach solutions.

This rubric is designed to measure the quality of a **process**, rather than the quality of an **end-product**. As a result, work samples or collections of work will need to include some evidence of the individual's thinking about a problem-solving task (e.g., reflections on the process from problem to proposed solution; steps in a problem-based learning assignment; record of think-aloud protocol while solving a problem). The final product of an assignment that required problem resolution is insufficient without insight into the student's problem-solving process. Because the focus is on institutional level assessment, scoring team projects, such as those developed in capstone courses, may be appropriate as well.

Glossary

The definitions that follow were developed to clarify terms and concepts used in this rubric only.

- Contextual Factors: Constraints (such as limits on cost), resources, attitudes (such as biases) and desired additional knowledge which affect how the problem can be best solved in the real world or simulated setting.
- Critique: Involves analysis and synthesis of a full range of perspectives.
- Feasible: Workable, in consideration of time-frame, functionality, available resources, necessary buy-in, and limits of the assignment or task.
- "Off the shelf" solution: A simplistic option that is familiar from everyday experience but not tailored to the problem at hand (e.g. holding a bake sale to "save" an underfunded public library).
- Solution: An appropriate response to a challenge or a problem.
- Strategy: A plan of action or an approach designed to arrive at a solution. (If the problem is a river that needs to be crossed, there could be a construction-oriented, cooperative (build a bridge with your community) approach and a personally oriented, physical (swim across alone) approach. An approach that partially applies would be a personal, physical approach for someone who doesn't know how to swim.
- Support: Specific rationale, evidence, etc. for solution or selection of solution.

PROBLEM SOLVING VALUE RUBRIC

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Definition

Problem solving is the process of designing, evaluating, and implementing a strategy to answer an open-ended question or achieve a desired goal.

Evaluators are encouraged to assign a zero to any work sample or collection of work that does not meet benchmark (cell one) level performance.

	Capstone 4	Capstone Milestones 2		Benchmark 1
Define Problem	Demonstrates the ability to construct a clear and insightful problem statement with evidence of all relevant contextual factors.	Demonstrates the ability to construct a problem statement with evidence of most relevant contextual factors, and problem statement is adequately detailed.	Begins to demonstrate the ability to construct a problem statement with evidence of most relevant contextual factors, but problem statement is superficial.	Demonstrates a limited ability in identifying a problem statement or related contextual factors.
Identify Strategies	Identifies multiple approaches for solving the problem that apply within a specific context.	Identifies multiple approaches for solving the problem, only some of which apply within a specific context.	Identifies only a single approach for solving the problem that does apply within a specific context.	Identifies one or more approaches for solving the problem that do not apply within a specific context.
Propose Solutions/Hypotheses	Proposes one or more solutions/ hypotheses that indicates a deep comprehension of the problem. Solution/ hypotheses are sensitive to contextual factors as well as all of the following: ethical, logical, and cultural dimensions of the problem.	that indicates comprehension of the	"off the shelf" rather than individually	Proposes a solution/hypothesis that is difficult to evaluate because it is vague or only indirectly addresses the problem statement.
Evaluate Potential Solutions	E valuation of solutions is deep and elegant (for example, contains thorough and insightful explanation) and includes, deeply and thoroughly, all of the following: considers history of problem, reviews logic/reasoning, examines feasibility of solution, and weighs impacts of solution.	Evaluation of solutions is adequate (for example, contains thorough explanation) and includes the following: considers history of problem, reviews logic/reasoning, examines feasibility of solution, and weighs impacts of solution.	Evaluation of solutions is brief (for example, explanation lacks depth) and includes the following: considers history of problem, reviews logic/ reasoning, examines feasibility of solution, and weighs impacts of solution.	E valuation of solutions is superficial (for example, contains cursory, surface level explanation) and includes the following: considers history of problem, reviews logic/ reasoning, examines feasibility of solution, and weighs impacts of solution.
Implement Solution	Implements the solution in a manner that addresses thoroughly and deeply multiple contextual factors of the problem.	Implements the solution in a manner that addresses multiple contextual factors of the problem in a surface manner.	Implements the solution in a manner that addresses the problem statement but ignores relevant contextual factors.	Implements the solution in a manner that does not directly address the problem statement.
Evaluate Outcomes	Reviews results relative to the problem defined with thorough, specific considerations of need for further work.	Reviews results relative to the problem defined with some consideration of need for further work.	Reviews results in terms of the problem defined with little, if any, consideration of need for further work.	Reviews results superficially in terms of the problem defined with no consideration of need for further work

INQUIRY AND ANALYSIS VALUE RUBRIC

for more information, please contact value@aacu.org



The VALUE rubrics were developed by teams of faculty experts representing colleges and universities across the United States through a process that examined many existing campus rubrics and related documents for each learning outcome and incorporated additional feedback from faculty. The rubrics articulate fundamental criteria for each learning outcome, with performance descriptors demonstrating progressively more sophisticated levels of attainment. The rubrics are intended for institutional-level use in evaluating and discussing student learning, not for grading. The core expectations articulated in all 15 of the VALUE rubrics can and should be translated into the language of individual campuses, disciplines, and even courses. The utility of the VALUE rubrics is to position learning at all undergraduate levels within a basic framework of expectations such that evidence of learning can by shared nationally through a common dialog and understanding of student success.

Definition

Inquiry is a systematic process of exploring issues, objects or works through the collection and analysis of evidence that results in informed conclusions or judgments. Analysis is the process of breaking complex topics or issues into parts to gain a better understanding of them.

Framing Language

This rubric is designed for use in a wide variety of disciplines. Since the terminology and process of inquiry are discipline-specific, an effort has been made to use broad language which reflects multiple approaches and assignments while addressing the fundamental elements of sound inquiry and analysis (including topic selection, existing, knowledge, design, analysis, etc.) The rubric language assumes that the inquiry and analysis process carried out by the student is appropriate for the discipline required. For example, if analysis using statistical methods is appropriate for the discipline then a student would be expected to use an appropriate statistical methodology for that analysis. If a student does not use a discipline-appropriate process for any criterion, that work should receive a performance rating of "1" or "0" for that criterion.

In addition, this rubric addresses the **products** of analysis and inquiry, not the **processes** themselves. The complexity of inquiry and analysis tasks is determined in part by how much information or guidance is provided to a student and how much the student constructs. The more the student constructs, the more complex the inquiry process. For this reason, while the rubric can be used if the assignments or purposes for work are unknown, it will work most effectively when those are known. Finally, faculty are encouraged to adapt the essence and language of each rubric criterion to the disciplinary or interdisciplinary context to which it is applied.

Glossary The definitions that follow were developed to clarify terms and concepts used in this rubric only.

- Conclusions: A synthesis of key findings drawn from research/evidence.
- Limitations: Critique of the process or evidence.
- Implications: How inquiry results apply to a larger context or the real world.

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Evaluators are encouraged to assign a zero to any work sample or collection of work that does not meet benchmark (cell one) level performance.

