GE 102: WORLD REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY

Inst: Richard Bordner
Off. Hrs: MWF 11:30-2, TR 11:30-12:30 or by app't. (BehSci Bldg 114)
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Text (Required): Rowntree, Les, Lewis, Price & Wyckoff. 2008 (2nd ed.). Globalization and Diversity. NY: Prentice-Hall.
Highly Recommended: Google Earth (download, requires internet connection)

Course Description: The purpose of this course is to provide a basic introduction to the complexities of the human experience around the world. The interaction of people with their physical environment is the main focus of geographical work and this course examines the different regions around the world in the context of past and present human experience. Within this framework, given the holistic nature of geographical thought, we will also examine the interaction and problems generated both regionally and worldwide.

The Marianist Values of Chaminade University, which we strive to incorporate into these classes:
1) Educate in formation of faith
2) Provide an integral quality education
3) Educate in family spirit
4) Educate for service, justice and peace
5) Educate for adaptation and change

General Education Learning Outcomes for this course:
The student will demonstrate an understanding of:
1. The application of the scientific method to the study of human behavior in various environmental contexts;
2. Human behavior relative to various environmental contexts;
3. Human behavior relative to adapting to various changing environmental contexts.

Behavioral Science Division Student Learning Outcomes for this course:
1. Ability to apply the scientific method to the study of human behavior in various environmental contexts
2. An understanding of human behavior relative to various environmental contexts
3. An understanding of human behavior relative to adapting to various changing environmental contexts

Course Objectives:
This course meets the following Behavioral Science program goals that we have for you (the student):
1) a growth in your understanding of the reciprocal relationships between the individual and the group (ethnic or society);
2) a growth in your understanding of anthropological concepts and the appropriate use of the terminology.

Course Learning Outcomes—by the end of the semester you will have demonstrated basic knowledge of the following:
The relationship between local, regional and global social-economic issues;
The location of the various nation-states and their capitals (map-info);
Europe—how the physical landscape has helped and hindered regions in the past and present;

Regionalism vs. Nationalism vs. Ethnic Identity—the EU;
Changing Russia: Imperial Russia--Soviet Union--Russian Federation;
The Middle East, Islam and Stereotypes--Religion and factionalism as politics and political blackmail;
Central Asia and South Asia and Southeast Asia--religious nationalism, factionalism and ethnicity;
East Asia—From isolation/colonialism to regional/world dominance in the 21st Century?
The changing Chinas (PRC vs. Taiwan): the Koreas,and what happened to Japan?;
Oceania—Ethnic identity, economic dependency, and conflict;
Africa: Stereotypes, colonlialism, ethnic identity and conflict;
Central America, South America and the Caribbean—the legacies of colonialism, Spanish-style;
North America—Eurocentrism/Anglocentrism, national identity, NAFTA & ethnicity
Global Issues: The division between urban and rural populations; the power of ethnocentrism and cultural nationalism; the gap between expectations and reality for consumers globally; the shift to a postindustrial economy

Course Grading:

1. Exams: There will be 3 exams in this class. They will not be cumulative. They will consist of a combination of objective and short-essay questions. Each exam will count for 20% of the course grade.
2. Research Paper/Service Learning: You must do a short research paper of 4-7 pages on some topical issue in a particular region of the planet that deals with human action; **or** you may participate in an approved Service Learning project. If you are doing the research paper, it must have a minimum of 2 sources other than the text (4 if website only). It will count for 15% of the course grade.
3. Map Tests: There will be a series of map tests (after all this **is** regional geography). The totaled average score of the tests will count for 10% of the course grade.
4. Reaction Papers: There will be a series of reaction papers given during the semester (a minimum of 3). Each paper should be from 1-2 pages long. The reaction papers will be worth 5% of the course grade.
5. Class Participation/Attendance: Class attendance is mandatory (university policy). This class will much more effective and much more interesting if you participate. Participation and attendance counts for 10% of the course grade.
6. Mobile Rules: Due to a recent problem with cell phones, the following rules are in place: 1) cell phones are off unless you have an emergency—let me know at the beginning of class; 2) text messaging is totally unacceptable in class—if you are caught, you are out of class for that day and listed as not attending.

Grading: Exams(3).....60% A=-90-100 D=-60-69
Research Paper.....15% B=-80-89 F=---60
Reaction Papers.....5% C=-70-79
Map Tests.....…10%
Part/Attend……10%

Catalog: Spatial study of the world's major cultural regions. An examination of the social and physical factors that have led to contemporary regional patterns.

