Faculty and Administrator Perceptions of Teaching, the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, and Culture at a Teaching University

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FACULTY AND ADMINISTRATOR PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHING, THE
SCHOLARSHIP OF TEACHING AND LEARNING, AND CULTURE AT A
TEACHING UNIVERSITY

by

Jonathan D. Bartling

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A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

Capella University
March 2009
Abstract

Despite increased calls in higher education for institutions to be accountable for quality teaching and student learning, at many institutions, the status and quality of teaching and learning has not improved. Many faculty members remain teaching-focused, and institutions often afford a low status to teaching. This is present even at institutions whose missions are teaching-focused. The purpose of this case study was to explore faculty and administrator perceptions at one private, Christian, Midwest teaching institution regarding teaching, the scholarship of teaching and learning, and the institution’s culture and commitment to teaching and scholarship. Through interviews with a purposeful sample of full-time faculty, document analysis, the administration of Trigwell et al.’s (2005) revised Approaches to Teaching Inventory, and through faculty and administrator focus groups, the study provided a rich, thick description of participant perceptions of a teaching institution in the 21st century.

Findings from this primarily qualitative study were focused in four areas. First, nine influences on faculty approach to teaching were identified, including the strong influence of institutional context on faculty teaching approach. Secondly, multiple conceptions of the scholarship of teaching were identified, demonstrating a continued need for faculty and administrators to be educated in the possibility and practice of the scholarship of teaching model. A possible relationship was noted, however, between faculty conceptions of teaching and their interest in professional development and scholarship of teaching activities. Third, faculty and administrators held similar perceptions of teaching and scholarship despite a disparity between these groups found in the literature. Where differences were present, they existed between administrator
perceptions and university policy and procedures. Finally, participants described an environment that was generally supportive of teaching and the scholarship of teaching, but felt the institution’s teaching focus did not translate into an intentional commitment to quality teaching and teaching improvement through both policy and practice.

Recommendations for future research include needed studies on the influence of institutional context on faculty approach to teaching and learning, the relationship between conceptions of teaching and engagement in professional development and scholarship of teaching activities, and further exploration of the study’s findings within other institutional contexts.
Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my amazing wife, Melinda, and my two precious miracles, Jackson and Jeremiah. I could not have done this without them. Their wonderful support and sacrifice throughout this entire experience have been a blessing to me, and I am humbled by their love. Melinda, Jackson, and Jeremiah: I love you, and I am so grateful to be your husband and Daddy. I pray that my work is an example that you can do all things through Christ and His strength.
Acknoweldgments

I would be remiss if I did not acknowledge some of the many wonderful people who have played a major role in this accomplishment. First, I would like to thank Dr. Callie Welstead for being a wonderful mentor through this process. Her never-ending energy, support, and encouragement helped to keep me going through the challenges I faced. I would also like to thank Dr. Englesberg and Dr. Marin for the wise counsel, for taking a strong interest in my study, and for the critical feedback that helped push me beyond what I thought I could accomplish to make the final product what it is today. I would like to thank my family, in-laws, and dear friends for their constant support and encouragement, and for their willingness to take my wife and boys in when I needed uninterrupted work time. I would like to thank Gary, Karen, and Noel for seeing more in me than I could see myself and providing the encouragement, support, and resources to complete this endeavor. I would like to thank Jim and Ryan for your understanding as I have pursued this degree and your flexibility as I have worked to balance life, school, and my job. I would like to thank my fellow colleagues who completed surveys, sat through interviews and focus groups, and supported me through their questions and concern. Also, to my fellow colleagues enrolled in Capella, thanks for the prayers, the gatherings, and for commiserating with me. You are almost there! I would like to thank the Kids Table for the laughter, the continued support, and for showing me that you do not have to be sitting at the big table to accomplish something great. Finally, thank you, Lord, for sustaining my family through the challenges we have faced, providing hope, and blessing us with more than we could ask or imagine.
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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Problem

Scholarship in higher education has been in a state of transition since Ernest Boyer (1990) called for a move from the traditional focus on teaching, research, and service in the lives of faculty to a more distributed model that valued all faculty work, not just research, as scholarship. His purpose in introducing new domains of scholarship, including the scholarship of integration, the scholarship of application, and the scholarship of teaching, was to place value again on teaching and other faculty work. In spite of the new conception of scholarship Boyer presented, however, institutions have remained research-focused (Braxton, Luckey, & Helland, 2002, 2006; Nicholls, 2005; Young, 2006). The fourth domain in Boyer’s model, the scholarship of teaching and learning, was intended to end the “teaching versus research” debate, but there are key barriers that may keep faculty from being able to embrace this domain, including their own conceptions and approaches to teaching, their perception and understanding of the domain itself, and the institutional culture that influences the work they do each day. Faculty and administrators who are interested in elevating the status of teaching and allowing for the pursuit of scholarly work in this area will need to address these barriers.

In order to raise the value of teaching in higher education, faculty and administrators will need to embrace the notion that teaching can be considered a scholarly act, involving reflection, inquiry, and shared knowledge (Hutchings &
Shulman, 1999), but there are potential barriers that keep academics from doing so. A faculty member’s conception of teaching is one factor that can help or hinder in this effort. Prosser & Trigwell (1999) developed an Approaches to Teaching Inventory (ATI) that measures the conceptions faculty have of teaching on a continuum between two points: a transmission-based/teacher-centered conception or a conceptual change/student-focused conception. Studies that have used the ATI have directly related faculty conceptions of teaching with their approach to teaching (Lindblom-Ylanne, Trigwell, Nevgi, & Ashwin, 2006; Prosser & Trigwell, 2006; Trigwell, Prosser, Martin, & Ramsden, 2005b). For example, university faculty who approach teaching with a teacher-centered conception focus on the transmission of content and leave students with a shallow, or surface, level of learning (Trigwell & Prosser, 2004). The conception of teaching a faculty member has, therefore, influences teaching and learning greatly and can be one of the greatest hindrances to the improvement of learning and scholarly teaching in higher education.

Another potential barrier to improvement in teaching and learning is a faculty member’s perception of the scholarship of teaching and learning. Studies on faculty conception of teaching have also addressed the direct relationship that exists between conception of teaching and perception of the scholarship of teaching (Kreber, 2005; Lueddeke, 2003). The conception of teaching influences both the time they spend in reflection on teaching and their understanding of teaching as a scholarly pursuit. To continue with the previous example, faculty who approach teaching from a teacher-centered conception find it hard to understand why they would need to spend time developing and studying their teaching (Kreber, 2002a). Another factor that does not help
faculty understanding is the confusion caused by multiple definitions and approaches to the scholarship of teaching and learning in the literature (Kreber, 2002b; McKinney, 2006; Reed, 2003). It will be important, then, for institutions to identify faculty conceptions, and overall perceptions, of the scholarship of teaching and learning for development in this area to be possible.

A third barrier is the institutional context, or culture, that influences the daily work of faculty. While many higher education institutions have incorporated the four scholarship domains in policies, procedures, reward structures, and faculty evaluation plans, the scholarship of discovery, or research, remains the primary focus of scholarship (Braxton et al., 2002, 2006). This is true even at universities that have traditionally been teaching-focused (Hardy & Smith, 2006; McCaughey, 1994; Nicholls, 2005; Young, 2006). Teaching institutions (e.g. liberal arts, Baccalaureate, community colleges, etc.) often consider teaching to be the primary focus of faculty members, but university structures speak to very different perspectives. Rewards and tenure/promotion decisions are often research-focused, which influences the behavior of faculty (Brookfield, 2000; C. L. Colbeck & Wharton-Michael, 2006a; Nicholls, 2001). Since the administrative structures of the university are created by university administrators, their conceptions of teaching, as well as their general perceptions of teaching and scholarship, potentially play a large part in how faculty are rewarded and supported in these areas. The entire culture of teaching and scholarship at a university, then, can be a barrier to teaching development and improvement of student learning.

Midwest Teaching University, a private, Christian, 4-year, Midwest institution, has followed the traditional core focus on teaching, research, and service in the past. The
university, with an undergraduate population of close to 2,500 students and a student to faculty ratio of 21:1, however, prides itself on teaching and the close connection students have with individual faculty. It has been a teaching-focused institution throughout the over 100 years it has been in existence, and despite the fact that its first doctoral program began in 2007, it remains an unapologetic teaching institution. The university, however faces the same pressures other four-year institutions face to increase scholarly productivity, enhance student learning, and develop new programs that increase attendance and status in higher education.

Administrators recently instituted formal discussions on the faculty evaluation and reward structures of the university with the intention of applying a new model that closely follows Boyer’s four scholarship domains. O’Meara (2006), discussing findings of a study on academic administrators perceptions of the catalysts and barriers of instituting a reform in academic reward structures, noted that “institutional type, culture, and constraints on faculty work should be considered when initiating these reforms in academic reward systems” (p. 88). The current study has done this by first identifying faculty and administrator conceptions of teaching, since these conceptions directly relate to approaches to teaching, student learning, and the understanding and pursuit of teaching scholarship. Faculty and administrator perceptions of the scholarship of teaching and learning were also explored since this scholarship domain has the greatest potential for bringing together both teaching and scholarship. Finally, the study explored faculty and administrator perceptions of the institutional culture, including reward structures, evaluation procedures, and this teaching institution’s commitment to rewarding and supporting teaching and the scholarship of teaching and learning.
Background of the Study

It is generally assumed in academic culture that those who can create knowledge through research are the best equipped to teach that knowledge (Brew, 1999; Morrill & Steffy, 1980). Yet teaching, for many faculty, is simply a job they perform (Farris, 2005). Faculty are hired with no educational background, making it difficult for them to teach in any other way than how they were taught (Morrill & Steffy; Ramsden, 2003; Wise, 1967). They generally approach teaching by “uncritically absorb[ing] techniques, strategies, and styles from their own prior experiences as students and from their colleagues and the norms of the academic community” (Cranton & Carusetta, 2004, p. 6). Their teaching is often transmission-based and teacher-focused, despite pedagogical literature that supports student-centered learning (Barrington, 2004; Prosser, Trigwell, & Taylor, 1994; Trigwell & Prosser, 1997). The quality of teaching, therefore, is not at the level expected by university stakeholders. While it is true that much of what a faculty member learns about teaching happens within the context of the classroom (Nicholls, 2005), without a purposeful pursuit of teaching development, one who can create knowledge may not become the effective teacher required for quality university teaching.

The standard institutional remedy for this is to offer professional development to faculty, but where it is offered, faculty developers often focus on training, not development (Cranton & Carusetta, 2004; Sokol & Cranton, 1998). Faculty are introduced to techniques, strategies, and innovations that they can incorporate in their classrooms (Cranton & Carusetta; Kreber, 1999; Magro, 2002; Sokol & Cranton). Most professional development is done “to” faculty (Brookfield, 2000); faculty generally play a passive role in professional development and attend in order to acquire instrumental, or
Improvements in teaching are incremental, and the focus of those improvements usually center around new resources, sequencing, and classroom procedures (Kenny, 1998; Stark & Lattuca, 1997; Trautmann & Krasney, 2006; Weimer, 1997). Development opportunities offered to faculty, in general, fail to meet specific, contextual learning needs and do little to improve classroom practice (Nicholls, 2005).

Nicholls (2005) noted in his study on conceptions of teaching that many experienced lecturers do not make the connection between “the ‘teaching’ and the learner” (p. 613). Multiple studies have confirmed that faculty generally hold one of two conceptions of teaching: a transmission/teaching-centered conception or a facilitative/student-centered one (Kember, 1997; Prosser & Trigwell, 1999, 2006; Samuelowicz & Bain, 2001). Faculty who believe teaching is about transmission choose approaches to teaching that match this conception (e.g. lecture), while faculty with a student-centered conception approach teaching with the learner in mind (Prosser & Trigwell; Trigwell & Prosser, 2004; Trigwell et al., 2005b). The ramifications of these conceptions, however, affect more than just classroom activities. The faculty member’s approach to scholarship (Lueddeke, 2003) and reflection (Kreber, 2005) are also affected. Most importantly, however, Trigwell and Prosser identified three separate studies that linked faculty conception of teaching with the quality of student learning. These studies showed that teacher-centered conceptions highly correlated with shallow, surface learning by students, while student-centered conceptions were highly correlated with deep learning. If student learning is the goal, then faculty and universities have some work to do.
Faculty conceptions of teaching have also been linked to the scholarship of teaching and learning, which has identified a further concern about faculty who approach teaching in a teacher-centered fashion (Kreber, 2005; Lueddeke, 2003). Faculty who conceive teaching this way have a difficult time understanding why they need to develop, or study, their teaching, which is the primary focus of the scholarship of teaching and learning. Experts in the field of the SOTL have identified a strong need for faculty to learn how to think of teaching as scholarship (Kreber, 2002a), yet many do not have a conception of teaching that is conducive to this, and those that do may have limited exposure to the meaning of the SOTL. This issue is further compounded by a myriad of definitions of the SOTL in the literature (Kreber, 2002b). Boyer did not provide specific guidance on the definition of the scholarship of teaching and learning (Reed, 2003; Trigwell & Shale, 2004), which has left the field open for interpretation. Cox, Huber, and Hutchings (as cited in McKinney, 2007), in reporting findings from their study, noted, “confusion among faculty about what constitutes the scholarship of teaching in learning is an obstacle to greater faculty involvement in the scholarship of teaching and learning at my institution” (p. 148). Without faculty understanding of the definition of the SOTL and the possibilities it holds, universities may find the SOTL to be an unused, or misused, domain of scholarship.