	Capstone	Milestones		Benchmark	
	4	3	2	1	
Topic selection	Identifies a creative, focused, and manageable topic that addresses potentially significant yet previously less- explored aspects of the topic.	Identifies a focused and manageable/ doable topic that appropriately addresses relevant aspects of the topic.	Identifies a topic that while manageable/ doable, is too narrowly focused and leaves out relevant aspects of the topic.	Identifies a topic that is far too general and wide-ranging as to be manageable and doable.	
Existing Knowledge, Research, and/or Views	Synthesizes in-depth information from relevant sources representing various points of view/approaches.	Presents in-depth information from relevant sources representing various points of view/approaches.	Presents information from relevant sources representing limited points of view/ approaches.	Presents information from irrelevant sources representing limited points of view/approaches.	
Design Process	 All elements of the methodology or theoretical framework are skillfully developed. Appropriate methodology or theoretical frameworks may be synthesized from across disciplines or from relevant subdisciplines. 	Critical elements of the methodology or theoretical framework are appropriately developed, however, more subtle elements are ignored or unaccounted for.	Critical elements of the methodology or theoretical framework are missing, incorrectly developed, or unfocused.	Inquiry design demonstrates a misunderstanding of the methodology or theoretical framework.	
Analysis	Organizes and synthesizes evidence to reveal insightful patterns, differences, or similarities related to focus.	Organizes evidence to reveal important patterns, differences, or similarities related to focus.	Organizes evidence, but the organization is not effective in revealing important patterns, differences, or similarities.	Lists evidence, but it is not organized and/ or is unrelated to focus.	
Conclusions	States a conclusion that is a logical extrapolation from the inquiry findings.	States a conclusion focused solely on the inquiry findings. The conclusion arises specifically from and responds specifically to the inquiry findings.	States a general conclusion that, because it is so general, also applies beyond the scope of the inquiry findings.	States an ambiguous, illogical, or unsupportable conclusion from inquiry findings.	
Limitations and Implications	Insightfully discusses in detail relevant and supported limitations and implications.	Discusses relevant and supported limitations and implications.	Presents relevant and supported limitations and implications.	Presents limitations and implications, but they are possibly irrelevant and unsupported.	

QUANTITATIVE LITERACY VALUE RUBRIC

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The VALUE rubrics were developed by teams of faculty experts representing colleges and universities across the United States through a process that examined many existing campus rubrics and related documents for each learning outcome and incorporated additional feedback from faculty. The rubrics articulate fundamental criteria for each learning outcome, with performance descriptors demonstrating progressively more sophisticated levels of attainment. The rubrics are intended for institutional-level use in evaluating and discussing student learning, not for grading. The core expectations articulated in all 15 of the VALUE rubrics can and should be translated into the language of individual campuses, disciplines, and even courses. The utility of the VALUE rubrics is to position learning at all undergraduate levels within a basic framework of expectations such that evidence of learning can by shared nationally through a common dialog and understanding of student success.

Definition

Quantitative Literacy (QL) – also known as Numeracy or Quantitative Reasoning (QR) – is a "habit of mind," competency, and comfort in working with numerical data. Individuals with strong QL skills possess the ability to reason and solve quantitative problems from a wide array of authentic contexts and everyday life situations. They understand and can create sophisticated arguments supported by quantitative evidence and they can clearly communicate those arguments in a variety of formats (using words, tables, graphs, mathematical equations, etc., as appropriate).

Quantitative Literacy Across the Disciplines

Current trends in general education reform demonstrate that faculty are recognizing the steadily growing importance of Quantitative Literacy (QL) in an increasingly quantitative and data-dense world. AAC&U's recent survey showed that concerns about QL skills are shared by employers, who recognize that many of today's students will need a wide range of high level quantitative skills to complete their work responsibilities. Virtually all of today's students, regardless of career choice, will need basic QL skills such as the ability to draw information from charts, graphs, and geometric figures, and the ability to accurately complete straightforward estimations and calculations.

Preliminary efforts to find student work products which demonstrate QL skills proved a challenge in this rubric creation process. It's possible to find pages of mathematical problems, but what those problem sets don't demonstrate is whether the student was able to think about and understand the meaning of her work. It's possible to find research papers that include quantitative information, but those papers often don't provide evidence that allows the evaluator to see how much of the thinking was done by the original source (often carefully cited in the paper) and how much was done by the student herself, or whether conclusions drawn from analysis of the source material are even accurate.

Given widespread agreement about the importance of QL, it becomes incumbent on faculty to develop new kinds of assignments which give students substantive, contextualized experience in using such skills as analyzing quantitative information, representing quantitative information in appropriate forms, completing calculations to answer meaningful questions, making judgments based on quantitative data and communicating the results of that work for various purposes and audiences. As students gain experience with those skills, faculty must develop assignments that require students to create work products which reveal their thought processes and demonstrate the range of their QL skills.

This rubric provides for faculty a definition for QL and a rubric describing four levels of QL achievement which might be observed in work products within work samples or collections of work. Members of AAC&U's rubric development team for QL hope that these materials will aid in the assessment of QL – but, equally important, we hope that they will help institutions and individuals in the effort to more thoroughly embed QL across the curriculum of colleges and universities.

Framing Language

This rubric has been designed for the evaluation of work that addresses quantitative literacy (QL) in a substantive way. QL is not just computation, not just the citing of someone else's data. QL is a habit of mind, a way of thinking about the world that relies on data and on the mathematical analysis of data to make connections and draw conclusions. Teaching QL requires us to design assignments that address authentic, data-based problems. Such assignments may call for the traditional written paper, but we can imagine other alternatives: a video of a PowerPoint presentation, perhaps, or a well designed series of web pages. In any case, a successful demonstration of QL will place the mathematical work in the context of a full and robust discussion of the underlying issues addressed by the assignment.

Finally, QL skills can be applied to a wide array of problems of varying difficulty, confounding the use of this rubric. For example, the same student might demonstrate high levels of QL achievement when working on a simplistic problem and low levels of QL achievement when working on a very complex problem. Thus, to accurately assess a students QL achievement it may be necessary to measure QL achievement within the context of problem complexity, much as is done in diving competitions where two scores are given, one for the difficulty of the dive, and the other for the skill in accomplishing the dive. In this context, that would mean giving one score for the complexity of the problem and another score for the QL achievement in solving the problem.

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Definition

Quantitative Literacy (QL) – also known as Numeracy or Quantitative Reasoning (QR) – is a "habit of mind," competency, and comfort in working with numerical data. Individuals with strong QL skills possess the ability to reason and solve quantitative problems from a wide array of authentic contexts and everyday life situations. They understand and can create sophisticated arguments supported by quantitative evidence and they can clearly communicate those arguments in a variety of formats (using words, tables, graphs, mathematical equations, etc., as appropriate).

Evaluators are encouraged to assign a zero to any work sample or collection of work that does not meet benchmark (cell one) level performance.