Jan. 17-20: MODULE I: Introduction to geography / Geographical concepts, physical geography and people / Global issues / **Adopt a Country Time**

MAP QUIZ: Europe Map Quiz (countries & capitals): READ Rowntree ch. 1-2, 8

Jan. 23-27: MODULE II: Europe—the impact of physical geography & persistence of history / European Unity (EU/NATO), nationalism and ethnicity / Europe in world affairs and globalization

MAP QUIZ: Russian Federation Map Quiz (countries & capitals): READ Rowntree ch. 9

Jan. 30-Feb. 3: MODULE III: The Russias—Imperial/USSR/Russian Federation / The Republics (Ukraine and natural gas), ethnic competition and White Russians / Why the huge social problems? Why the violence?

MAP QUIZ: West Asia Map Quiz (countries & capitals): READ Rowntree ch. 7

Feb. 6-10: MODULE IV: The Middle East—Eurocentrism & economic colonialism / Religion and factionalism as politics and political blackmail

Study session for EXAM I

EXAM I (General, Europe, Russias, West Asia)(Covering Rowntree ch. 1-2, 7-9)

MAP QUIZ: Central Asia Map Quiz (countries and capitals): READ Rowntree ch. 10

Feb. 13-17: MODULE V: Central Asia and conflict: Afghanistan & Kashmir / Silk Road and geography

MAP QUIZ: South Asia Map Quiz (countries and capitals): READ Rowntree ch. 12

Feb. 21-24: MODULE VI: South Asia / India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka—religious nationalism and ethnicity

MAP QUIZ: East Asia Map Quiz (countries & capitals): READ Rowntree ch. 11

Feb. 27-March 2: MODULE VI continued / MODULE VII: East Asia—World Economic Powers in 2010 / The Chinas: Taiwan vs. PRC and history / A whim of history--the Koreas / Japan, economic revival and political suicide?

March 5-9: MODULE VII continued

MAP QUIZ: SE Asia Map Quiz (countries & capitals): READ Rowntree ch. 13

March 12-16: MODULE VIII: Southeast Asia—stepchild, problem child or tsunami refugee?

MAP QUIZ: Oceania Map Quiz (countries): READ Rowntree ch. 14

March 19-23: MODULE IX: Oceania—a wet region with an identity crisis / Ethnic identity and conflict in Oceania

Study Session for EXAM II

EXAM II (All Asia, Oceania)(Covering Rowntree ch. 10-14)

March 26-30: Spring Break

April 2-5: MODULE X: Africa: the curse of geography and colonialism / Change and the future—the horrors of ethnic identity and conflict

MAP QUIZ: Africa Map Quiz (countries): READ Rowntree ch. 6

April 9-13: MODULE X continued / MODULE XI: Caribbean, Central & South America—colonialism, spanish-style / Economic growth, social and economic segregation and the world economy

MAP QUIZ: Americas Map Quiz (countries and capitals): READ Rowntree ch. 3-5

April 16-20: MODULE XI continued

April 23-27: MODULE XII: North America—settlement, Eurocentrism and national identity / The changing view of the US by Canada / Mexico, NAFTA & ethnicity

April 30-May 4: MODULE XII continued / Summary and Assessment

Study Session for EXAM III

May 4: Research Paper Due (by 3pm): NO EXCEPTIONS: Late= 1 grade per day

May 7: EXAM III (Africa/Americas)(Covering Rowntree ch. 3-6) 1:15-3:00

SCIENTIFIC METHOD DEFINITIONS

The **METHODS OF SCIENCE** are only tools, tools that we use to obtain knowledge about phenomena.

The **SCIENTIFIC METHOD** is a set of assumptions and rules about collecting and evaluating data. The explicitly stated assumptions and rules enable a standard, systematic method of investigation that is designed to reduce bias as much as possible. Central to the scientific method is the collection of data, which allows investigators to put their ideas to an empirical test, outside of or apart from their personal biases. In essence, stripped of all its glamour, scientific inquiry is nothing more **THAN A WAY OF LIMITING FALSE CONCLUSIONS ABOUT NATURAL EVENTS.**

Knowledge of which the credibility of a profession is based must be objective and verifiable (testable) rather than subjective and untestable.