Another challenge universities face is the disparate perceptions of faculty and administrators on these issues. When studies have compared the two, researchers report that academics and administrators have differing perceptions of the importance of teaching and scholarship (Brawer, Steinert, St-Cyr, Watters, & Wood-Dauphinee, 2006; McAlpine & Harris, 2002; Padovan & Whittington, 1998; Ramsden, 2004; Tang &
Chamberlain, 1997). Administrator perceptions often lead to university policies and procedures, including the rewards structure, tenure and promotion decisions, and financial support for faculty projects. In spite of the fact that most faculty value teaching highly (Brown & McCartney, 1998; De Simone, 2001), rewards and tenure and promotion decisions often are based on publishing and other scholarly activities, causing tension and dissatisfaction among faculty members who are frustrated by the low status afforded teaching (Boyer, 1990; C. L. Colbeck & Wharton-Michael, 2006a; Hardy & Smith, 2006; Menon, 2003; Young, 2006). Even institutions that have transformed their scholarship practices to reflect Boyer’s scholarship paradigms continue to place primary emphasis on the scholarship of discovery, or original research (Braxton et al., 2002, 2006). This incorporation can be seen most clearly in academic reward structures that focus on publications and presentations in promotion and tenure decisions (Brookfield, 2000; Menon). It is not surprising that the scholarship of discovery has become a focus, since the outcomes of research are easy to observe, count, and fund; the outcomes of teaching, integration, and application are less clear and more complex (McAlpine & Harris; O'Meara, 2006; Wisniewski, 1984; Young). As Nicholls (2001) wrote, “The reward system reveals without a shadow of a doubt why so many academics place their research before teaching even if they feel passionately about teaching. Research is rewarded; teaching is not” (p. 3)! Ultimately, faculty will do what they believe will be evaluated and rewarded (Brookfield; C. L. Colbeck & Wharton-Michael).

The chasm that has formed between faculty and administrators may also be affected by external forces that exert increasing pressure on higher education institutions. One significant cultural change higher education institutions have seen in recent years is
a shift from a collegial culture, where the faculty member is the focus, to a managerial, or business, culture, where the focus is on the student as key constituent and consumer (R. E. Rice, 2006). This move to a more managerial culture is evidenced in many different forms, including the dissolution of tenure, the increasing calls for institutional accountability for teaching and learning effectiveness, and mass systems of higher education that focus on the student and have changed the very nature and quality of the students entering college (Barrington, 2004; Biggs, 2001; Brew, 2003; Cross, 2001; Gordon, 2002; Kezar, 2001). Reed (2003), in describing a lecture Eugene Rice gave on this issue, outlined the tension between these two cultures as described in Table 1. It is, ultimately, a shift to a consumer-oriented business model that could have major implications for the work faculty do and the ways faculty and administrators relate.

While all of the outcomes of the shift in culture in higher education affect faculty in some fashion, it is the increased accountability that universities will have to deal with quickly and directly. The student has become the focus of teaching and learning, and while this certainly legitimizes the work of teaching at the university level (Barrington, 2004; Cross, 2001; Stage, Muller, Kinzie, & Simmons, 1998; Travis, 1996), it is also a cause for concern when so many faculty continue to teach with a transmission/teaching-centered conception. Accountability measures are being discussed and put in place to guarantee the quality of a student’s education. In the UK, for example, the 2004 Higher Education Act called for increased training of faculty and requirements for formal qualifications in teaching (Nicholls, 2005). Other initiatives around the world include higher funding for institutions who reward teaching excellence (Nicholls; A. Palmer & Collins, 2006). Institutions will need to address the quality of teaching and learning that
happens on their campuses and commit to policy changes and further support for teaching and the scholarship of teaching that leads to improved student learning.

Table 1

*Collegial Vs. Managerial University Culture*

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<td>Individual Work</td>
<td>Collaborative Endeavor</td>
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<tr>
<td>Culture of tradition and trust</td>
<td>Culture of evidence and managerial scrutiny</td>
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<td>Peer review</td>
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<td>Discretionary use of time</td>
<td>Organizationally structured work hours</td>
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<tr>
<td>Authority of faculty enshrined in tenure</td>
<td>Power of students as consumers (p. 74)</td>
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As all institutions are facing the pressure and accountability to provide quality student learning and effective teaching, it would seem that those institutions for which teaching is the first priority would be well prepared. Many institutions (e.g. community colleges and four-year Baccalaureates) for example, have embraced their focus on teaching and include it as a core part of their mission (Boyer, 1990; Padovan & Whittington, 1998). Four-year institutions may struggle with the temptation to move up in the Carnegie classification system by offering higher degrees, but most are “unapologetically teaching-focused” (Mallard & Atkins, 2004, p. 373). Recent studies, however, suggest that the state of teaching at these institutions may not be as established as it would seem. Even at teaching institutions, scholarship expectations have changed, and an increasingly strong emphasis is being placed on research productivity.
(McCaughey, 1994). The perception of faculty in many of these institutions is that teaching is not valued highly, especially compared with other aspects of faculty work (Asmar, 2002; Ballantyne, Bain, & Packer, 1999; Hardy & Smith, 2006; Nicholls, 2005; Young, 2006). In 1982, Peters and Mayfield (1982) studied faculty perceptions of their institutions and found that faculty believed their institutions did not hold teaching with high regard as they did. Just recently, Young studied the perceptions of lecturers in the social policy field at teaching institutions and found a similar pattern: in spite of external pressures and the almost 20 years that have passed since Boyer’s work in scholarship changed the perspective of higher education, participants believed that teaching had a low status in their institution and that research was still the major focus.

Statement of the Problem

While there have been increased calls in higher education for institutions to be accountable for quality teaching and a stronger focus on student learning, at many institutions, including those that are teaching-focused, the status of teaching and learning has not improved (Nicholls, 2005; A. Palmer & Collins, 2006). Faculty members continue to hold conceptions of teaching that are transmission/teacher-focused (Lindblom-Ylanne et al., 2006; Prosser & Trigwell, 2006; Trigwell & Prosser, 2004; Trigwell et al., 2005b), and institutions continue to approach the improvement of teaching and learning through professional development that is similarly teacher-focused and does not take into account, or attempt to change, faculty conceptions (Brookfield, 2000; Cranton & Carusetta, 2004; Nicholls; Sokol & Cranton, 1998). Also, faculty and administrators do not see eye to eye on the value of teaching (Brawer et al., 2006;
McAlpine & Harris, 2002; Padovan & Whittington, 1998; Ramsden, 2004; Tang & Chamberlain, 1997), and many have not embraced ideas like the scholarship of teaching due to these differences in perceptions and a lack of understanding of what the scholarship of teaching is (Kreber, 2002b; Lueddeke, 2003; McKinney, 2006; Reed, 2003). A culture has developed in higher education institutions that fails to afford high status to teaching. This culture is affected by the perceptions of faculty and administrators (Lea & Callaghan, 2008), and it may, in turn, affect how future faculty and administrators perceive teaching, creating a cyclical effect that could leave teaching and learning unchanged. This is present even at institutions whose missions are teaching-focused (Asmar, 2002; Ballantyne et al., 1999; Hardy & Smith, 2006; Young). Without fully understanding faculty members’ conceptions of teaching, the perceptions that faculty and administrators have of teaching and the scholarship of teaching, and the culture that affects, and is affected by, these perceptions, the status of teaching and learning in higher education cannot improve.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the perceptions full-time faculty and administrators at one teaching institution have of teaching, the scholarship of teaching and learning, and the institution’s culture and commitment to supporting faculty teaching and scholarship. To do so, the researcher will investigate:

1. Faculty and administrator perceptions of teaching and the scholarship of teaching and learning.
2. Faculty conceptions of teaching and the relationship between these conceptions and their approaches to teaching and scholarship.

3. Administrator perceptions of the institution’s commitment to teaching and scholarship and how these compare with faculty perceptions of the same.

4. The culture of the university and how it influences, and is influenced by, faculty and administrator perceptions.

Rationale

Studies have shown that a faculty member’s conception of teaching has a direct influence on a host of other teaching-related factors, including approach to teaching (Kember, 1997; Kember & Kwan, 2000; Prosser & Trigwell, 1999, 2006), development and growth of teaching (Trigwell et al., 2005b), and, most importantly, the quality of student learning (Trigwell & Prosser, 2004). This work, however, is highly contextual: conceptions of faculty have varied in studies depending on the context of a class, a course, a department, or the discipline (Knight & Trowler, 2000; Prosser & Trigwell; Ramsden, Prosser, Trigwell, & Martin, 2007; Trigwell, Prosser, & Ginns, 2005a). There have not, however, been studies on approaches to teaching that move beyond the immediate context, or discipline, to look at institutional context and factors that may influence teaching and scholarship approaches (Lea & Callaghan, 2008). The departmental influence on teaching and scholarship has been addressed, but studies have not moved beyond that despite calls for research in this area (Lea & Callaghan; Lueddeke, 2003; Menon, 2003; Quinlan, 2002). As Quinlan argued, understanding teacher practice “requires building bridges between the study of teachers’ knowledge and
beliefs, and the study of disciplinary and professional cultures, histories and contexts” (p. 42). Without a full understanding of the discipline, department, and university factors that influence faculty teaching, then, institutions will struggle to help faculty improve teaching and student learning (O'Meara, 2006).

The scholarship of teaching has also been linked to conceptions of teaching, and institutions will need to understand this link, as well as how faculty perceive the scholarship of teaching, if teaching, learning, and the status of teaching as scholarship are going to improve. Recent studies indicate that those who hold a transmission/teaching-centered conception of teaching have difficulty understanding the importance of reflection and the scholarship of teaching (Kreber, 2005; Lueddeke, 2003; Quinlan, 2002), which is a problem for institutions interested in improving teaching and learning. Menon (2003), in a study on the integration of research and teaching, highlighted the importance of investigating faculty perceptions of scholarship components before integration can be successful. Brew (2003) argued that successful integration would require a clear understanding of how academics “conceptualise research and scholarship” (p. 16). The scholarship of teaching and learning (SOTL), as espoused by Boyer and others, exemplifies this integration, yet the definition of this approach continues to be debated (Hutchings & Shulman, 1999; Richlin, 2001). In a Delphi study, experts in the field of the SOTL identified areas for future study and work, including the need for faculty “to be educated in how to think of teaching as scholarship” (Kreber, 2002a, p. 163). Kreber cautioned, however, that faculty conceptions of teaching and the scholarship of teaching and learning would need to be identified before development opportunities like this were offered. Studies, then, on faculty perceptions of the scholarship of teaching,
including their conceptions of teaching and of teaching scholarship, are needed before institutional reforms can take place.

While there have been studies that address faculty and administrator perceptions of the institutional context as it relates to teaching and scholarship, relatively few researchers (e.g. Braxton, 2006; Braxton et al., 2002; O’Meara, 2006; Williams & Rhodes, 2000) have addressed findings in specific institutional types. Many studies, including qualitative studies where full description is important (Creswell, 2007), seem to ignore the institutional context, including the identification of the institutional type by Carnegie classification or research/teaching orientation. One unique institutional type that has received little attention in the literature on faculty perceptions and conceptions of teaching and scholarship is the teaching institution. Some studies have focused on faculty perceptions within a teaching institution context (Bodenhorn, 1997; Buzza, 1990; Major & Palmer, 2006; Peters & Mayfield, 1982), and some combine research and teaching institutions within their studies (Braxton et al., 2002, 2006; Cottrell & Jones, 2003; O’Meara; Raubenheimer, 2004; Young, 2006), but the majority of studies focus either on research-intensive universities or do not acknowledge the institution type. Studies on teaching in research universities are important due to the primary focus of research in faculty life, but as faculty and administrators continue to feel the pressure to produce research and scholarship (Braxton; Young), studies in this context may provide help and support for similar institutions.