	Capstone	Milestones		
	4	3	2	1
Interpretation <i>Ability to explain information presented in mathematical</i> <i>forms (e.g., equations, graphs, diagrams, tables, words)</i>	Provides accurate explanations of information presented in mathematical forms. Makes appropriate inferences based on that information. For example, accurately explains the trend data shown in a graph and makes reasonable predictions regarding what the data suggest about future events.	Provides accurate explanations of information presented in mathematical forms. <i>For instance, accurately explains the trend data shown in a graph.</i>	Provides somewhat accurate explanations of information presented in mathematical forms, but occasionally makes minor errors related to computations or units. <i>For instance, accurately</i> <i>explains trend data shown in a graph, but may</i> <i>miscalculate the slope of the trend line.</i>	Attempts to explain information presented in mathematical forms, but draws incorrect conclusions about what the information means. For example, attempts to explain the trend data shown in a graph, but will frequently misinterpret the nature of that trend, perhaps by confusing positive and negative trends.
Representation Ability to convert relevant information into various mathematical forms (e.g., equations, graphs, diagrams, tables, words)	Skillfully converts relevant information into an insightful mathematical portrayal in a way that contributes to a further or deeper understanding	Competently converts relevant information into an appropriate and desired mathematical portrayal.	Completes conversion of information but resulting mathematical portrayal is only partially appropriate or accurate.	Completes conversion of information but resulting mathematical portrayal is inappropriate or inaccurate.
Calculation	Calculations attempted are essentially all successful and sufficiently comprehensive to solve the problem. Calculations are also presented elegantly (clearly, concisely, etc.)	Calculations attempted are essentially all successful and sufficiently comprehensive to solve the problem.	Calculations attempted are either unsuccessful or represent only a portion of the calculations required to comprehensively solve the problem.	Calculations are attempted but are both unsuccessful and are not comprehensive.
Application / Analysis Ability to make judgments and draw appropriate conclusions based on the quantitative analysis of data, while recognizing the limits of this analysis	Uses the quantitative analysis of data as the basis for deep and thoughtful judgments, drawing insightful, carefully qualified conclusions from this work.	Uses the quantitative analysis of data as the basis for competent judgments, drawing reasonable and appropriately qualified conclusions from this work.	Uses the quantitative analysis of data as the basis for workmanlike (without inspiration or nuance, ordinary) judgments, drawing plausible conclusions from this work.	Uses the quantitative analysis of data as the basis for tentative, basic judgments, although is hesitant or uncertain about drawing conclusions from this work.
Assumptions <i>Ability to make and evaluate important assumptions in</i> <i>estimation, modeling, and data analysis</i>	Explicitly describes assumptions and provides compelling rationale for why each assumption is appropriate. Shows awareness that confidence in final conclusions is limited by the accuracy of the assumptions.	Explicitly describes assumptions and provides compelling rationale for why assumptions are appropriate.	Explicitly describes assumptions.	Attempts to describe assumptions.
Communication Expressing quantitative evidence in support of the argument or purpose of the work (in terms of what evidence is used and how it is formatted, presented, and contextualized)	Uses quantitative information in connection with the argument or purpose of the work, presents it in an effective format, and explicates it with consistently high quality.	Uses quantitative information in connection with the argument or purpose of the work, though data may be presented in a less than completely effective format or some parts of the explication may be uneven.	effectively connect it to the argument or purpose of the work.	Presents an argument for which quantitative evidence is pertinent, but does not provide adequate explicit numerical support. (May use quasi-quantitative words such as "many," "few," "increasing," "small," and the like in place of actual quantities.)



WASC RUBRICS

PROGRAM LEARNING OUTCOMES

Rubric for Assessing the Quality of Academic Program Learning Outcomes

Criterion	Initial	Emerging	Developed	Highly Developed
Comprehensive List	The list of outcomes is problematic: e.g., very incomplete, overly detailed, inappropriate, disorganized. It may include only discipline-specific learning, ignoring relevant institution-wide learning. The list may confuse learning processes (e.g., doing an internship) with learning outcomes (e.g., application of theory to real- world problems).	The list includes reasonable outcomes but does not specify expectations for the program as a whole. Relevant institution-wide learning outcomes and/or national disciplinary standards may be ignored. Distinctions between expectations for undergraduate and graduate programs may be unclear.	The list is a well-organized set of reasonable outcomes that focus on the key knowledge, skills, and values students learn in the program. It includes relevant institution-wide outcomes (e.g., communication or critical thinking skills). Outcomes are appropriate for the level (undergraduate vs. graduate); national disciplinary standards have been considered.	The list is reasonable, appropriate, and comprehensive, with clear distinctions between undergraduate and graduate expectations, if applicable. National disciplinary standards have been considered. Faculty have agreed on explicit criteria for assessing students' level of mastery of each outcome.
Assessable Outcomes	Outcome statements do not identify what students can do to demonstrate learning. Statements such as "Students understand scientific method" do not specify how understanding can be demonstrated and assessed.	Most of the outcomes indicate how students can demonstrate their learning.	Each outcome describes how students can demonstrate learning, e.g., "Graduates can write reports in APA style" or "Graduates can make original contributions to biological knowledge."	Outcomes describe how students can demonstrate their learning. Faculty have agreed on explicit criteria statements, such as rubrics, and have identified examples of student performance at varying levels for each outcome.
Alignment	There is no clear relationship between the outcomes and the curriculum that students experience.	Students appear to be given reasonable opportunities to develop the outcomes in the required curriculum.	The curriculum is designed to provide opportunities for students to learn and to develop increasing sophistication with respect to each outcome. This design may be summarized in a curriculum map.	Pedagogy, grading, the curriculum, relevant student support services, and co- curriculum are explicitly and intentionally aligned with each outcome. Curriculum map indicates increasing levels of proficiency.
Assessment Planning	There is no formal plan for assessing each outcome.	The program relies on short- term planning, such as selecting which outcome(s) to assess in the current year.	The program has a reasonable, multi-year assessment plan that identifies when each outcome will be assessed. The plan may explicitly include analysis and implementation of improvements.	The program has a fully-articulated, sustainable, multi-year assessment plan that describes when and how each outcome will be assessed and how improvements based on findings will be implemented. The plan is routinely examined and revised, as needed.
The Student Experience	Students know little or nothing about the overall outcomes of the program. Communication of outcomes to students, e.g. in syllabi or catalog, is spotty or nonexistent.	Students have some knowledge of program outcomes. Communication is occasional and informal, left to individual faculty or advisors.	Students have a good grasp of program outcomes. They may use them to guide their own learning. Outcomes are included in most syllabi and are readily available in the catalog, on the web page, and elsewhere.	Students are well-acquainted with program outcomes and may participate in creation and use of rubrics. They are skilled at self-assessing in relation to the outcomes and levels of performance. Program policy calls for inclusion of outcomes in all course syllabi, and they are readily available in other program documents.

How Visiting Team Members Can Use the Learning Outcomes Rubric

Conclusions should be based on a review of learning outcomes and assessment plans. Although you can make some preliminary judgments about alignment based on examining the curriculum or a curriculum map, you will have to interview key departmental representatives, such as department chairs, faculty, and students, to fully evaluate the alignment of the learning environment with the outcomes.