SCIENCE is a mode of controlled inquiry to develop an objective, effective, and credible way of knowing.

The assumptions one makes regarding the basic qualities of human nature (that is, cognitive, affective, behavioral, and physiological processes) affect how one conceptualizes human behavior.

The two basic functions of scientific approach are 1) advance knowledge, to make discoveries, and to learn facts in order to improve some aspect of the world, and 2) to establish relations among events, develop theories, and this helps professionals to make predictions of future events.

Research Design And Counseling
Heppner, Kivlighan, and Wampold

A **THEORY** is a large body of interconnected propositions about how some portion of the world operates; a **HYPOTHESIS** is a smaller body of propositions. **HYPOTHESES** are smaller versions of theories. Some are derived or born from theories. Others begin as researchers' hunches and develop into theories.

The **PHILOSOPHY OF SCIENCE** decrees we can only falsify, not verify (prove), theories because we can never be sure that any given theory provides the best explanation for a set of observations.

Research Method In Social Relations
Kidder

THEORIES are not themselves directly proved or disproved by research. Even **HYPOTHESES** cannot be proved or disproved directly. Rather, research may either support or fail to support a particular hypothesis derived from a theory.

Scientific research has four general goals: (1) to describe behavior, (2) to predict behavior, (3) to determine the causes of behavior, and (4) to understand or explain behavior.

Methods In Behavioral Research; Cozby

In order to verify the reliability and validity of scientific research it is important to replicate the results. It is the preponderance of evidence that establishes/supports the theory.
http://allpsych.com/researchmethods/replication.html
Excerpt from :

METACOGNITION: Study Strategies, Monitoring, and Motivation

By William Peirce © 2003

A greatly expanded text version of a workshop
presented November 17, 2004, at Prince George's Community College

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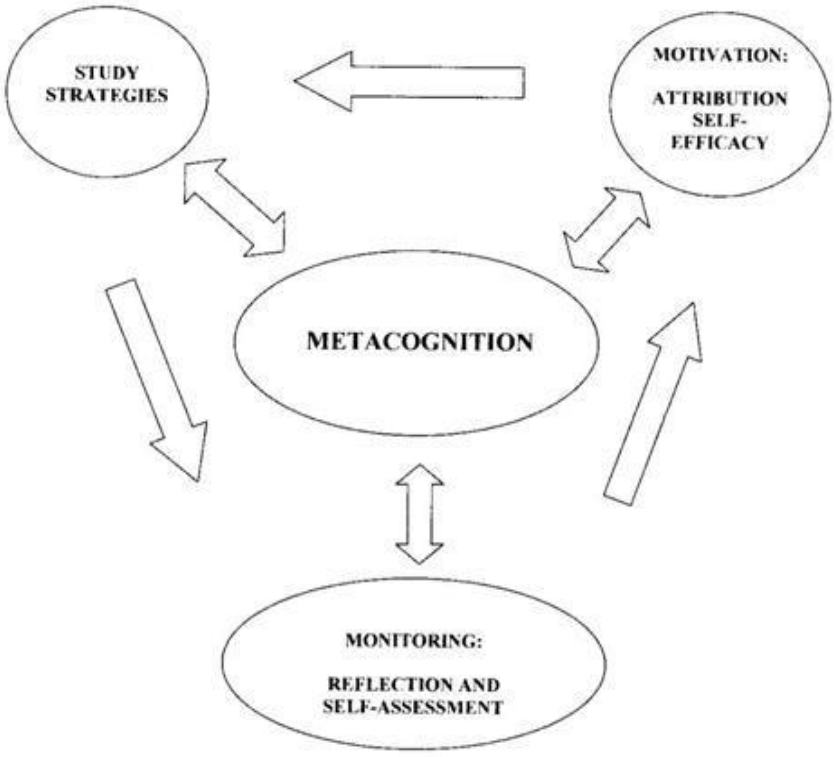
Outline



I. Introduction

In general, **metacognition** is thinking about thinking. More specifically, Taylor (1999) defines metacognition as "an appreciation of what one already knows, together with a correct apprehension of the learning task and what knowledge and skills it requires, combined with the agility to make correct inferences about how to apply one's strategic knowledge to a particular situation, and to do so efficiently and reliably."