Finally, although studies in the literature have addressed faculty perceptions of teaching, scholarship, and institutional context, relatively few studies (e.g. Brawer et al., 2006; Padovan & Whittington, 1998; Tang & Chamberlain, 1997) have compared
administrator perceptions to faculty perceptions in these areas. Faculty and administrators clearly have differing perceptions of the importance of teaching and scholarship, as well as in how those aspects of faculty life are managed, rewarded, and supported (Brawer et al.; McAlpine & Harris, 2002; Ramsden, 2004; Tang & Chamberlain). While faculty perceptions are important, administrators’ perceptions have a strong impact on the policies, procedures, and, therefore, culture of the university, and it would be especially important that their voices are heard. Ultimately, a clear picture of the institutional culture as it relates to teaching and scholarship will be possible when the perceptions of both groups are considered.

Research Questions

What are the perceptions of teaching, the scholarship of teaching and learning, and the culture of teaching and scholarship held by faculty and administrators in one Midwest teaching university?

Secondary questions include the following:

1a. How do faculty conceptions of teaching relate to their perceived need to develop their teaching?

1b. How do faculty conceptions of teaching relate to their conceptions of the scholarship of teaching and learning and its applicability within the university?

2. How do faculty perceptions of teaching and scholarship compare with those of administrators at the same university?

3. What are faculty and administrators’ perceptions of the institution’s culture of, and commitment to, teaching and the scholarship of teaching and learning?
Significance of the Study

The outcomes of this study are significant in the following key ways. First, Lea & Callaghan (2008) addressed the need for exploratory studies that combine teaching conceptions/perceptions and institutional context, arguing that the broader contextual issues of the higher education climate may affect, and may be affected by, those conceptions. The authors were critical of Prosser & Trigwell’s (1999) work using the Approaches to Teaching Inventory (ATI) because it dealt only with the course or classroom context. They also cited Lindblom-Ylanne et al.’s (2006) work in relating teaching conceptions to faculty disciplines as an example of another study that failed to address institutional context issues. What Lea & Callaghan did not do in their study, however, was use the Approaches to Teaching Inventory, opting instead to allow faculty to describe their conceptions and experiences of teaching. Ramsden et al. (2007) recently correlated faculty perceptions of departmental leadership support of teaching to their approaches to teaching, but they stopped at the department and did not use the full ATI in the administered survey. There are no studies in the literature, therefore, that relate the results of the ATI with institutional context.

Secondly, the study provides a picture of the initial conceptions faculty at a teaching institution have of the scholarship of teaching based on relatively little exposure to the concept. Administrators and faculty developers have done little work to expose faculty to the scholarship of teaching, and have not developed faculty in this area. Trigwell, Martin, Benjamin, and Prosser’s (2000) model of the scholarship of teaching was used to ascertain faculty perceptions of this scholarship domain and the potential for its use in their work. These conceptions were also compared, as Lueddeke (2003) did,
with conceptions of teaching in general. Lueddeke, however, analyzed conceptions in a quantitative form, using a second inventory, the Approaches to the Scholarship of Teaching Inventory (ASTI). While his results were clear and added significantly to the research, it did not provide as full a description as a qualitative study may have done.

Finally, the study provides a rich, thick description of the teaching institution in the 21\textsuperscript{st} century. With its focus on faculty conceptions of teaching and scholarship, as well as faculty and administrator perceptions of teaching, scholarship, and the institution’s commitment to, and culture, of teaching and scholarship, the study provides an intimate look at the entire culture at one institution. The comparison between faculty and administrator perceptions highlights the culture from two primary angles, and also delineates the issues still seen in higher education related to the rewarding and support for teaching and scholarship. Other teaching institutions may also benefit from the light shed on the specific cultural issues inherent in the studied institution. And since the outcomes of qualitative research often include questions for further study (Yin, 1984), researchers studying any one of these variables can find rich, contextual data to use “to develop sharper and more insightful questions” (p. 20) about these topics.

Definition of Terms

The terms used throughout this study that require definitions are defined as follows:

\textit{Conceptions.} Conceptions are “specific meanings attached to phenomena which then mediate our response to situations involving those phenomena… In effect, we view the world through the lenses of our conceptions, interpreting and acting in accordance
with our understanding of the world. Thus, our conceptions significantly influence our perception and interpretation of events, people, and phenomena surrounding us” (Pratt, 1992, p. 204). Unlike perceptions, which relate to what a person thinks or feels about the world around them based on observation, conceptions relate to a person’s fundamental understanding of the meaning of phenomena ("Perception", 2009).

*Culture.* Culture is defined as the beliefs, values, and knowledge shared by a group of people (Morrill & Steffy, 1980).

*Pedagogical Content Knowledge.* Pedagogical content knowledge is defined as the interaction between content knowledge and learning (Ronkowski, 1993). It is the understanding teachers should have of how students best learn the content of the field.

*Perceptions.* Perceptions are observations or mental images acquired through the senses ("Perception", 2009). Perceptions are based on impressions or “sensations interpreted in the light of experience” (p. 1). They are strongly influenced by conceptions, or the meanings and understandings humans have of the world (Pratt, 1992).

*Teaching Institution.* A Teaching Institution is defined as an institution whose faculty members have, as their primary focus, the education of students. This would include 4 year colleges and universities not listed as Research institutions in the basic Carnegie Classifications.

*Research as Scholarship*”. “Research as Scholarship” is defined as the pervasive emphasis of research as the primary form of scholarship at many higher education institutions.

*Scholarly Culture.* Scholarly culture (or culture of scholarship) is defined as the beliefs, values, and knowledge of members of a culture as it relates to scholarship and
scholarly practices (Bozyk, 2005). Scholarly culture impacts faculty and administrator perceptions, faculty practice, faculty evaluation, and faculty reward structures.

_Scholarship._ Scholarship is defined as “an act of intelligence or of artistic creation” (Shulman, 1999, ¶ 38) that is made public, is critically reviewed by the community or discipline, and is used by others to further the work of that discipline.

_Scholarship of teaching._ The scholarship of teaching is defined as the research-like pursuit of teaching knowledge that is built through inquiry, is community property, is open to critique, and is in a form easily built upon by others (Kreber, 2002b; Kreber & Cranton, 2000; R. Smith, 2001a). It is one of the four scholarship domains introduced by Boyer (1990).

_Scholarship of teaching and learning._ The scholarship of teaching and learning is defined as the replacement of the term “scholarship of teaching” with one that emphasizes student learning as the core outcome of any teaching scholarship (Huber & Hutchings, 2005; McKinney, 2007).

Assumptions and Limitations

The researcher’s primary assumption is that participants of the institution being studied would be willing to participate fully in the work and provide honest, open responses to interview and focus group questions. In terms of limitations, an inevitable part of any study, the researcher is aware of a few that may have an effect on the outcomes of this study. An obvious one is the highly-contextualized focus this study has on a single teaching institution, which limits the generalizability of the findings to other institutions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Other limitations have to do with the nature of case
study research, including the reliance on individual perspectives that may introduce bias and incorrect information, the influence of the researcher’s own biases and perspectives on the findings, and the inability any one researcher has to see all possible connections and relationships. Exploratory research in the form of case studies, however, are important to the education field (Merriam & Simpson, 1995), as they provide rich descriptions of phenomena within specific contexts, making these limitations necessary and unavoidable.

Nature of the Study

The methodology for this study is case study research, where the case being studied is one Midwest teaching university. Specifically, the focus of the study is on faculty and administrator perceptions of teaching, the scholarship of teaching and learning, and the overall culture of, and institutional commitment to, teaching and scholarship. The research questions (Creswell, 2007), and relevant studies (Lea & Callaghan, 2008; Menon, 2003; Quinlan, 2002), call for an exploratory study that seeks to describe faculty and administrator perceptions of teaching, scholarship, and the institutional culture. Yin (1984) highlighted three conditions that justify the choice of a case study methodology, including a focus on exploration, a contemporary setting where interviews and observations are possible, and a need to describe the phenomena as it is, without manipulation. As Creswell and Yin noted, however, the most important reason to choose case study research is that the researcher desires to explore not only the phenomenon, but the context that surrounds it as well. This case study meets these needs.
A case study researcher benefits from a myriad of data collection methods that are available to aid in the complete description of the case. This includes all methods, including those that are traditionally used in more quantitative studies. Through the administration of the revised Approaches to Teaching Inventory (Trigwell et al., 2005a), a 2-scale inventory that measures faculty conceptions of teaching and their approaches to teaching, and through observation, informal interviews, focus groups, and document analysis, the researcher is a participant observer and will work to provide a thorough description of the institution and its culture as it relates to teaching, scholarship, and the scholarship of teaching and learning.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

This chapter has addressed the status of teaching and the scholarship of teaching in institutions of higher education, including institutions that are teaching-focused. Potential barriers to the improvement and study of teaching in higher education include faculty and administrator conceptions of teaching, their perceptions of the scholarship of teaching and learning, and their overall perceptions of the institutional culture and its commitment to teaching and scholarship. The second chapter reviews existing literature on faculty conceptions of teaching and faculty and administrator perceptions of teaching, the scholarship of teaching and learning, and their perceptions on institutional culture and commitment to teaching and scholarship. In addition, the chapter addresses other important areas of research, including Boyer’s (1990) scholarship model, the scholarship of teaching and learning, university culture, institutional support for teaching and scholarship, and the professional development of faculty. The third chapter addresses the
methodology for this study, including a description of case study research and its general principles, as well as specifications for the current study on Midwest Teaching University. Chapter 4 provides the findings of the study based on the case study methodology, which includes results from the survey, interviews, focus groups, and document analysis. Finally, the fifth chapter provides the summary, discussion, and conclusions from the study, addressing the primary and secondary research questions and how the results relate, and further, the literature. Recommendations are offered for administrators interested in change and reform at similar institutions, and the chapter concludes with recommendations for further research on the status of teaching and scholarship in higher education.
CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Studies on university faculty perception of teaching and other related topics have taken many different forms in the literature. Many of the early studies, and some that continue today, looked primarily at faculty perceptions of scholarship (Bavaro, 1995; Bodenham, 1997; Buzza, 1990). Researchers have been interested in what faculty think about research, teaching, and the relationship between the two (Brew, 1999, 2003; Elen, 2007; Menon, 2003; Tang & Chamberlain, 1997). Studies have also centered around the rewards for teaching, including the perceived usefulness of teaching rewards and the emphasis in universities on research as the primary scholarship domain that is rewarded (Brawer et al., 2006; Padovan & Whittington, 1998; A. Palmer & Collins, 2006; Peters & Mayfield, 1982; Tang & Chamberlain; Young, 2006). When Boyer (1990) used the National Survey of Faculty to gather faculty perceptions of scholarship and its rewards, his results and interpretation sparked a transformation in higher education thought. The scholarship of teaching, one of the domains Boyer presented, became a way to focus on the study of teaching, leading to studies that demonstrated how this form of scholarship was done (Huber, 2006; Koch, Holland, Price, Gonzalez, Lieske, Butler, Wilson, & Holly, 2002; Kreber, Castleden, Erfani, & Wright, 2005; Lueddeke, 2003; Major & Palmer, 2006; Peel, 2005; Sommers, 2004) and reviewed faculty conceptions and
perceptions of the scholarship of teaching (Braxton et al., 2002, 2006; Kreber, 1999, 2002a; Lueddeke; Trigwell et al., 2000).