The rubric has five major dimensions:

- 1. Comprehensive List. The set of program learning outcomes should be a short but comprehensive list of the most important knowledge, skills, and values students learn in the program, including relevant institution-wide outcomes such as those dealing with communication skills, critical thinking, or information literacy. Faculty generally should expect higher levels of sophistication for graduate programs than for undergraduate programs, and they should consider national disciplinary standards when developing and refining their outcomes, if available. There is no strict rule concerning the optimum number of outcomes, but quality is more important than quantity. Faculty should not confuse learning processes (e.g., completing an internship) with learning outcomes (what is learned in the internship, such as application of theory to real-world practice). Questions. Is the list reasonable, appropriate and well-organized? Are relevant institution-wide outcomes, such as information literacy, included? Are distinctions between undergraduate and graduate outcomes clear? Have national disciplinary standards been considered when developing and refining the outcomes? Are explicit criteria as defined in a rubric, for example available for each outcome?
- 2. Assessable Outcomes. Outcome statements should specify what students can do to demonstrate their learning. For example, an outcome might state that "Graduates of our program can collaborate effectively to reach a common goal" or that "Graduates of our program can design research studies to test theories and examine issues relevant to our discipline." These outcomes are assessable because faculty can observe the quality of collaboration in teams, and they can review the quality of student-created research designs. Criteria for assessing student products or behaviors usually are specified in rubrics, and the department should develop examples of varying levels of student performance (i.e., work that does not meet expectations, meets expectations, and exceeds expectations) to illustrate levels. Questions. Do the outcomes clarify how students can demonstrate learning? Have the faculty agreed on explicit criteria, such as rubrics, for assessing each outcome? Do they have examples of work representing different levels of mastery for each outcome?
- 3. Alignment. Students cannot be held responsible for mastering learning outcomes unless they have participated in a program that systematically supports their development. The curriculum should be explicitly designed to provide opportunities for students to develop increasing sophistication with respect to each outcome. This design often is summarized in a curriculum map—a matrix that shows the relationship between courses in the required curriculum and the program's learning outcomes. Pedagogy and grading should be aligned with outcomes to foster and encourage student growth and to provide students helpful feedback on their development. Since learning occurs within and outside the classroom, relevant student services (e.g., advising and tutoring centers) and co-curriculum (e.g., student clubs and campus events) should be designed to support the outcomes. <u>Questions</u>. Is the curriculum explicitly aligned with the program outcomes? Do faculty select effective pedagogy and use grading to promote learning? Are student support services and the co-curriculum explicitly aligned to promote student development of the learning outcomes?
- 4. Assessment Planning. Faculty should develop explicit plans for assessing each outcome. Programs need not assess every outcome every year, but faculty should have a plan to cycle through the outcomes over a reasonable period of time, such as the period for program review cycles. <u>Questions.</u> Does the plan clarify when, how, and how often each outcome will be assessed? Will all outcomes be assessed over a reasonable period of time? Is the plan sustainable, in terms of human, fiscal, and other resources? Are assessment plans revised, as needed?
- 5. **The Student Experience**. At a minimum, students should be aware of the learning outcomes of the program(s) in which they are enrolled; ideally, they should be included as partners in defining and applying the outcomes and the criteria for levels of sophistication. Thus it is essential to communicate learning outcomes to students consistently and meaningfully. <u>Questions</u>: Are the outcomes communicated to students? Do students understand what the outcomes mean and how they can further their own learning? Do students use the outcomes and criteria to self-assess? Do they participate in reviews of outcomes, criteria, curriculum design, or related activities?

PORTFOLIOS

Rubric for Assessing the Use of Portfolios for Assessing Program Learning Outcomes

Criterion	Initial	Emerging	Developed	Highly Developed
Clarification of Students' Task Valid Results	Instructions to students for portfolio development provide insufficient detail for them to know what faculty expect. Instructions may not identify outcomes to be addressed in the portfolio. It is not clear that valid evidence for each relevant	Students receive some written instructions for their portfolios, but they still have problems determining what is required of them and/or why they are compiling a portfolio. Appropriate evidence is collected for each outcome,	Students receive written instructions that describe faculty expectations in detail and include the purpose of the portfolio, types of evidence to include, role of the reflective essay (if required), and format of the finished product. Appropriate evidence is collected for each outcome; faculty use	Students in the program understand the portfolio requirement and the rationale for it, and they view the portfolio as helping them develop self-assessment skills. Faculty may monitor the developing portfolio to provide formative feedback and/or advise individual students. Assessment criteria, e.g., in the form of rubrics, have been pilot-tested and refined
	outcome is collected <u>and/or</u> individual reviewers use idiosyncratic criteria to assess student work.	and faculty have discussed relevant criteria for assessing each outcome.	explicit criteria, such as agreed- upon rubrics, to assess student attainment of each outcome. Rubrics are usually shared with students.	over time; they are shared with students, and student may have helped develop them. Feedback from external reviewers has led to refinements in the assessment process. The department also uses external benchmarking data.
Reliable Results	Those who review student work are not calibrated to apply assessment criteria in the same way, and there are no checks for inter-rater reliability.	Reviewers are calibrated to apply assessment criteria in the same way <u>or</u> faculty routinely check for inter-rater reliability.	Reviewers are calibrated to apply assessment criteria in the same way, and faculty routinely check for inter-rater reliability.	Reviewers are calibrated; faculty routinely find that assessment data have high inter- rater reliability.
Results Are Used	Results for each outcome are collected, but they are not discussed among the faculty.	Results for each outcome are collected and discussed by the faculty, but results have not been used to improve the program.	Results for each outcome are collected, discussed by faculty, and used to improve the program.	Faculty routinely discuss results, plan needed changes, secure necessary resources, and implement changes. They may collaborate with others, such as librarians or Student Affairs professionals, to improve student learning. Students may also participate in discussions and/or receive feedback, either individual or in the aggregate. Follow-up studies confirm that changes have improved learning.
If e-Portfolios Are Used	There is no technical support for students or faculty to learn the software or to deal with problems.	There is informal or minimal formal support for students and faculty.	Formal technical support is readily available and proactively assists in learning the software and solving problems.	Support is readily available, proactive, and effective. Tech support personnel may also participate in refining the overall portfolio process.

How Visiting Team Members Can Use the Portfolio Rubric

Portfolios can serve many purposes besides assessment; in fact, these other purposes are actually much more common. Portfolios may be compiled so students can share their work with family and friends. They may be designed to build students' confidence by showing development over time or by displaying best work. They may be used for advising and career counseling, or so students can show their work during a job interview. The first thing a team needs to do is determine that the portfolios are used for assessment, and not for another purpose.

Conclusions about the quality of the assessment process should be based on discussion with relevant department members (e.g., chair, assessment coordinator, faculty, students) and a review of the program's written portfolio assignment. Two common types of portfolios are:

• Showcase portfolios—collections of each student's best work

• Developmental portfolios—collections of work from early, middle, and late stages in the student's academic career that demonstrate growth Faculty generally require students to include a reflective essay that describes how the evidence in the portfolio demonstrates their achievement of program learning outcomes. Sometimes faculty monitor developing portfolios to provide formative feedback and/or advising to students, and sometimes they collect portfolios only as students near graduation. Portfolio assignments should clarify the purpose of the portfolio, what kinds of evidence should be included, and the format (e.g., paper vs. e-portfolios); and students should view the portfolio as contributing to their personal development.