The more students are aware of their thinking processes as they learn, the more they can control such matters as goals, dispositions, and attention. Self-awareness promotes self-regulation. If students are aware of how committed (or uncommitted) they are to reaching goals, of how strong (or weak) is their disposition to persist, and of how focused (or wandering) is their attention to a thinking or writing task, they can regulate their commitment, disposition, and attention (Marzano et al., 1988). For example, if students were aware of a lack of commitment to writing a long research assignment, noticed that they were procrastinating, and were aware that they were distracted by more appealing ways to spend their time, they could then take action to get started on the assignment. But until they are aware of their procrastination and take control by making a plan for doing the assignment, they will blissfully continue to neglect the assignment.

II. Metacognition and Three Types of Knowledge

To increase their metacognitive abilities, students need to possess and be aware of three kinds of content knowledge: declarative, procedural, and conditional. **Declarative knowledge** is the factual information that one knows; it can be declared—spoken or written. An example is knowing the formula for calculating momentum in a physics class (momentum = mass times velocity). **Procedural knowledge** is knowledge of how to do something, of how to perform the steps in a process; for example, knowing the mass of an object and its rate of speed and how to do the calculation. **Conditional knowledge** is knowledge about when to use a procedure, skill, or strategy and when not to use it; why a procedure works and under what conditions; and why one procedure is better than another. For

example, students need to recognize that an exam word problem requires the calculation of momentum as part of its solution.

This notion of three kinds of knowledge applies to learning strategies as well as course content. When they study, students need the declarative knowledge that (1) all reading assignments are not alike; for example, that a history textbook chapter with factual information differs from a primary historical document, which is different from an article interpreting or analyzing that document. They need to know that stories and novels differ from arguments. Furthermore they need to know that there are different kinds of note taking strategies useful for annotating these different types of texts. And (2) students need to know how to actually write different kinds of notes (procedural knowledge), and (3) they need to know when to apply these kinds of notes when they study (conditional knowledge). Knowledge of study strategies is among the kinds of metacognitive knowledge, and it too requires awareness of all three kinds of knowledge.

III. Metacognition and Study Strategies

Research shows that explicitly teaching study strategies in content courses improves learning. (Commander & Valeri-Gold, 2001; Ramp & Guffey, 1999; Chiang, 1998; El-Hindi, 1997; McKeachie, 1988). Research also shows that few instructors explicitly teach study strategies; they seem to assume that students have already learned them in high school—but they haven't. (McKeachie, 1988). Rote memorization is the usual learning strategy—and often the only strategy—employed by high school students when they go to college (Nist, 1993).

Study strategies are diverse and don't work in every context. For example, reading for information acquisition won't work in a literature course and won't work if students are supposed to critically evaluate an article. But students who have learned only the strategy of reading to pass a quiz on the information will not go beyond this strategy. Study strategies don't necessarily transfer into other domains. Students need to know they have choices about which strategies to employ in different contexts. And students who learn study skills in one course need to apply study strategies in other contexts than where they first learned it.

Students need to monitor their application of study strategies. Metacognitive awareness of their learning processes is as important as their monitoring of their learning of the course content. Metacognition includes goal setting, monitoring, self-assessing, and regulating during thinking and writing processes; that is, when they're studying and doing homework. An essential component of metacognition is employing study strategies to reach a goal, self-assessing one's effectiveness in reaching that goal, and then self-regulating in response to the self-assessment.

IV. Monitoring Problems with Learning

When students monitor their learning, they can become aware of potential problems. Nickerson, Perkins, and Smith (1985) in *The Teaching of Thinking* have categorized several types of problems with learning.

A. Problems with Process; Making errors in encoding, operations, and goals:

1.Errors in Encoding

Missing important data or not separating relevant from irrelevant data. For example, some literature students will base their interpretation of a poem on just the first stanza.
2.Errors in Operations
Failing to select the right subskills to apply. For example, when proofreading, some students will just read to see if it sounds right, rather than making separatepasses that check for fragments, subject-verb misagreement, and other errors they have learned from experience they are likely to make.

Failing to divide a task into subparts. For example, some math students will jump right to what they think is the final calculation to get the desired answer.

3. Errors in Goal Seeking

Misrepresenting the task. For example, students in a speech communication class instead of doing the assigned task of analyzing and classifying group communication strategies used in their group discussions will just write a narrative of who said what.
Not understanding the criteria to apply. For example, when asked to evaluate the support provided for the major claim of an article, students will explain why they liked the article rather than apply appropriate evaluative criteria.