The study of teaching has opened up new emphases on teaching, including studies on faculty conceptions of teaching and how those conceptions influence approaches to teaching and other aspects of teaching and learning (Biggs, 2001; Kember & Kwan, 2000; Light & Cox, 2001; McAlpine, Weston, Berthiaume, & Fairbank-Roch, 2006; Nicholls, 2005; Pickering, 2006; Quinlan, 2002; Raubenheimer, 2004; Trigwell et al., 2005b). Prosser & Trigwell (1999) developed the Approaches to Teaching Inventory (ATI) to identify conceptions as they related to other dynamics within the teaching context, which has led to studies that use the ATI (Kreber, 2005; Lindblom-Ylanne et al., 2006; Lueddeke, 2003; Trigwell et al., 2005a). This focus on context has led to one final area of study about teaching and scholarship: the culture, or context, itself. Recently, studies have begun to tie teaching, scholarship, and the scholarship of teaching and learning to the institutional context, or culture, with researchers studying both how these components influence culture and how they are influenced by culture (Knight & Trowler, 2000; Lea & Callaghan, 2008; Lueddeke; Menon, 2003; Quinlan). The current study has furthered this work. This review of the literature addresses the range of topics described above, organized into three major sections: faculty conceptions and perceptions of teaching, the scholarship of teaching and learning, and institutional commitment and culture as it is activated in policies and cultural norms concerning rewards, support for teaching, and professional development. Addressing these core areas in the literature provides both a concrete and theoretical foundation for the study.
Conceptions and Perceptions of Teaching

In the 1990’s, researchers began to study the beliefs that college and university faculty had about teaching, and these early years of research have led to an area of study that has touched many other areas related to teaching and scholarship at the university level (Kember, 1997). Kember researched the literature on these beliefs, or conceptions, of teaching and highlighted 13 studies that were foundational to the work. All 13 studies had as their focus the faculty member’s understanding instead of a researcher-imposed framework. Each was conducted within the qualitative research paradigm, using interviews that asked participants to describe their perceptions of teaching and learning in general. Kember synthesized the studies and identified two broad orientations to faculty conceptions: teacher-centered/content-oriented and student-centered/learning-oriented. In Kember’s model, these orientations were two ends of a continuum of five approaches to teaching: imparting information, transmitting structured knowledge, student teacher interaction/apprenticeship, facilitating understanding, and conceptual change/intellectual development. Since a faculty member’s approach to teaching has a direct influence on a host of other teaching variables, the outcomes of studies like Kember’s synthesis are still being explored today.

It should be said that Kember’s (1997) synthesis is not the definitive description of teaching conceptions and approaches to teaching, but his work has been used as a foundation for other studies and is similar to other approaches. In addition to the 13 studies Kember reviewed, others, including Biggs (2001) and Nicholls (2005), have worked to identify and categorize faculty conceptions of teaching. Biggs argued that teachers hold different theories about teaching throughout their careers that align with
one of those two conceptions. He noted that teachers move through three levels as they develop, beginning with a “transmitting knowledge” conception and ending, eventually, in the “facilitating learning” realm. In Level I, the teacher leaves the responsibility of learning to the student, focusing on providing the information the student needs to learn. In Level II, the teacher begins to take some ownership over how the material is presented, but does not yet focus on how students learn effectively. Finally, teachers who reach Level III understand that the focus should be on student learning, meaning that the teacher’s role is to partner with the student, providing an environment where students can engage actively with content until they have learned it. Faculty members approach their teaching based primarily on their conception of teaching (Brew, 2003), and all faculty find themselves somewhere in Biggs’ continuum.

Nicholls (2005) also addressed this continuum in his study on the conceptions new lecturers bring to their role in higher education. Using the progression Sherman, Armistead, Fowler, Barksdale, and Reif (1987) identified to mark the four stages, similar to Biggs’ (2001) three stages, in the development of faculty from transmission to facilitation, Nicholls placed new faculty members on the continuum and showed higher numbers of faculty in earlier stages than in the latter. Based on his study, Nicholls (p. 613) argued that “the connection between the ‘teaching’ and the learner is often not understood by experienced lecturers.” This is a problem that must be addressed: if faculty approach teaching from a transmission, Level I perspective, then they do not see teaching as being, ultimately, about learning. Teaching is simply transmitting knowledge, and therefore does not require intense study into how teaching is most effective. Faculty who
have this conception of teaching place the onus on the student and do not view teaching as something they should think about, study, or develop.

Other studies have been done since Kember’s (1997) analysis of the literature in the field, and while the research approaches are different, the findings are the same: conceptions of teaching do, in fact, influence a faculty member’s approach to teaching (Kember & Kwan, 2000; McAlpine et al., 2006; Trigwell et al., 2005b). Kember & Kwan, for example, affirmed the broad orientations of transmissive or facilitative teaching in their study of 17 lecturers through an open, naturalistic approach. They also affirmed the close tie between these basic conceptions of teaching and the choices faculty made in teaching approaches. Trigwell et al. addressed the relationship between conceptions of teaching and the experience faculty have of change in their subject matter understanding, highlighting the finding that faculty who do not experience this change view teaching from a transmission-oriented perspective, while faculty who do report change approach teaching in a facilitative, or student-centered, manner. McAlpine et al. provide one example of a study that relates conceptions of teaching to approaches to teaching within a specific context: a course they are teaching and specific classes within that course. Finally, Quinlan (2002) took the relationship of context and conceptions of teaching and expanded it to the department faculty work in. She noted that research on teaching in higher education “has largely overlooked the contexts of teaching and learning” (p. 42). In her study of seven academics in mechanical engineering, Quinlan affirmed the disparate conceptions of teaching as others have described and affirmed their relationship with approaches to teaching, but went farther by connecting those conceptions with their understanding of research in the field and their perception of
content students needed to be successful. Overall, these studies showed a clear consensus on the broad conceptions of teaching and subsequent approaches to teaching, while at the same time highlighting an important trend in connecting those factors to the context or setting.

Prosser and Trigwell (1999), researchers in one of the 13 studies Kember (1997) analyzed, also affirmed the conceptions of teaching and approaches to teaching, and, at the same time, advocated for the relationship between these factors and context. They went on to develop an inventory that measured conceptions of teaching and, therefore, approaches to teaching (Trigwell & Prosser, 2004). The Approaches to Teaching Inventory (ATI) was a 2-scale inventory of 16 items, with eight items focused on an information transmission/teacher-focused (ITTF) approach and eight items with a conceptual change/student-focused (CCSF) focus. The ATI has been used in two common ways: it has been used to either identify change in conceptions of teaching over time, or to relate conceptions of teaching to faculty approaches to teaching on the ATI scale (Prosser & Trigwell, 2006). In Prosser and Trigwell’s initial study, for example, university science faculty approaches to teaching were measured in relation to student approaches to learning. Three studies have affirmed their initial findings that faculty approach does relate teaching with student learning (Trigwell & Prosser). CCSF approaches by faculty correlated positively with a deep approach to learning by students, while ITTF approaches were positive correlated with surface approaches to learning. The quality of student learning, then, is clearly influenced by faculty conceptions of teaching and their subsequent approach within the classroom. In terms of the actual instrument, two confirmatory factor analyses have been conducted, both on the original instrument
and on a newly revised ATI (Prosser & Trigwell; Trigwell et al., 2005a). In each study, the researchers found that the factor structure remains consistent across the studies that have been done in contexts other than the original, including those studies that relate approaches to teaching to other key factors in teaching, learning, and scholarship.

While the ATI has proven effective, the authors make clear that it was created with a relational focus and was not designed to be used by itself (Prosser & Trigwell, 2006). Its value only comes when used within a specific context that is clearly described. The specific contextual information (e.g. science faculty and student approaches to learning) provide value and validity to the use of the ATI. In Lindblom-Ylanne et al.’s (2006) quantitative study on faculty in Finland and the UK, the researchers administered the ATI to determine how teaching approaches were affected by discipline and teaching context. It was found that the discipline/teaching context had a great influence on approaches. The researchers affirmed Lueddeke’s (2003) findings that faculty in certain disciplines were more likely to take a teaching or student-centered approach to teaching. On the other hand, faculty approaches to teaching varied in both the discipline and teaching contexts, meaning that faculty may approach teaching differently in different contexts despite their measured conception of teaching (Lindblom-Ylanne et al.). This speaks to the need to consider multiple contexts (department, discipline, and institution) in future studies.

Other researchers who have used the Approaches to Teaching Inventory (ATI) have done so by connecting approaches to teaching with other key variables in the life of faculty, including reflection, scholarship, and culture/context. Kreber (2005), for example, did a qualitative study of 36 science instructors and their beliefs, or perceptions,
about teaching, reflection, and the scholarship of teaching. Using the results of semi-structured interviews and the ATI, she developed a repertory grid that measured faculty perceptions and identified trends in their reflective practices. Key findings were that instructors use their personal experience more than formal training in reflecting on their teaching and, most importantly, that “conceptions of teaching might influence staff’s motivation to engage in reflection” (p. 353). Kreber noted that if faculty conceived teaching to be student/learning centered, then instructors would be more likely to engage in reflection, making the combination of the ATI with reflection in her methodology an effective connection. In another study using the ATI, Lueddeke (2003) used a quantitative approach, surveying faculty in Business, Social Science, and Technology at the Southampton Institute in order to identify conceptions and approaches to teaching and to the scholarship of teaching. The survey was in three parts: demographic information, the Approaches to Teaching Inventory, and the Approaches to the Scholarship of Teaching Inventory (ASTI). Lueddeke found that two key variables influenced faculty approach to the scholarship of teaching: the faculty member’s discipline and conception of teaching. He also found that staff in the “hard/pure or applied” subjects (e.g. mathematics) were more likely to have a transmission/teaching-oriented approach than those in the soft subjects (e.g. psychology). In both this study and the study by Kreber, it is clear that the use of the ATI had an important descriptive effect on the findings, and it is also clear that the subsequent approach to reflection and the scholarship of teaching is affected by faculty conceptions of teaching.

While the Approaches to Teaching Inventory has been used to relate conceptions of teaching to certain factors present within a faculty’s context, one area that has not been
explored is the relation of conceptions and approaches to teaching to the perceptions faculty have of the university culture itself (Lea & Callaghan, 2008; Ramsden et al., 2007). The discipline context is prevalent in the literature on teaching conceptions, including those studies that use the ATI, but the university context is not. Of the studies done using the ATI mentioned above, only Lueddeke (2003) called for future investigations into “institutional ethos, work distribution and climate factors” (p. 213).

Ramsden et al. studied the correlation between departmental leadership support for teaching and faculty approaches to teaching, and did find that the leadership influences teaching, but the study itself neglected to use the full ATI and did not address the university as a whole. Lea and Callaghan, in discussing the studies by Prosser and Trigwell (1999) and Lindblom-Ylanne et al. (2006), argued that despite the inherent focus on context in the ATI, the researchers did not go far enough to explore context from a larger perspective: namely, the higher education climate. She noted that the studies identify both classroom context and discipline, but fail to address any of the “broader contextual issues” (Lea & Callaghan, p. 185) present in the “complex nature” of higher education. They were also quantitative studies that did not allow for the introduction of outside factors that may influence the findings. Lea and Callaghan’s study, on the other hand, takes an exploratory qualitative approach, allowing the 22 faculty from various disciplines to describe their perceptions and experiences of teaching within their higher education institution. Participants identified many external factors, including pressure to publish and low value placed on teaching, that were part of the influence the culture, or institutional ethos, had on teaching. She stated that future exploratory work is needed to understand the relationship between faculty and the
institutional context, and that this “may lead to a more comprehensive understanding of delivering higher education” (p. 186). While Lea and Callaghan offered an effective argument for the use of exploratory studies, however, there would still be value in pairing the qualitative approach with findings from the ATI to open up this new area of research. As Quinlan (2002) posited, understanding teacher practice “requires building bridges between the study of teachers’ knowledge and beliefs, and the study of disciplinary and professional cultures, histories and contexts” (p. 42). Quinlan’s study went beyond other studies on teacher thinking by providing contextual information on the department, the university, and the discipline. She, however, calls for much more research in this area, including addressing the limitation in her study that was present because it focused only on one department. Contributions to the field would be “strengthened” (p. 42), in fact, if the broader context was explored.