The rubric has five major dimensions and a fifth dimension limited to e-portfolios:

- Clarification of Students' Task. Most students have never created a portfolio, and they need explicit guidance. <u>Questions</u>. Does the portfolio assignment provide sufficient detail so students understand the purpose, the types of evidence to include, the learning outcomes to address, the role of the reflective essay (if any), and the required format? Do students view the portfolio as contributing to their ability to self-assess? Do faculty use the developing portfolios to assist individual students?
- 2. Valid Results. Sometimes portfolios lack valid evidence for assessing particular outcomes. For example, portfolios may not allow faculty to assess how well students can deliver oral presentations. Judgments about that evidence need to be based on well-established, agreed-upon criteria that specify (usually in rubrics) how to identify work that meets or exceeds expectations. <u>Questions</u>: Do the portfolios systematically include valid evidence for each targeted outcome? Are faculty using well-established, agreed-upon criteria, such as rubrics, to assess the evidence for each outcome? Have faculty pilot tested and refined their process? Are criteria shared with students? Are they collaborating with colleagues at other institutions to secure benchmarking (comparison) data?
- 3. **Reliable Results**. Well-qualified judges should reach the same conclusions about a student's achievement of a learning outcome, demonstrating inter-rater reliability. If two judges independently assess a set of materials, their ratings can be correlated. Sometimes a discrepancy index is used. How often do the two raters give identical ratings, ratings one point apart, ratings two points apart, etc.? Data are reliable if the correlation is high and/or if discrepancies are small. Raters generally are calibrated ("normed") to increase reliability. Calibration usually involves a training session in which raters apply rubrics to pre-selected examples of student work that vary in quality, then reach consensus about the rating each example should receive. The purpose is to ensure that all raters apply the criteria in the same way so that each student's product would receive the same score, regardless of rater. Questions: Are reviewers calibrated? Are checks for inter-rater reliability made? Is there evidence of high inter-rater reliability?
- 4. Results Are Used. Assessment is a process designed to monitor and improve learning, so assessment findings should have an impact. Faculty should reflect on results for each outcome and decide if they are acceptable or disappointing. If results do not meet their standards, faculty should determine what changes should be made, e.g., in pedagogy, curriculum, student support, or faculty support. Questions: Do faculty collect assessment results, discuss them, and reach conclusions about student achievement? Do they develop explicit plans to improve student learning? Do they implement those plans? Do they have a history of securing necessary resources to support this implementation? Do they collaborate with other campus professionals to improve student learning? Do follow-up studies confirm that changes have improved learning?
- 5. If e-Portfolios Are Used. Faculty and students alike require support, especially when a new software program is introduced. Lack of support can lead to frustration and failure of the process. Support personnel may also have useful insights into how the portfolio assessment process can be refined. <u>Questions</u>: What is the quality and extent of technical support? Of inclusion in review and refinement of the portfolio process? What is the overall level of faculty and student satisfaction with the technology and support services?

CAPSTONES

Rubric for Assessing the Use of Capstone Experiences for Assessing Program Learning Outcomes

Criterion	Initial	Emerging	Developed	Highly Developed
Relevant	It is not clear which program	The relevant outcomes are	Relevant outcomes are	Relevant evidence is collected; faculty
Outcomes and Lines of Evidence	outcomes will be assessed in the capstone course.	identified, e.g., ability to integrate knowledge to solve complex problems; however, concrete	identified. Concrete plans for collecting evidence for each outcome are agreed upon and	have agreed on explicit criteria statements, e.g., rubrics, and have identified examples of student
Identified		plans for collecting evidence for each outcome have not been developed.	used routinely by faculty who staff the capstone course.	performance at varying levels of mastery for each relevant outcome.
Valid Results	It is not clear that potentially valid evidence for each relevant outcome is collected <u>and/or</u> individual faculty use idiosyncratic criteria to assess student work or performances.	Faculty have reached general agreement on the types of evidence to be collected for each outcome; they have discussed relevant criteria for assessing each outcome but these are not yet fully defined.	Faculty have agreed on concrete plans for collecting relevant evidence for each outcome. Explicit criteria, e.g., rubrics, have been developed to assess the level of student attainment of each outcome.	Assessment criteria, such as rubrics, have been pilot-tested and refined over time; they usually are shared with students. Feedback from external reviewers has led to refinements in the assessment process, and the department uses external benchmarking data.
Reliable Results	Those who review student work are not calibrated to apply assessment criteria in the same way; there are no checks for inter-rater reliability.	Reviewers are calibrated to apply assessment criteria in the same way <u>or</u> faculty routinely check for inter-rater reliability.	Reviewers are calibrated to apply assessment criteria in the same way, <u>and</u> faculty routinely check for inter-rater reliability.	Reviewers are calibrated, and faculty routinely find assessment data have high inter-rater reliability.
Results Are Used	Results for each outcome may or may not be are collected. They are not discussed among faculty.	Results for each outcome are collected and may be discussed by the faculty, but results have not been used to improve the program.	Results for each outcome are collected, discussed by faculty, analyzed, and used to improve the program.	Faculty routinely discuss results, plan needed changes, secure necessary resources, and implement changes. They may collaborate with others, such as librarians or Student Affairs professionals, to improve results. Follow-up studies confirm that changes have improved learning.
The Student Experience	Students know little or nothing about the purpose of the capstone or outcomes to be assessed. It is just another course or requirement.	Students have some knowledge of the purpose and outcomes of the capstone. Communication is occasional, informal, left to individual faculty or advisors.	Students have a good grasp of purpose and outcomes of the capstone and embrace it as a learning opportunity. Information is readily avail-able in advising guides, etc.	Students are well-acquainted with purpose and outcomes of the capstone and embrace it. They may participate in refining the experience, outcomes, and rubrics. Information is readily available.

How Visiting Team Members Can Use the Capstone Rubric

Conclusions should be based on discussion with relevant department members (e.g., chair, assessment coordinator, faculty). A variety of capstone experiences can be used to collect assessment data, such as:

- courses, such as senior seminars, in which advanced students are required to consider the discipline broadly and integrate what they have learned in the curriculum
- specialized, advanced courses
- advanced-level projects conducted under the guidance of a faculty member or committee, such as research projects, theses, or dissertations
- advanced-level internships or practica, e.g., at the end of an MBA program

Assessment data for a variety of outcomes can be collected in such courses, particularly outcomes related to integrating and applying the discipline, information literacy, critical thinking, and research and communication skills.