B. Problems with Cognitive Load
Too many subskills necessary to do a task. For example, some students might have not yet learned how to carry out all the steps in a complex nursing procedure.

Not enough automatic, internalized subskills. For example, students in an argument and persuasion class might have to check their notes on how to analyze persuasive strategies because they have not internalized the procedure.

C. Problems with Abilities
Lacking the level of needed mental abilities. For example, students are asked to think abstractly about general concepts and issues, but they can only think concretely about specific situations.
A good way to discover what kind of errors students are making in their thinking processes is to get them to unpack their thinking, to tell you step by step how they are going about the task. By listening to how they are doing the cognitive task, an instructor can detect where the student is going wrong. Asking students to describe their thinking processes also develops their metacognitive abilities—a very necessary skill to improve thinking.

V. Metacognition and Motivation

Metacognition affects motivation because it affects attribution and self-efficacy. When students get results on tests and grades on assignments (especially unexpected results such as failures), they perform a mental causal search to explain to themselves why the results happened. When they achieve good results, students tend to attribute the result to two internal factors: their own ability and effort. When they fail, they might attribute the cause to these same internal factors or they might, in a self-protective rationalization, distance themselves from a sense of personal failure by blaming external causes, such as an overly difficult task, an instructor's perverse testing habits, or bad luck. This tendency to attribute success to ability and effort promotes future success because it develops confidence in one's ability to solve future unfamiliar and challenging tasks. The converse is also true. Attributing failure to a lack of ability reduces self-confidence and reduces the student's summoning of intellectual and emotional abilities to the next challenging tasks; attribution theory also explains why such students will be unwilling to seek help from tutors and other support services: they believe it would not be worth their effort. In addition to blaming failure on external causes, underachievers often "self-handicap" themselves by deliberately putting little effort into an academic task; they thereby protect themselves from attributing their failure to a painful lack of ability by attributing their failure to lack of effort (Stage et al, 1998) (Click here for a review and summary of *Creating Learning Centered Classrooms* by Stage et al.)

VI. Metacognition and At-Risk Students

The last two decades have seen a great deal of research directed towards improving the academic success of at-risk students. As McKeachie (1988) explains, the problems are

- Students "enter the higher levels of education with . . . strategies that handicap them in achieving success." (p. 5)
- "[N]either home backgrounds nor schools have helped young adults become aware of alternative ways of approaching learning situations, and of options other than increasing or decreasing one's effort as one approaches different learning situations" (p. 5)
- Teachers give plenty of feedback about the correctness of learning outcomes but not about how to achieve these outcomes.

The use of learning strategies is linked to motivation. When students fail, they tend to assign the cause to something stable and unchangeable—low innate ability—rather than to something they have the ability to change—employing different, more effective, learning strategies.

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C. Strategies for Students to Use for Textbook Reading

1. Answer instructor-provided questions
2. Ask and answer student-generated questions
3. Produce an outline or concept map
4. Write summaries of each section in the chapter
5. Use the SQ4R method: Survey the text, formulate questions, read, record notes, recite, reflect
6. Write notes that elaborate on the textbook:

    a. Cornell method: one column for key words and concepts, a second column for comments, summaries. Useful for comprehension and later recall.

    b. Double-entry method: one column/page for copied passage, adjacent column/page for personal reflections on the passage. Developed by Berthoff (1987); useful for engaging with the text.

    c. Simpson and Nist (1990): seven textbook annotation processes

    - Write brief summaries in the text margins
    - List ideas (causes, effects, characteristics, etc.)
    - Identify examples in the margin (write "EX")
    - Write key information on graphs and charts
    - Predict potential test questions
    - Call attention to confusion with a ? in the margin
    - Underline key words

7. Connect the reading to a past lecture or to prior knowledge
8. Compare/contrast with another reading
9. Critique/evaluate the reading
10. Apply the chapter content to a scenario or case
11. Write self-assessments of your understanding of the reading. See D. below in next list of topics.

D. Sample Reflective Topics for Self-Monitoring and Self-Assessment

Reading for Comprehension

"What do you notice about your reading when you are understanding what you read? What is it that causes you difficulties when you read? In what areas of reading and remembering do you feel most at ease?" (Soldner, 1997)

"Did any parts of the passage confuse me? What did I do to clarify the confusion?" (Gourgey, 1997)

Associative and Affective Personal Response

"How does this poem make you feel? What in your own life might have influenced how you responded to the poem?" (Newton, 1991)