Menon (2003) combined teaching with broader contextual issues in his study on the perceptions of teaching or research-focused academics on the mission of higher education. While this was the focus, however, the outcomes included faculty perceptions of the culture of the institution and its influences. Menon addressed the fact that the culture, as it related to research and teaching for example, is not influenced by the faculty, but is, instead, due to an “institutional shift” towards one activity or the other (p. 41). This shift, in itself, has major ramifications for the approach that faculty will take to teaching and research. Menon calls for continued investigation into the perceptions and attitudes of faculty in teaching, research, and in the climate of higher education as a whole. In another study on the influence of culture on teaching and learning, Knight and Trowler (2000) interviewed 24 new academics to determine their perceptions of their
institutional context as it related to their work and their teaching. The authors argued that improvement in teaching will not happen without departments that are conducive to teaching. Departments are, as they describe, “the central locus of cultural enactment and, importantly, construction in universities which are, inevitably, extremely culturally complex organizations” (p. 69). Without a full understanding of the departmental and university factors that influence faculty teaching, therefore, it will be impossible to help faculty improve teaching and student learning. While this study did not deal directly with conceptions or approaches to teaching, it provides an excellent example of the cultural focus needed in the literature today.

Linking Faculty Perceptions and Institutional Culture

While faculty perceptions of teaching and other teaching-related areas have been studied through both qualitative and quantitative measures, administrator perceptions have not been well-represented despite the influence those perceptions have on faculty work. Neumann (1993) conducted a qualitative study on the research role of academics in Australian universities, interviewing senior academic administrators to gather their perceptions of research and scholarship. The study’s goal, however, was to identify a shared definition of research, and, therefore, did not address teaching or the link between research and teaching. Lenthe (2006) surveyed academic administrators in his quantitative study to gather their perceptions of the use of Boyer’s domains of scholarship in faculty reward decisions, and while it was found that the strongest rewards were given for teaching scholarship, the study focused on community colleges where teaching is generally the top priority of faculty. O’Meara (2006) also surveyed academic
administrators on their perceptions of reward structures, providing an excellent study on the perceptions of 729 Chief Academic Officers (CAOs) of the academic culture’s influence on university reward structures for scholarship. Specifically, O’Meara surveyed the CAOs to identify how “academic cultures affected and were affected by formal policy changes.” The findings included a clear need for the institutional type, culture, and faculty work constraints to be considered when initiating reforms in faculty reward structures. Most importantly, however, O’Meara’s findings followed this need by providing the results according to three institution types (baccalaureate, master’s, and doctoral), making the findings useful to all institutions that fit in these categories. Williams and Rhodes (2002) also addressed institution type in their study of CAOs at four-year colleges and universities. CAOs perceptions of the criteria that should be used to evaluate teaching, research, service, and performance were identified and reported according to the institution’s Carnegie classification, whether it was public or private, and whether it was union or nonunion. Findings clearly showed differences between institution types, but also showed little difference when the public or private control variable was considered. Again, the focus on, and identification of, institutional type had a profound impact on the results, making them much more accessible for a broad range of institutions.

Numerous examples of studies on faculty and administrator perceptions of teaching, scholarship, and institutional culture are in the literature, but relatively few of those studies compare faculty perceptions to the perceptions of administrators. Brawer et al. (2006) studied the impact a teaching award had on attitudes and departmental culture by surveying faculty and administrators on the issue. All of the participants regarded the
teaching award highly, but administrator perceptions of the award’s ability to recognize and elevate the stature of award recipients were markedly more positive than the faculty surveyed. Padovan and Whittington (1998) also studied both faculty and administrator perceptions of rewards for faculty work, specifically reviewing promotion, tenure, salary, and release time as rewards at two-year colleges. Differences in perceptions between the two groups related to faculty work load and the threatening of teaching focus were noted. Tang and Chamberlain (1997) identified faculty and administrator attitudes toward research, teaching, and reward systems at Tennessee state universities and found that these two groups viewed these variables very differently. Administrators generally viewed teaching and research to be compatible and supported through the university mission, and they believed that rewards effectively improved faculty teaching. Faculty, however, believed that their teaching was not rewarded, and also believed that they should be “required to either do research or teaching, but not both” (p. 223). Overall, these studies show a clear distinction between faculty and administrator perceptions and stress a need for these differences to be addressed when working to describe the overall setting and culture related to teaching and scholarship. All three are effective quantitative studies that go farther than most studies to describe the overall context of these institutions, but to provide a full, rich description, a more qualitative approach will be important.

The institutional context is an important consideration in determining perceptions academics have of teaching, scholarship, and other important contextual variables in this area, yet many researchers fail to properly place their studies within a well-defined institutional context. Relatively few of the studies in the literature specifically address the
type of institution faculty and administrators in the study work at, either from a predominantly research/teaching perspective or using Carnegie’s classifications. Braxton et al. (2002, 2006), O’Meara (2006), and Williams and Rhodes (2002) have all done a fine job of addressing this, and others have worked to provide this detail as well, but the vast majority of studies in the literature seem to ignore the institutional context, assume that the reader will know what type of institution the participants came from, or regard the institutional context as unnecessary. It may be understandable for quantitative studies to ignore context since the goal is, generally, to identify specific variables and their effects. It is surprising, however, that many qualitative studies fall into the same trap. This may be due to an interest in making findings as generalizable as possible, but it is more important for researchers to provide rich, thick descriptions when working in the qualitative paradigm. Regardless of the research approach, identifying the context in full will ultimately provide the kind of results useful and applicable for future research and university application.

Despite the general absence of institutional context variables used in quantitative studies on academics’ conceptions of teaching, scholarship, and culture, a few studies have addressed the context or at least identified the context where the study took place. Braxton at al. (2006) surveyed faculty from three university types based on Carnegie’s classifications and went farther to situate those faculty within their discipline to provide depth of context. The researchers used the Faculty Professional Performance Survey to measure faculty perceptions of Boyer’s four scholarship domains and the institution’s commitment to those domains. Like O’Meara’s (2006) study, the results were categorized by institution type and the researchers provided very specific suggestions to faculty and
administrators at each of the institution types. Buzza (1990) studied faculty at specific small institutions that would call themselves “teaching institutions” to measure faculty and administrator perceptions of the expectations placed on them to publish. The results pointed out the disparity between the pressure faculty feel to publish and their desire to be teachers, as well as further differences between faculty and administrator perceptions of scholarship. Finally, Lindblom-Ylanne et al. (2006) clearly describe the orientation of three universities that participated in their study on academic discipline and its relation to faculty approach to teaching, citing that all three were research-extensive universities. This identification adds more depth to the study and a pattern for others to follow future studies. In addition to these studies, others have done similar research at the community college level (Lenthe, 2006; Padovan & Whittington, 1998), and still others have studied multiple universities to compare teaching and research institutions (O'Meara, 2006; Tang & Chamberlain, 1997; K. F. Williams & Rhodes, 2002). It is interesting that, in many of these studies, a faculty member’s academic discipline also played an important factor, which seems to suggest that those who believe discipline is an important variable will also expand their view to institution type, also.

Not all of the studies that specifically identify institutional context are quantitative, and this is not surprising because of the nature of the qualitative paradigm and its focus on description and context. Many of the qualitative studies that do identify context refer to the research or teaching focus of the institution. For example, Becker and Andrews (2004), Elen (2007), Huber (2001, 2004), and Quinlan (2002) all address research or research-extensive universities, looking teaching approaches and general faculty perceptions of teaching and scholarship within universities that are research-
focused. Becker and Andrews and Huber do it, for the most part, to highlight the good work faculty are doing at research universities in teaching and the scholarship of teaching and learning. Elen and Quinlan, on the other hand, use institutional context to situate faculty conceptions and perceptions of teaching and scholarship. Sommers (2004) and Weis (1985) both provide descriptions of qualitative studies that address the community college level, and Bodenhorn (1997), Major and Palmer (2006), and Peters and Mayfield (1982) exemplify the studies done on faculty perceptions within a teaching institution context. Finally, a few studies, including research by Cottrell and Jones (2003), Raubenheimer (2004), and Young (2006) combine research and teaching institutions within their studies in order to compare faculty perceptions in different contexts. What all of these authors do is clearly describe the type of institution in order to provide the reader with a complete description for further interpretation. It is surprising that many other qualitative studies do not do the same.

The Teaching University

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching has given higher education an excellent framework for identification and comparison of universities in its classification system for institutions of higher education. In 1973, the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education published a set of classifications to enable the comparison of institutions in research studies on higher education. Four main institutional types (Table 2), including Doctoral-Granting, Comprehensive, Liberal Arts, and Two-Year institutions, were identified, and these were classified based on type of degrees granted (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1973). While the initial intent of the
classifications was for research in higher education, they became an avenue for institutions to compare themselves with others (McCormick, 2005). Top universities were identified as Research I universities due to the doctoral programs they offered and their heavy emphasis on research, and the rest of the institutions of higher education were forced to embrace their classification or seek to move up the ladder. This only furthered the notion that high quality institutions focused on research while two-year and liberal arts institutions emphasized teaching to the detriment of their ranking. The classifications, while effective for their intended purpose, had become a ranking system that persists to this day.

Table 2

*Main 1973 Carnegie Classifications*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Classifications</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral-Granting Institutions</td>
<td>Research Universities I</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Research Universities II</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctoral Universities I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctoral Universities II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehensive Universities and Colleges</td>
<td>Comprehensive Universities and Colleges I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehensive Universities and Colleges II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberal Arts Colleges</td>
<td>Liberal Arts Colleges I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liberal Arts Colleges II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-Year Colleges and Institutes</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Between 1973 and the present, the Carnegie Foundation revised the classification system five times, most recently in 2005, in order to make the system more flexible and robust, as well as to incorporate new institution types (McCormick & Zhao, 2005). The most recent revision occurred in 2005, and in this version, the basic classification labels were expanded into many more categories using more complex institutional data. The central focus of the system, however, has remained. It continues to identify institutions according to their degree types and scholarship foci. While it is clear these classifications provided an effective description of the type of work that occurred at identified institutions, differences exist even between universities that share the same classification, and faculty at classified institutions may vary in their specific research or teaching perceptions (Wisniewski, 1984). This disparity of focus within classifications is often due to faculty and administrator perceptions, scholarship expectations, and reward structures of each of the university types.

Despite the emphasis on research built into the Carnegie classifications, many institutions have embraced their teaching focus as a core part of the mission of the college or university. Community colleges, for example, are proud to be teaching-centric, since this fits with their unique mission (Boyer, 1990; Padovan & Whittington, 1998). Four-year, liberal arts institutions may struggle more with the pull to move through the rankings of the classification system, but most are “unapologetically teaching-focused” (Mallard & Atkins, 2004, p. 373), continually emphasizing teaching as a primary component of their work. Faculty at these institutions value teaching as core to who they are (De Simone, 2001) and do not consider it a “distraction from their real work of research” (Brown & McCartney, 1998, p. 127). It is teaching that gives these institutions
their identity and special focus. There have been many studies recently, however, that address faculty perception that teaching is still not valued highly, including at teaching institutions (Asmar, 2002; Ballantyne et al., 1999; Hardy & Smith, 2006; Nicholls, 2005; Young, 2006). In 1982, a study by Peters and Mayfield noted that faculty had high regard for teaching but were a part of an institution with policies and procedures that ignored that regard. Young recently studied lecturers in the social policy field at teaching institutions and found that, in spite of recent movement toward scholarship that fits institutional mission and the scholarship of teaching and learning, participants believed teaching had low status and tenure and promotion continued to be research-focused. It is clear that some universities are embracing their teaching role, but work still needs to be done to ensure that institutions value teaching as teachers do.

The difference in focus between research and teaching universities ultimately parallels the difference in institutional mission, and it is important that institutions identify their own research/teaching mix based on that mission (Menon, 2003). Most institutions at this level have research expectations of their faculty, but these expectations do not rise to the level of Research I or Research II institutions that focus solely on research productivity as success. A 1991 study by Kasper et al. (Bodenhorn, 1997) found that liberal arts faculty, for example, conducted research, but their research was published in applied journals instead of the more technical or theoretical journals their Research I counterparts published in. Some authors, in fact, have called for institutions in classifications to embrace their mission by emphasizing research studies and approaches that highlight their focus. Boyer (1990), in describing his distributed model of scholarship, called for universities and colleges within each classification level to focus
on areas of scholarship that make sense for their institutional type. Braxton et al. (2002, 2006) and O’Meara (2006) have taken Boyer’s work to the next level by identifying the perceived focus faculty had on the four scholarship paradigms, making recommendations for the type of scholarship institutions within each level should focus on. These studies make clear that each institution type has the potential to fulfill very different, but needed, roles in the higher education realm, and they highlight the importance of connecting institutional mission to the scholarly focus and productivity of its faculty.