The rubric has five major dimensions:

- Relevant Outcomes and Evidence Identified. It is likely that not all program learning outcomes can be assessed within a single capstone course or experience. <u>Questions</u>: Have faculty explicitly determined which program outcomes will be assessed in the capstone? Have they agreed on concrete plans for collecting evidence relevant to each targeted outcome? Have they agreed on explicit criteria, such as rubrics, for assessing the evidence? Have they identified examples of student performance for each outcome at varying performance levels (e.g., below expectations, meeting, exceeding expectations for graduation)?
- 2. Valid Results. A valid assessment of a particular outcome leads to accurate conclusions concerning students' achievement of that outcome. Sometimes faculty collect evidence that does not have the potential to provide valid conclusions. For example, a multiple-choice test will not provide evidence of students' ability to deliver effective oral presentations. Assessment requires the collection of valid evidence and judgments about that evidence that are based on well-established, agreed-upon criteria that specify how to identify low, medium, or high-quality work. Questions: Are faculty collecting valid evidence for each targeted outcome? Are they using well-established, agreed-upon criteria, such as rubrics, for assessing the evidence for each outcome? Have faculty pilot tested and refined their process based on experience and feedback from external reviewers? Are they sharing the criteria with their students? Are they using benchmarking (comparison) data?
- 3. **Reliable Results**. Well-qualified judges should reach the same conclusions about individual student's achievement of a learning outcome, demonstrating inter-rater reliability. If two judges independently assess a set of materials, their ratings can be correlated. Sometimes a discrepancy index is used. How often do the two raters give identical ratings, ratings one point apart, ratings two points apart, etc.? Data are reliable if the correlation is high and/or if the discrepancies are small. Raters generally are calibrated ("normed") to increase reliability. Calibration usually involves a training session in which raters apply rubrics to pre-selected examples of student work that vary in quality, then reach consensus about the rating each example should receive. The purpose is to ensure that all raters apply the criteria in the same way so that each student's product receives the same score, regardless of rater. Questions: Are reviewers calibrated? Are checks for inter-rater reliability made? Is there evidence of high inter-rater reliability?
- 4. Results Are Used. Assessment is a process designed to monitor and improve learning, so assessment findings should have an impact. Faculty should reflect on results for each outcome and decide if they are acceptable or disappointing. If results do not meet faculty standards, faculty should determine which changes should be made, e.g., in pedagogy, curriculum, student support, or faculty support. <u>Questions</u>: Do faculty collect assessment results, discuss them, and reach conclusions about student achievement? Do they develop explicit plans to improve student learning? Do they implement those plans? Do they have a history of securing necessary resources to support this implementation? Do they collaborate with other campus professionals to improve student learning? Do follow-up studies confirm that changes have improved learning?

The Student Experience. Students should understand the purposes different educational experiences serve in promoting their learning and development and know how to take advantage of them; ideally they should also participate in shaping those experiences. Thus it is essential to communicate to students consistently and include them meaningfully. <u>Questions</u>: Are purposes and outcomes communicated to students? Do they understand how capstones support learning? Do they participate in reviews of the capstone experience, its outcomes, criteria, or related activities?

PROGRAM REVIEW

Rubric for Assessing the Integration of Student Learning Assessment into Program Reviews

Criterion	Initial	Emerging	Developed	Highly Developed
Required Elements of the Self-Study	Program faculty may be required to provide a list of program-level student learning outcomes.	Faculty are required to provide the program's student learning outcomes and summarize annual assessment findings.	Faculty are required to provide the program's student learning outcomes, annual assessment studies, findings, and resulting changes. They may be required to submit a plan for the next cycle of assessment studies.	Faculty are required to evaluate the program's student learning outcomes, annual assessment findings, bench-marking results, subsequent changes, and evidence concerning the impact of these changes. They present a plan for the next cycle of assessment studies.
Process of Review	Internal and external reviewers do not address evidence concerning the quality of student learning in the program other than grades.	Internal and external reviewers address indirect and possibly direct evidence of student learning in the program; they do so at the descriptive level, rather than providing an evaluation.	Internal and external reviewers analyze direct and indirect evidence of student learning in the program and offer evaluative feedback and suggestions for improvement. They have sufficient expertise to evaluate program efforts; departments use the feedback to improve their work.	Well-qualified internal and external reviewers evaluate the program's learning outcomes, assessment plan, evidence, benchmarking results, and assessment impact. They give evaluative feedback and suggestions for improve-ment. The department uses the feedback to improve student learning.
Planning and Budgeting	The campus has not integrated program reviews into planning and budgeting processes.	The campus has attempted to integrate program reviews into planning and budgeting processes, but with limited success.	The campus generally integrates program reviews into planning and budgeting processes, but not through a formal process.	The campus systematically integrates program reviews into planning and budgeting processes, e.g., through negotiating formal action plans with mutually agreed-upon commitments.
Annual Feedback on Assessment Efforts	No individual or committee on campus provides feedback to departments on the quality of their outcomes, assessment plans, assessment studies, impact, etc.	An individual or committee occasionally provides feedback on the quality of outcomes, assessment plans, assessment studies, etc.	A well-qualified individual or committee provides annual feedback on the quality of outcomes, assessment plans, assessment studies, etc. Departments use the feedback to improve their work.	A well-qualified individual or committee provides annual feedback on the quality of outcomes, assessment plans, assessment studies, benchmarking results, and assessment impact. Departments effectively use the feedback to improve student learning. Follow-up activities enjoy institutional support
The Student Experience	Students are unaware of and uninvolved in program review.	Program review may include focus groups or conversations with students to follow up on results of surveys	The internal and external reviewers examine samples of student work, e.g., sample papers, portfolios and capstone projects. Students may be invited to discuss what they learned and how they learned it.	Students are respected partners in the program review process. They may offer poster sessions on their work, demon-strate how they apply rubrics to self-assess, and/or provide their own evaluative feedback.

How Visiting Team Members Can Use the Program Review Rubric

Conclusions should be based on a review of program-review documents and discussion with relevant campus representatives, such as department chairs, deans, and program review committees.

The rubric has five major dimensions:

- 1. Self-Study Requirements. The campus should have explicit requirements for the program's self-study, including an analysis of the program's learning outcomes and a review of the annual assessment studies conducted since the last program review. Faculty preparing the self-study should reflect on the accumulating results and their impact; and they should plan for the next cycle of assessment studies. As much as possible, programs should benchmark findings against similar programs on other campuses. Questions: Does the campus require self-studies that include an analysis of the program's learning outcomes, assessment studies, assessment results, benchmarking results, and assessment impact, including the impact of changes made in response to earlier studies? Does the campus require an updated assessment plan for the subsequent years before the next program review?
- 2. Self-Study Review. Internal reviewers (on-campus individuals, such as deans and program review committee members) and external reviewers (off-campus individuals, usually disciplinary experts) should evaluate the program's learning outcomes, assessment plan, assessment evidence, benchmarking results, and assessment impact; and they should provide evaluative feedback and suggestions for improvement. Questions: Who reviews the self-studies? Do they have the training or expertise to provide effective feedback? Do they routinely evaluate the program's learning outcomes, assessment plan, assessment evidence, benchmarking results, and assessment plan, assessment evidence, benchmarking results, and assessment impact? Do they provide suggestions for improvement? Do departments effectively use this feedback to improve student learning?
- 3. **Planning and Budgeting**. Program reviews should not be *pro forma* exercises; they should be tied to planning and budgeting processes, with expectations that increased support will lead to increased effectiveness, such as improving student learning and retention rates. <u>Questions</u>. Does the campus systematically integrate program reviews into planning and budgeting processes? Are expectations established for the impact of planned changes?
- 4. Annual Feedback on Assessment Efforts. Campuses moving into the culture of evidence often find considerable variation in the quality of assessment efforts across programs, and waiting for years to provide feedback to improve the assessment process is unlikely to lead to effective campus practices. While program reviews encourage departments to reflect on multi-year assessment results, some programs are likely to require more immediate feedback, usually based on a required, annual assessment report. This feedback might be provided by an Assessment Director or Committee, relevant Dean or Associate Dean, or others; and whoever has this responsibility should have the expertise to provide quality feedback. Questions: Does someone have the responsibility for providing annual feedback on the assessment process? Does this person or team have the expertise to provide effective feedback? Does this person or team routinely provide feedback on the quality of outcomes, assessment plans, assessment studies, benchmarking results, and assessment impact? Do departments effectively use this feedback to improve student learning?
- 5. The Student Experience. Students have a unique perspective on a given program of study: they know better than anyone what it means to go through it as a student. Program review should take advantage of that perspective and build it into the review. <u>Questions:</u> Are students aware of the purpose and value of program review? Are they involved in preparations and the self-study? Do they have an opportunity to interact with internal or external reviewers, demonstrate and interpret their learning, and provide evaluative feedback?

The Educational Effectiveness Framework: Capacity and Effectiveness as They Relate to Student and Institutional Learning

Key Descriptive Terms Î Đ ELEMENT & DEFINITION	INITIAL	EMERGING	DEVELOPED	HIGHLY DEVELOPED
Learning A. Student learning outcomes established; communicated in syllabi and publications; cited and used by faculty, student affairs, advisors, others (CFRs 2.2, 2.4):	For only a few programs and units; only vaguely (if at all) for GE; not communicated in syllabi, or publications such as catalogues, view books, guides to the major; only a few faculty know and use for designing curriculum, assignments, or assessment	For many programs and units, most aspects of GE; beginning to be communi-cated in basic documents; beginning to be used by some faculty for design of curriculum, assignments, assessments	For all units (academic & co-curricular), and for all aspects of GE; cited often but not in all appropriate places; most faculty cite; used in most programs for design of curriculum, assignments, and assessment	For all units (academic and co- curricular), and for all aspects of GE; cited widely by faculty and advisors; used routinely by faculty, student affairs, other staff in design of curricula, assignments, co-curriculum, and assessment
B. Expectations are established for how <i>well</i> (i.e., proficiency or level) students achieve outcomes (CFRs 2.1, 2.4, 2.5):	Expectations for student learning have not been set beyond course completion and GPA; level of learning expected relative to outcomes unclear	Expectations for level of learning explicit in a few programs; heavy reliance on course completion and GPA	Expectations for student learning explicit in most programs	Expectations for student learning are explicit in all programs, widely known and embraced by faculty, staff, and students
C. Assessment plans are in place; curricular and co- curricular outcomes are systematically assessed, improvements documented (CFRs 2.4, 2.7):	No comprehensive assessment plans. Outcomes assessed occasionally using surveys and self reports, seldom using direct assessment; rarely lead to revision of curriculum, pedagogy, co- curriculum, or other aspects of educational experience	Some planning in place. Outcomes assessed occasionally, principally using surveys; beginning to move toward some direct assessment; occasionally leads to improvements in educational experience; improvements sporadically documented, e.g., in units' annual reports.	Plans mostly in place. Assessment occurs periodically, using direct methods supplemented by indirect methods and descriptive data; educational experience is frequently improved based on evidence and findings; improvements are routinely documented, e.g. in units' annual reports	Assessment plans throughout institution. Assessment occurs on regular schedule using multiple methods; strong reliance on direct methods, performance-based; educational experience systematically reviewed and improved based on evidence and findings; documentation widespread and easy to locate.
D. Desired kind and level of learning is achieved (CFR 2.6):	Possible that learning is not up to expectations, and/or expectations set by institution are too low for degree(s) offered by the institution	Most students appear to achieve at levels set by the institution; faculty and other educators beginning to discuss expectations and assessment findings	Nearly all students achieve at or above levels set by institution; assessment findings discussed periodically by most faculty and other campus educators	All students achieve at or above levels set by institution; findings are discussed regularly and acted upon by all or nearly all faculty and other campus educators
Teaching/Learning Environment A. Curricula, pedagogy, co- curriculum, other aspects of educational experience are aligned with outcomes (2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 2.4, 2.5, 4.6):	Conceived exclusively or largely in terms of inputs (e.g. library holdings, lab space), curricular requirements (e.g., for majors, GE) and availability of co- curricular programs; not visibly aligned with outcomes or expectations for level of student achievement; evidence of alignment processes lacking	Educational experience beginning to be aligned with learning outcomes and expectations for student achievement; evidence of alignment efforts available in some academic and co-curricular programs	Educational experience generally aligned with learning outcomes, expectations for student achievement; alignment becoming intentional, systematic, supported by tools (e.g. curriculum maps) and processes. Evidence of alignment efforts generally available	Educational experience fully aligned with learning outcomes, expectations; alignment is systematic, supported by tools and processes as well as broader institutional infrastructure. Evidence of alignment efforts readily available
B . Curricular and co-curricular processes (CFRs 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 2.11, 2.13) are:	Rarely informed by good learning practices as defined by the wider higher education community; few curricular or co-curricular activities reviewed, mostly without reference to outcomes or evidence of student learning	Informed in some instances by good learning practices; curricula and co- curricular activities occasionally reviewed and improved but with little reference to outcomes or assessment findings	Informed in many cases by good learning practices; reviewed and improved by relevant faculty and other campus educators; often based on outcomes and assessment findings	Regularly informed by good learning practices; improvements consistently result from scholarly reflection on outcomes and assessment findings by relevant faculty and other campus educators

The Educational Effectiveness Framework: Capacity and Effectiveness as They Relate to Student and Institutional Learning