A Distributed Scholarship Model

The long running discussion over research and teaching continues to be debated despite the many institutions that have become more “comfortable” in their identity as a research or teaching institution. While there have been many calls in recent years to reconcile research and teaching by embracing a broader definition of scholarship, research is still the dominant form of scholarship required in higher education (C. L. Colbeck & Wharton-Michael, 2006b). It has overtaken the time, attention, and concern of faculty, as well as the reward structures of universities. Scholarship in higher education has had a history of change and development since the first American college was formed during the 17th century (Boyer, 1990). The initial role of a professor was to focus on the education and inspiration of students, but changes in society and the influence of German university systems, with their “emphasis on the discipline rather than the education of young people” (Bergquist, 1992, p. 23), brought new emphases for the scholar. Through these influences, service and research were added to teaching, forming the “traditional triad” of a faculty scholar (Stull & Lantz, 2005, p. 493). While universities initially
valued each of the components, research soon overtook the primarily undergraduate focus of the colonial colleges, and the general focus moved “from the student to the professoriate, from general to specialized education, and from loyalty to the campus to loyalty to the profession” (p. 13).

During the twentieth century, research became the “first and most essential” form of a scholar’s activity (Boyer, 1990, p. 15). The scholar became one who sought knowledge for knowledge’s sake (Hathaway, 1996) and produced original research, through basic scientific principles, that would add to the growing body of scholarly literature (White & McBeth, 2003). “Publish or perish” became the motto, and even in teaching institutions, professors faced pressure to produce knowledge that could be recognized and rewarded (Johnston, 1997; McCaughey, 1994). The “research as scholarship” model persisted throughout the twentieth century, and it is still alive today.

There has risen a new model of scholarship, however, that addresses the disproportionate emphasis on research above teaching and service (Trigwell & Shale, 2004). Boyer called for a “revitalized” (Stull & Lantz, 2005, p. 493) approach to academic scholarship. As he wrote, “We must move beyond the tired old ‘teaching versus research’ debate and give the familiar and honorable term ‘scholarship’ a broader, more capacious meaning” (Boyer, 1990, p. 16). His main intent in introducing a new scholarship model was to honor the important work of discovery research in the life of the scholar while, at the same time, clarify the interdependent nature of all faculty responsibilities. Boyer’s model expanded scholarship into four distinct, yet overlapping, areas: the scholarship of discovery, the scholarship of integration, the scholarship of application, and the scholarship of teaching (Trigwell & Shale). Whereas the “modern”
form of scholarship focused on the scholarship of discovery within the framework of original scientific research (White & McBeth, 2003), Boyer introduced a postmodern scholarship that is “interdisciplinary in scope and constructs ‘linkages’ between the disciplines, scholars, research, field praxis, and teaching” (p. 771).

One of the benefits of Boyer’s model is its inclusive nature (Stull & Lantz, 2005), making it possible for all faculty to engage in scholarship throughout their careers (Rothstein, 2004). Boyer’s model allows for the individualization of scholarly activities (Stull & Lantz). The scholarship of discovery continues the traditional focus on producing knowledge and the role it plays in scholarly work (Hathaway, 1996). His model, however, recognizes the equally important work of connecting disciplines through interpretation of original research (integration), connecting theory and practice together (application), and communicating the knowledge from all three of these forms to students (teaching). Each form of scholarship is distinct, yet each is influenced by, and has considerable influence on, the others (Boyer, 1990; E. A. Rice, 1992).

Lee S. Shulman (1999), the current president of The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, a group dedicated to the improvement of teaching and learning and a leading proponent of the scholarship of teaching, defined “scholarship” this way:

An act of intelligence or of artistic creation becomes scholarship when it possesses at least three attributes: it becomes public; it becomes an object of critical review and evaluation by members of one’s community; and members of one’s community begin to use, build upon, and develop those acts of mind and creation. (¶38)

Trigwell and Shale (2004), Richlin (2001), and others (Kreber, 2001; R. E. Rice, 1996; Richlin, 2001; Weston & McAlpine, 2001) have echoed Shulman’s definition, noting the
importance of scholars “making scholarly processes transparent and publicly available for peer scrutiny” (Trigwell & Shale, p. 525). This definition can be applied to all four of Boyer’s (1990) domains of scholarship. Just as research is a public enterprise that “opens the possibilities of a community of discourse” (R. E. Rice, p. 13), and is rewarded, recognized, and evaluated by others, the other forms of scholarship (integration, application, and teaching) should also be public ventures that offer the same chance for discourse and “held to the same standards” (Glassick, Taylor Huber, & Maeroff, 1997, p. 22), with the ultimate goal of significant additions to the field. Diamond offered a list of criteria for scholarly work that is useful here: “the work requires a high level of discipline-related expertise, breaks new ground or is innovative, can be replicated or elaborated, can be documented, can be peer-reviewed, and finally, it is of significance or has impact” (Kreber & Cranton, 2000, p. 489). This type of scholarly work, Boyer pointed out, is what has been missing from the research, teaching, and service model and is the goal of the new form of scholarship he proposed.

The Scholarship of Teaching

While the debate between research and teaching continues in higher education, it is the fourth domain, the scholarship of teaching, that has allowed for the integration of the two. The scholarship of teaching connects all scholarship, including research and teaching, through the common thread of knowledge creation (Hutchings & Shulman, 1999; Trigwell & Shale, 2004). It is about inquiry, or research, into the problems and challenges faculty face in the classroom. Like action research (Zuber-Skerritt, 1997), it is problem-based and results in improvement of teaching and student learning. Standard
definitions for the scholarship of teaching, however, point to the need to go farther than improvement of practice: the findings must be shared with others as research would be (Kreber, 2001). As Hutchings & Shulman made clear, this form of scholarship, requires a kind of ‘going meta,’ in which faculty frame and systematically investigate questions related to student learning . . . and do so with an eye not only to improving their own classroom but to advancing practice beyond it. (p. 12)

The overall goal is the improvement of student learning, faculty practice, and, ultimately, the status of teaching in higher education.

The most fundamental component of the scholarship of teaching is this idea of making teaching public (Hatch, 2006; Hatch, Bass, Iiyoshi, & Mace, 2004; Kreber, 2001; R. E. Rice, 1996; Shulman, 2000; Weston & McAlpine, 2001). In saying that “the work of the professor becomes consequential only when it is understood by others” (1990, p. 23), Boyer argues not only that students should understand, but that the scholarly community should have the same opportunity (Shulman). The scholarship of teaching, then, is about ending the “pedagogical solitude” (Shulman, 1993) that teaching has become. It is about sharing knowledge with the community and allowing that knowledge to be connected, integrated, and advanced by others (Kreber).

Boyer connects faculty on both sides of the teaching versus research debate through the common thread of knowledge creation (Trigwell & Shale, 2004, p. 524).

There are often inconsistencies in the way faculty approach teaching and research. Bass (1999), for example, stated,

In scholarship and research, having a problem is at the heart of the investigative process; it is the compound of the generative questions around which all creative and productive activity revolves. But in one’s teaching, a ‘problem’ is something you don’t want to have, and if you have one, you probably want to fix it. (p. 1)
The scholarship of teaching, he said, finds its roots in moving from the remediation of a teaching problem to the embracing of the problem through inquiry. Also, research is not over when a discovery or connection is made; it must also be summarized, peer reviewed, and published. Faculty, however, approach teaching by placing the “design, interactions, assessments of how the students did, and reflections of how it worked” (Shulman, 2000, p. 8) in a file cabinet, left either for future iterations of the course or for their future place in the recycle bin. It is precisely these inconsistencies that justify the need for teaching to be viewed as an act of scholarship.

Rice (1992) outlined three basic elements of the scholarship of teaching: “synoptic capacity,” or content knowledge, “what we know about learning,” or pedagogy, and “pedagogical content knowledge” (p. 125) which represents, as Ronkowski (1993) noted, the interaction of content knowledge and learning. It is clear that faculty should be steeped in the knowledge of their field, which provides some justification for the research-focused scholarship evident in higher education today. It must not end there, however. An understanding of pedagogy, or how people learn, is critically important as well. Going further, Shulman’s work in the area of pedagogical content knowledge provides the credibility teaching needs to be considered an act of scholarship (Theall & Centra, 2001). It is critical to the future of the field that a faculty member be able to take their knowledge of content and develop “pedagogically powerful” (Shulman, 1987, p. 5) connections that students, from all backgrounds and ability levels, can understand and build upon (Shulman, 2000). Teaching is, ultimately, a “dynamic endeavor involving all the analogies, metaphors, and images that build bridges between the teacher’s
understanding and the student’s learning” (Boyer, 1990, p. 23). Teachers, therefore, must be able to go beyond content knowledge to understand how that content can “become understood, the ways it can be misunderstood” and “what counts as understanding” (Laurillard, 1993, p. 6).

While the scholarship of teaching is a welcome recognition of the important work of teaching in higher education, Boyer did not provide complete guidance for what the scholarship of teaching should look like (Reed, 2003; Trigwell & Shale, 2004). This has left some confusion over whether Boyer was advocating a scholarship that went beyond excellent teaching founded on scholarly work (Hutchings & Shulman, 1999). This confusion has been further compounded by the use of the terms “scholarly teaching” and “scholarship of teaching” interchangeably throughout the literature. Faculty should be excellent, scholarly teachers, whether they are involved in the scholarship of teaching or not. The scholarship of teaching, however, is a process all teachers in higher education should engage in.

Richlin (2001) and others have offered clear definitions of each of the confusing terms. Excellent teaching is any teaching that meets the goal of helping students learn (Hutchings & Shulman, 1999; Kreber, 2002b; R. Smith, 2001a; Trigwell & Shale, 2004). This is a critical point, since it is commonly assumed that excellent teaching has something to do with what the teacher does (Hatch et al., 2004; Nicholls, 2000; Ramsden, 2003). Effectiveness, however, does not guarantee that a teacher is well-versed in content knowledge, the literature, pedagogy, or learning theories that support student learning. Faculty who use findings from these sources can be considered “scholarly” teachers, but that may or may not make them “excellent” (R. Smith). Even though they do not reach
the scholarship of teaching level, both excellent teachers and scholarly teachers are still desirable and are not consistently found in higher education. Administrators and students would undoubtedly be thrilled if the goal of faculty development ended at faculty becoming scholarly teachers. It is, however, the scholarship of teaching that elevates teaching to a level equal with traditional research.

Through the scholarship of teaching, Boyer (1990) proposes that teaching knowledge is built through inquiry, is community property, is open to critique, and is in a form easily built upon by others (Kreber, 2002b; Kreber & Cranton, 2000; R. Smith, 2001a). Hutchings and Shulman (1999) noted that the scholarship of teaching is found where the scholarships of discovery, integration, and application intersect. While it is modeled closely after the scholarship of discovery, it is ultimately applied research that begins with a problem, involves collecting data to solve the problem, and values the reporting of findings for others to learn from (Zuber-Skerritt, 1997). This form of scholarship,

requires a kind of ‘going meta,’ in which faculty frame and systematically investigate questions related to student learning . . . and do so with an eye not only to improving their own classroom but to advancing practice beyond it. (Hutchings & Shulman, p. 12)

In the end, faculty who engage in this process will transform their teaching, enhance student learning, and raise the overall value of teaching as a form of scholarship in higher education.

Perceptions and Conceptions of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning

One of the ways that researchers have attempted to study academics’ perceptions of institutional culture is through the perspectives faculty have on scholarship and the
relationship between scholarship and teaching. Many studies have focused on faculty views of scholarship and the rewards for scholarship within institutions. Elen (2007), Menon (2003), and Tang and Chamberlain (1997) focused their studies on the research or teaching orientation of faculty and looked at faculty perspectives of the relationship between research and teaching. Elen and Menon concluded that faculty perceptions of scholarship included concerns and issues related to the institutional context, while Tang and Chamberlain’s work highlighted a disparity between faculty and administrator perceptions. Studies of the perceptions faculty have of rewards and support for teaching and research have also been important in identifying the culture of teaching and scholarship in institutions (Brawer et al., 2006; Buzza, 1990; A. Palmer & Collins, 2006; Peters & Mayfield, 1982; Tang & Chamberlain; Young, 2006). These studies seem to indicate, first of all, that faculty members continue to be concerned about the low status teaching is given as compared to research. Secondly, the literature points to a general sense that most faculty feel teaching is their primary interest and reason for entering the profession, but the lack of support for teaching continues to cause concern. There is also a disconnect between administrators and faculty in this area, with administrators providing a much more positive assessment of the status of teaching and the rewards for scholarship (Brawer et al.; Padovan & Whittington, 1998; Tang & Chamberlain). Each of these concerns suggests a problem in the broader culture of the university that could have possible dramatic influence on faculty work and focus.