C. Professional development, rewards (CFRs 2.8, 2.9):	Little or no support for faculty, other campus educators to develop expertise in assessment of student learning, related practices; work to assess, improve student learning plays no positive role in reward system, may be viewed as a negative	Some support for faculty, other educators on campus to develop expertise in assessment of student learning, related practices; modest, implicit positive role in reward system	Some support for faculty, other campus educators to develop expertise in assessment of student learning, related practices; explicit, positive role in reward structure	Significant support for faculty, other campus educators to develop expertise in assessment of student learning, related practices; explicit, prominent role in reward structure
Organizational Learning A. Indicators of educational effectiveness are (CFRs 1.2, 4.3, 4.4):	Notable by their absence or considered only sporadically in decision-making	Found in some areas; dissemination of performance results just beginning; no reference to comparative data	Multiple, with data collected regularly, disseminated, collectively analyzed; some comparative data used. Some indicators used to inform planning, budgeting, other decision making on occasional basis	Multiple, with data collected regularly, disseminated widely, collectively analyzed; comparative data used, as appropriate, in all programs. Indicators consistently used to inform planning, budgeting, other decision making at all levels of the institution
B. Formal program review (CFRs 2.7, 4.4) is:	Rare, if it occurs at all, with little or no useful data generated. Assessment findings on student learning not available and/or not used	Occasional, in some departments or units; heavy reliance on traditional inputs as indicators of quality; findings occasion-ally used to suggest improvements in educational effectiveness; weak linkage to institution-level planning, budgeting	Frequent, affecting most academic and co-curricular units, with growing inclusion of findings about student learning; unit uses findings to collectively reflect on, improve effectiveness; some linkage to institution-level planning, budgeting	Systematic and institution-wide, with learning assessment findings a major component; units use findings to improve student learning, program effectiveness, and supporting processes; close linkage to institution- level planning, budgeting
C. Performance data, evidence, and analyses (CFRs 4.3, 4.5, 4.6) are:	Not collected, disseminated, disaggregated, or accessible for wide use. Not evident in decision-making processes; do not appear to be used for improvement in any programs	Limited collection, dissemination, disaggregation, or access. Campus at beginning stages of use for decisions to improve educational effectiveness at program, unit, and/or institutional level	Systematic collection and dissemination, wide access; sometimes disaggregated; usually considered by decision-making bodies at all levels, but documentation and/or linkage to educational effectiveness may be weak	Systematic collection and dissemination, and access, purposeful disaggregation; consistently used by decision-making bodies for program improvement at all levels, with processes fully documented
D. Culture of inquiry and evidence (CFRs 4.5, 4.6, 4.7):	Faculty, other educators, staff, institutional leaders, governing board not visibly committed to a culture of inquiry and evidence except in isolated cases; not knowledgeable about learner- centeredness, assessment, etc.	Campus knowledge is minimal; support – at top levels and/or grass roots – for development of a culture of inquiry and evidence is sporadic and uneven	Campus knowledge and support for a culture of inquiry and evidence fairly consistent across administration, faculty, professional staff but may not be uniformly deep	Consistent, knowledgeable, deep commitment to creating and sustaining a culture of inquiry and evidence in all appropriate functions at all levels
E. Communication and transparency (CFR 1.2, 1.7):	Little or no data, findings, analyses from assessment of student learning available within the institution or to external audiences	Some data, findings, analyses from assessment of student learning available but may be incomplete, difficult to access or understand for internal or external audiences	Data, findings, analyses from assessment of student learning generally available, easily accessible; chosen for relevance to multiple audiences	Data, findings, analyses from learning assessment are widely available and skillfully framed to be understandable, useful to multiple audiences
Overall: The institution can best be described as:	Committed to isolated aspects of educational effectiveness; if other areas are not addressed, continuing reaffirmation of accreditation is threatened	Committed to educational effectiveness in some areas; significant number of areas require attention, improvement	Mostly well-established commitment to educational effectiveness; a few areas require attention, improvement	Fully committed to and going beyond WASC recommendations; operates at an exemplary level in addressing its Core Commitments to capacity as it relates to learning and to educational effectiveness



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Disciplinary Samples

http://assessment.voices.wooster.edu/disciplines-2/

http://www.assessmentupdate.com/sample-articles/disciplinary-resources-assessment-liberal-arts.aspx

http://assessment.georgetown.edu/wp-content/uploads/Disciplinary-Associations-Assessment-Resources.pdf

Banta, T.W., Jones, E.A., and Black, K.E. (2009). *Designing effective assessment: Principles and profiles* of good practice. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (See Chapter 6: Undergraduate Academic Major Profiles)

Online Resources for Assessment and Quantitative Reasoning

AAC&U's Assessment Resource page: http://www.aacu.org/resources/assessment/index.cfm

AAC&U VALUE Rubric on Quantitative Literacy: <u>http://www.aacu.org/value/rubrics/Quantitative</u> Literacy.cfm.

Bowdoin College's Quantitative Skills Program: http://www.bowdoin.edu/qr-program/index.shtml.

Dartmouth College's Mathematics across the Curriculum: http://www.dartmouth.edu/~matc/Evaluation/humeval.pdf

National Numeracy Network (NNN): http://serc.carleton.edu/nnn/index.html.

Numeracy journal: <u>http://scholarcommons.usf.edu/numeracy/</u>

Mathematics Association of America: <u>http://www.maa.org/programs/faculty-and-</u> <u>departments/curriculum-department-guidelines-recommendations/quantitative-literacy</u>

Mathematical Literacy: https://sites.google.com/a/dpi.wi.gov/disciplinary-literacy-in-mathematics/

Project Kaleidoscope (PKAL): http://aacu.org/pkal/resources/teaching/quantitative.cfm

Quantitative Learning and Reasoning Assessment instrument: http://serc.carleton.edu/qlra/index.html

Quantitative Reasoning Test: <u>http://www.madisonassessment.com/assessment-testing/quantitative-reasoning-test/</u>Science Education Resource Center's Teaching with Data Website: <u>http://serc.carleton.edu/sp/library/twd/index.html</u>

Science Education Resource Center's Teaching Quantitative Reasoning Website: <u>http://serc.carleton.edu/sp/library/gr/index.html</u>

SERC websites on Assessment of QR: http://serc.carleton.edu/NICHE/ex_qr_assessment.html.

ASSESSMENT LEADERSHIP ACADEMY

An Opportunity for Your Campus to Develop Assessment Expertise and Leadership March 2015 - January 2016

Application Deadline: February 15, 2015

Purpose of the Academy

Senior College and University Commission

The WSCUC Assessment Leadership Academy (ALA) prepares postsecondary professionals to provide leadership in a wide range of activities related to assessment of student learning, from facilitating workshops and supporting the scholarship of assessment to assisting administrative leadership in planning, budgeting, and decision-making related to educational effectiveness. ALA graduates have also provided consultation to the WSCUC region and served on WSCUC committees and evaluation teams; some have moved on to new positions with greater responsibilities. The Academy curriculum includes both structured and institutionally-tailored learning activities that address the full spectrum of assessment issues and places those issues in the national context of higher education policy on educational quality, accreditation, and accountability.

Who Should Participate in the Academy?

Higher education faculty, staff, and administrators who are committed to:

- Developing assessment expertise
- Serving in an on-going assessment leadership role at their institution
- Devoting significant time to complete ALA reading and homework assignments

Assessment Leadership Academy Faculty

ALA participants will interact with and learn from nationally-recognized higher education leaders. Faculty and Co-Facilitators of the ALA lead interactive class sessions and are available to participants for one-on-one consultations.

Faculty and Co-Facilitators of the ALA:

- Mary J. Allen, Former Director of the CA State University Institute for Teaching & Learning
- Amy Driscoll, Former Director of Teaching, Learning, and Assessment, CSU Monterey Bay

Guest Faculty Have Included:

- Trudy Banta, Senior Advisor to the Chancellor for Academic Planning and Evaluation, IUPUI
- Marilee Bresciani, Professor of Postsecondary Education Leadership, San Diego State University
- Peter Ewell, Vice President, National Center for Higher Education Management Systems
- Adrianna Kezar, Associate Professor for Higher Education, University of Southern California
- Jillian Kinzie, Associate Director, Center for Postsecondary Research & NSSE Institute
- Kathleen Yancey, Kellogg W. Hunt Professor of English, Florida State University

Learning Goals

Participants who complete Academy requirements will acquire foundational knowledge of the history, theory, and concepts of assessment; they will also develop expertise in training and consultation, campus leadership for assessment, and the scholarship of assessment.

Application Process and Deadline

Each year about 30 professionals are admitted. Participants are selected through an online application process. Applications for the 2015-16 class will be accepted from November 15, 2014 until February 15, 2015.

More Information

For more information and application materials, please see Assessment Leadership Academy on the WSCUC ²²⁷website <u>http://www.wascsenior.org/ala/overview</u>

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WASC Senior College and University Commission

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