As Boyer (1990) noted in his seminal work on new scholarship definitions for faculty in higher education, the scholarship of teaching is one place where the relationship between research and teaching is solidified. Studies on the scholarship of
teaching, or the scholarship of teaching and learning as it has become known in recent years, can be placed into two basic categories: studies that address how faculty approach the scholarship of teaching (Huber, 2006; Koch et al., 2002; Kreber et al., 2005; Lueddeke, 2003; Major & Palmer, 2006; Peel, 2005; Sommers, 2004), and studies of faculty conceptions and perceptions of the scholarship of teaching (Braxton et al., 2002, 2006; Kreber, 1999, 2002a; Lueddeke; Trigwell et al., 2000). The former category focuses primarily on case studies that describe how individual faculty members, or groups of faculty, are applying the concepts of the scholarship of teaching to the study of their own teaching or curriculum design. The latter category, on the other hand, includes studies that explore how faculty members perceive this form of scholarship. Kreber noted that in order for faculty to fully understand and have appropriate conceptions of the scholarship of teaching, they must first understand their conception of teaching in general. This provides justification for the connection of scholarship perceptions of faculty to their conceptions and approaches to teaching and elevates both in importance.

The perceptions faculty have of the scholarship of teaching have been addressed in the literature in recent days by researchers using diverse approaches and foci. Braxton et al. studied the value faculty at three different types of colleges and universities placed on the four domains of scholarship, including the scholarship of discovery, application, integration, and teaching. Faculty members were invited to identify the value placed on these scholarship domains from their own perspective and from the perspective of the department and university as well. Their work was significant in a few key ways. First, the study affirmed the sense faculty had that research was valued more than teaching, even at teaching institutions, since the only domain that was fully incorporated into
institutions was the scholarship of discovery. Second, the study showed that faculty place high value on the scholarship of discovery (research) despite their interest in identifying themselves as teachers, which may point to the expectations of the institution for faculty to be involved in research. Third, Braxton et al. (2002, 2006) argue that institutions interested in improving the scholarly work of their faculty and supporting that work with policies and rewards need to conduct audits to gauge faculty perceptions within the specific institution. Finally, the study affirmed the need for scholarly work within specific institutional contexts because of the differences that were demonstrated between contexts.

While it is important to study the extent to which faculty value certain scholarship forms, a more foundational, and possibly more helpful, focus is on the conceptions that faculty members have of scholarship and the scholarship of teaching and learning (SOTL). To provide a baseline for this discussion, Kreber (2002a) conducted a Delphi study using experts on the scholarship of teaching and learning to identify the areas where those knowledgeable in the application of the SOTL had found consensus and where controversy still lingered. One of the key findings of this study relates to conceptions of the SOTL. For example, it was clear that the experts felt that “Faculty need to be educated in how to think of teaching as scholarship” (p. 163), which points to the concern that faculty do not have a clear sense of what the SOTL is or how it should be conceived. There is clearly a need for professional development in this area, yet Kreber cautions that faculty conceptions of teaching and learning may need to be studied before these development opportunities are offered. As she noted, faculty who have a transmission-based/teaching-centered focus will not, for example, know why they need
to spend time studying and reflecting on their teaching. The study, in general, points to the need for faculty to identify both conceptions of teaching and learning and their conceptions of the scholarship of teaching and learning.

Kreber’s (2002a) study referred to Trigwell et al.’s (2000) description of the conceptions faculty have of the scholarship of teaching, and this is a useful model for studies in this area. The description itself exists as a finding of a phenomenographic study the researchers conducted with 20 faculty members representing multiple disciplines at one university. In a similar fashion to Prosser and Trigwell’s (1999) work on the approaches and conceptions of teaching, Trigwell et al. asked the participants to describe the scholarship of teaching within specific contexts, and the outcome was a multi-dimensional model of this scholarship. The five categories of this model describe a continuum of understanding about the scholarship of teaching and are related to conceptions of teaching. The five categories are:

A. The scholarship of teaching is about knowing the literature on teaching by collecting and reading that literature.
B. Scholarship of teaching is about improving teaching by collecting and reading the literature on teaching.
C. Scholarship of teaching is about improving student learning by investigating the learning of one’s own students and one’s own teaching.
D. Scholarship of teaching is about improving one’s own students’ learning by knowing and relating the literature on teaching and learning to discipline-specific literature and knowledge.
E. The scholarship of teaching is about improving student learning within the discipline generally, by collecting and communicating results of one’s own work on teaching and learning within the discipline. (Trigwell et al., p. 159)

Trigwell et al. highlight the shift in focus that occurs between the second and third categories: where the first two relate to a teaching-focused approach, the last three are student-focused, with the last category being the deepest expression of the scholarship of
teaching as it is seen in the literature. From these categories, the authors have proposed four dimensions of the scholarship of teaching to consider, including:

- Being informed about the literature and/or knowledge of teaching and learning in a discipline; focusing on student learning and on teaching, rather than mainly on teaching alone; reflection on the literature, one’s own context and the relations between the two; and communication. (pp. 162-163)

In these dimensions, the authors have easily related their model to the leading definitions of the scholarship of teaching as outlined in the literature (Boyer, 1990; Hutchings & Shulman, 1999; Shulman, 1999), and they have provided an effective model for other researchers to use as they attempt to measure faculty conceptions of this important scholarship domain.

University Culture

Every institution has a culture: a set of beliefs, values, and knowledge that is shared among participants within the institution. This culture, or ethos (Wisniewski, 1984), has a tremendous, and often underestimated, effect on the behaviors of the members of that institution (Levin, 2006). Faculty, for example, do not work in a vacuum, but teach within specific institutional contexts that have a direct influence on how they conduct themselves (Ballet, Keichtermans, & Loughran, 2006; Nicholls, 2005).

Clark (1983) highlighted the existence of a university culture, but also divided that culture into subcultures, including the faculty subculture, full of cultural norms, symbols, and expectations. As Wisniewski pointed out, however, “the norms of the total university culture dominate those of each unit in that structure” (p. 6). Therefore, in order to understand faculty perceptions and behaviors, both the individual perspectives and the departmental, divisional, and institutional norms must be taken into consideration.
(Stodolsky & Grossman, 1996). This also means that changes in individual practice will not be entirely effective without change in the institutional culture (Asmar, 2002). Administrators in control of policy and institutional structures generally have a significant influence on cultural norms, but each individual administrator is also influenced as faculty are by the overall ethos of the institution (Asmar; Gordon, 2002; Middlehurst, 1993). The culture, then, should not be underestimated, as it is a significant determinant of the current structures of the university, as well as the future work and practice of the members of the institution.

The culture in higher education institutions has traditionally been collegial, an environment where faculty autonomy and authority through academic freedom is valued (Rice, 2002, as cited in Reed, 2003). Ramsden (2004) highlighted the fact that collegiality is “closely related to ideas of individual academic freedom, disciplines as frames of reference, separation from external pressures, conservation of special knowledge, and academic professionalism” (p. 23). Faculty members have, for the most part, been trusted to do their work autonomously, with little input into their daily activities or mandates to meet specific expectations once they received the authority of tenure. Institutions have relied on peer review for promotion and tenure decisions, and administrators have mostly used the teaching, research, and service scholarship model to define faculty work and future goals, leaving the daily life of faculty fragmented and without continuity (Cranton & Kreber, 2000). Universities and colleges are generally divided along “robust” (Asmar, 2002, p. 21) disciplinary boundaries, where faculty pursue their own work within the confines of the department or division (Cranton & Carusetta, 2002; P. Palmer, 1998). Occasionally, faculty will collaborate with others
within their discipline, but these types of collaborations are rare. Most often, the life of a faculty member is privatized: isolated to those aspects of the work they find most interesting or beneficial (Brookfield, 1995; Cranton & Carusetta; P. Palmer). All of this is due to academic freedom and the continued value faculty members place on the collegial culture that, in turn, values autonomy and authority within the higher education environment (Ramsden; Rice, 2002, as cited in Reed).

Despite the high value members of academia place on a collegial environment, institutions of higher education face increased pressure to adapt to a more managerial culture that is, in many respects, in sharp conflict to the traditional academic culture (R. E. Rice, 2002). This pressure manifests itself in a host of ways. First, there has been a strong movement towards universal, or mass (Brew, 2003; Gordon, 2002; Ramsden, 2004), higher education (Kezar, 2001). Access to institutions are not limited to the elite anymore (Barrington, 2004), and higher education is seen as a benefit and a right for all people. Where previous generations of students were focused on graduating high school and beginning a work career, a college diploma is now required for many of the jobs these students seek, and graduating college has become the gateway to a better life.

Universal education has also led to a second major trend: increased diversity in the student population (Barrington; Cross, 2001; Kezar; Pool, 1997; Schaller & Callison, 1996; Strasser & Seplocha, 2005). As campuses become more diverse, administrators and faculty will need to address the increasingly diverse learning needs of their students.

Overall, the move to increase access to higher education has resulted in increased competition and the need for high quality education to draw top students (Gordon). Twenty years ago, “United States campuses were already spending more on fundraising,
advertising and public relations than on teaching, libraries and financial aid” (Brenner, 2006, p. 4), and this trend has continued. Competition also means that students often pursue higher education with a consumer viewpoint, choosing a school that can best meet their needs and offer the right price, resources, and support to complete the degree. This requires universities to move away from a more traditional academic culture where the faculty member is the focus to a culture that values the student as a consumer and customer.

One of the consequences of a consumer orientation is the increased calls for accountability in higher education, including parents, students, and the government (Cross, 2001; Gordon, 2002; Kezar, 2001; A. Palmer & Collins, 2006; Travis, 1996) interested in ensuring quality student learning (Barrington, 2004; Stage et al., 1998). Parents have shifted from viewing higher education as a privilege to a view that a college education is an unalienable right for their student. Parents and students approach higher education institutions with a consumer mentality, demanding high quality services for the money they are paying (Ramsden, 2004; Rice, 2002, as cited in Reed, 2003). Legislators and government officials around the world are calling for colleges and universities to be held accountable to government requirements and are seeking to improve educational outcomes through the addition of standards (Gordon). In the UK and throughout the world, agencies and government officials are emphasizing the importance of teaching and teaching improvement in higher education and desire to hold academics accountable for their teaching ability and their pursuit of teaching improvement (Nicholls, 2005).

Due to the increased diversity, competition, and accountability in the higher education market, universities must move from the collegial to the managerial culture,
and many universities are moving this direction. As D. Smith, Scott, Bocock, and Bargh (1999) noted, “Earlier charismatic or collegial models of universal leadership have been replaced by a new model which emphasizes managerial skills that are both bureaucratic and entrepreneurial” (p. 284). Administrators understand the need to incorporate more business-like principles into their daily work, and sense the need to manage the work of those who work for the university, including the faculty (Gordon, 2002). This is evidenced in the increased emphasis by administrators on collaboration, “evidence and managerial scrutiny,” and student-focused decision-making (Rice, 2002, as cited in Reed, 2003, p. 74). In fact, the managerial culture has moved the “academic professionals to the margins in central decision-making” (Levin, 2006, p.64). Faculty used to a traditional academic culture and academic freedom are naturally challenging this shift from a collegial to a managerial culture due to the increasing accountability, the encroaching demands of administrators for high productivity, and the perceived loss of freedom to work, teach, and live the way they have in the past (Gordon; Levin; Reed; D. Smith et al.).

Levin (2006) conducted a case study on seven community colleges from three U.S. states and two Canadian provinces to explore the influence of a managerial culture on college faculty, including studying faculty perception and conflict between the collegial and the managerial. He found that all seven colleges had made the shift to a managerial culture, but that faculty continued to value the traditional collegial environment of the past. Faculty had, indeed, been pushed to the periphery in decision-making, meaning that faculty goals were largely unmet while institutional goals and economic plans took priority. While this study was conducted at the community college
level, it is clear that universities throughout the world have shifted to a market-oriented, high productivity culture, adapting to the increase external pressures in spite of the traditional perspectives of faculty who value the collegial culture that had been the hallmark of higher education for years.

While the clash of collegial and managerial cultures has been a significant trend in higher education, one of the most influential aspects of the academic culture has been the focus on research, teaching, and scholarship. While the public would identify teaching as the primary task of the academic, and many professors would identify themselves as teachers (Boyer, 1990; Peters & Mayfield, 1982), the scholarly culture of higher education institutions, in general, places more emphasis on research and publishing (Braxton et al., 2002; C. L. Colbeck & Wharton-Michael, 2006b; Young, 2006), which has caused tensions among faculty and administrators. With the most recent calls for accountability in quality teaching, this tension continues to grow, even at institutions that are primarily teaching, not research, focused. Many studies have been conducted regarding the teaching versus research debate (Menon, 2003), and it is clear that the tension is real and continues even as the twentieth anniversary of Boyer’s distributed scholarship model draws near (McInnis, 2000). There is some positive work being done in this area, with recent studies highlighting the compatibility of research and teaching as integrative elements in scholarship rather than as opposing approaches to scholarship (Brew, 1999, 2003; Brown & McCartney, 1998; C. Colbeck, 1998; Gottlieb & Keith, 1997; Neumann, 1993). Other studies have pointed out a clear desire for many faculty in higher education to keep teaching as their primary role and responsibility (Boyer; Ramsden, 2004), and in many studies, high percentages of faculty surveyed
expressed their belief that teaching should be more highly regarded and rewarded (Boyer; Menon; Ramsden & Moses, 1992). It is clear that tension remains strong between two competing approaches to the culture of scholarship at higher education institutions. Any institution’s scholarly culture, then, is dependent on the type of institution, the culture of scholarship evident in the past, and the work faculty and administrators can do to come to a consensus on what scholarship is and what it should look like within that specific institution.

Institutional Commitment to Teaching and Scholarship

Academic culture can be manifested in varied ways depending on the institution, but there are some key markers that, when evaluated, identify the values, beliefs, and shared knowledge of a group of people in higher education. One of the indicators is time spent on various activities. Faculty members and administrators spend their time doing what they value and what matches their beliefs. At research institutions, faculty often spend their time in research and rely on teaching assistants to teach their classes, whereas faculty at primarily teaching institutions often spend their time on teaching and conduct research as they have free time in their schedule (Brookfield, 2000). Generally, administrator values and beliefs are evident in the policies that govern faculty work and life. Requirements for reporting scholarship, for example, clearly identify whether administrators see research as priority or whether they subscribe to a more distributed scholarship model. Reward structures also tell a lot about culture and are clear examples of the culture in action. Administrators will award and reward faculty for behaviors that match their perception of quality academic work. Ultimately, administrators drive faculty
behavior as they develop and implement the reward structures faculty use (Brenner, 2006; Brookfield; De Simone, 2001; Nicholls, 2005; Young, 2006). These rewards, in turn, motivate faculty to spend time in the rewarded areas, making the rewards themselves both indicators of the culture and key reasons why the culture is as it is.

The mission and identity of an institution certainly influences scholarly culture (Menon, 2003), but culture is also influenced by the perceptions of its faculty and administrators. When administrators emphasize aspects of scholarship in the policies, procedures, and reward structures of the institution, they are infusing their own perspectives of what is important scholarly work. These policies may not completely reflect administrators’ actual perceptions, however, since decisions must often be made separate from personal ideals. It also may not be possible to identify faculty perceptions of scholarship through the work they produce, since reward structures dictate the type of work rewarded, and therefore, valued (Brookfield, 2000). Menon wrote, “the investigation and the understanding of the attitudes and perceptions of academics on this matter will enable universities to arrive at more informed planning and policy decisions” (p. 40). Without going beyond the cultural artifacts and norms of an institution to understand the perceptions faculty and administrators have of research and teaching, therefore, it is impossible to fully understand, and potentially change, that culture.

The system of rewards and awards given to faculty for scholarship is the key marker of the scholarly culture at an institution. Tenure and promotion are the primary rewards in higher education that are based, in part, on scholarship and teaching effectiveness, but other rewards and awards are given, including recognition in annual programs, monetary awards, release time, faculty presentations, and stipends (Boyer,
Despite the amount of possible rewards, however, administrators generally reward scholarship, not teaching (Nicholls, 2001; Young, 2006). One of the challenges with rewarding faculty behavior is the difficulty administrators have identifying criteria for the various activities faculty engage in. Research productivity can easily be measured by counting the amount of published materials and presentations the faculty member has completed over a period of time (Wisniewski, 1984; Young). Identifying effective teaching and rewarding successes in teaching is more difficult (A. Palmer & Collins, 2006; Ramsden & Martin, 1996). As A. Palmer and Collins noted, “80/90% of what produces effective student learning is unseen” (p. 198). Those who are effective teachers may be awarded with teaching prizes and recognition, but spending time in teaching does not generally equate to higher salary, promotion, tenure, or release time (A. Palmer & Collins). These rewards are often reserved for those who are successful in their scholarly pursuits (Young). To go further, faculty members interested in improving their teaching must often make a conscious choice to pursue teaching to the detriment of salary, rewards, and promotion/tenure (Asmar, 2002; Ballantyne et al., 1999; Boyer; Young). Sykes (1990) went so far as to accuse those in higher education of being actively hostile towards teaching, an apt description of some administrators and faculty. Despite the inconsistency and inequality evident in how institutions award faculty work in various areas, rewards are used to encourage teaching and scholarly pursuits, and these rewards form the norms of the institution and its culture.

While rewards are commonly used to encourage scholarship and effective teaching in higher education, it is not clear that this is the most effective way to motivate faculty to pursue such work. Young (2006) argued that “the consensus that teaching is
under-valued in universities is matched by a consensus that the best way to improve teaching would be through rewards” (p. 198). Brookfield (2000) addressed this consensus when he stated, simply, “Reward systems drive faculty behavior” (p. 131). There is clearly a consensus, but the idea that rewards are the most effective way to motivate is not shared by all. Brenner (2006), in discussing the administrator’s perspective on helping faculty teach better, called rewards a “manipulation” tactic, not a genuine motivational tool. He highlighted a host of studies that indicated the negative effect traditional rewards like tenure and promotion have on teaching effectiveness. These negative effects include diminished work quality (Brennan, 1997), an unwillingness to try new approaches to teaching (Armstrong, Beauchamp, McNew, & Molesworth, 1993), and a temptation to do only what is required (Terenzini, 1993). Yet, despite the potential effects of the reward system, administrators will continue to use rewards as primary motivation for faculty to engage in scholarly work, and faculty will continue to do what is expected of them, especially in the case of tenure and promotion decisions.

It is clear that the primary motivation for faculty to engage in activities that improve their teaching and further their scholarship is the reward structure of the institution, but there are other motivation factors that, if considered by administrators, might help faculty engage in scholarly pursuits. Colbeck and Wharton-Michael (2006a) recently used Ford’s Motivational Systems Theory (MST) as a basis for describing faculty motivation to engage in academic work and improvement. According to MST, an individual’s motivation is determined by four factors: personal goals, capability beliefs, context beliefs, and emotions (C. L. Colbeck & Wharton-Michael). While personal goals and emotions play a part, much of the work of being motivated relies on a) whether a
faculty member believes they can do the work (capability), and b) whether a faculty member believes the institution is supportive of the work (context). A. Palmer and Collins (2006) suggested that, like Ford (1992), the Porter and Lawler (1968) motivational theory also emphasized the need for the individual to feel that they can attain the goal (expectancy). In the case of teaching development, this means not only that a faculty member feels that they, personally, can develop, but also that effective teaching can be both identified and well-rewarded (Ramsden & Martin, 1996). Colbeck and Wharton-Michael’s argument is that personal goals, capability beliefs, and context beliefs, while coming from the individual’s perspective, are greatly influenced by the institution itself. In order to motivate faculty, then, the institution must do more show support through rewards. Administrators must show faculty that they value the development of teaching and scholarship by helping them set goals and encouraging faculty that the work is possible as well. Only then will faculty be fully motivated to go beyond receiving rewards to become effective teachers and scholars.

One challenge administrators face is finding ways to both identify and allow for the perceptions faculty have of teaching. Many faculty begin careers in higher education because of their interest in teaching (Boyer, 1990), and, in general, these faculty continue to see themselves primarily as teachers despite a research focus required by the institution (Marchant & Newman, 1994; Menon, 2003; Peters & Mayfield, 1982). For example, in a 1989 survey of higher education faculty, Boyer (p. 44) noted that 70% of faculty, including 33% of faculty from research institutions, responded that their interests lay primarily in teaching. Others have the sense that “teaching is something that an academic does, whereas research and scholarship is what makes them special (Light & Cox, 2001,
This sense of self, as De Simone (2001) described it, is formed from our personal history and experiences as well as our personality and characteristics. While it is important for the institution to hire faculty that bring their own identity and interests in to the institution, there is clearly a social aspect to an individual’s identity. The context of the institution has a strong influence on the individual identity of its faculty. As a part of this influence, there is clearly a social role each faculty member must fill. Faculty will never be able to fully disengage from the social expectations to conduct research, teach, and engage in the community through service, no matter how firm their interest in primarily teaching is. It is important, however, that faculty members understand their role and can reconcile role expectations with their own individual identity.

Another challenge is the tension that often exists between faculty and administrators. For example, faculty and administrators often have misperceptions of what each other believes about scholarship. McAlpine and Harris (2002) studied these perceptions and found that faculty members believed administrators personally favored research over teaching, while administrators believed faculty favored teaching above research. Boyer (1990, p. 16) surveyed academic leaders and administrators at over 800 higher education institutions to ask whether scholarship should be seen as larger than research, and despite how faculty may perceive it, an overwhelming number of the administrators supported the idea. Part of this disparity is a lack of dialogue on campuses about scholarship. It is also, however, due to the nature of the work of administrators. Administrators are required to make decisions on policies, tenure and promotion, and reward structures, and all of this affects the contentedness and livelihood of faculty. Faculty, at times, see administrators as removed from the daily work of the faculty; they
may have spent time in the classroom and the research lab in the past but do not have
time to engage in these activities any more (Brenner, 2006). Marchant and Newman
(1994), in a study of academic administrators, found that administrators, such as
department heads, who worked more closely with faculty had a better understanding of
what motivated faculty to engage in scholarship than their more distant counterparts. This
gap that exists between administrators and faculty creates a tension that faculty must deal
with as they pursue their work (McInnis, 2000; Menon, 2003). This tension between what
a faculty member may want to focus on and what administrators require can cause
frustration and anxiety in faculty who chose a career in higher education in order to teach
(Menon). The research requirements for faculty may also cause the quality of teaching to
suffer, since time and energy must be expended on these tasks (Brennan, 1997; Oakley,
1997; Sykes, 1990). This can be especially harmful for faculty whose perceptions do not
align with the administration’s perceptions, since motivating these faculty members to
pursue research may require more energy and time. Ultimately, the tensions that exist
between faculty and administrators, while possibly inaccurate, would need to be resolved
if an institution desired to have a healthy scholarly culture.

In order to reconcile this tension between role expectations and the individual
understanding of identity, it is critical that faculty be able to identify and describe the
tension. De Simone (2001) provided a framework that can help faculty do so. In her work
on life in academia, she identified three conceptions of the professor’s role that form
identity: professor as scholar, professor as intellectual, or professor as teacher. The
tension faculty feel comes as others attempt to define them in ways that run counter to
how they perceive themselves. Peters and Mayfield (1982) called this “institutional
schizophrenia.” If administrators, for example, say through rewards and tenure policies that the faculty member is a scholar first, then faculty who see themselves differently must relinquish their own identity or face the consequences (De Simone). If faculty see themselves as scholars primarily, then any attempts to encourage scholarly pursuits other than traditional research will be met with resistance. And, as De Simone (p. 284) noted, “should professors be perceived as intellectual-teacher-scholar, this may be at odds with the ways in which the social role of professor is evaluated within academia.” While it seems that there are tensions no matter the label or identity, it is the “intellectual” label that De Simone notes is the most fitting for faculty since it allows them to embrace both scholarship and teaching as intellectuals. For intellectuals, research and teaching can work hand-in-hand, each informing and enhancing the other. It is this view of scholarship that will help reconcile external expectations with internal perceptions, allowing faculty to reduce the tensions that exist and thrive in their careers.

Fostering the Scholarship of Teaching

Boyer’s (1990) scholarship of teaching model stands in stark contrast to the standard form of scholarship, and faculty interested in pursuing teaching scholarship will need to be supported in the process. Teaching, for many faculty, is not a study area; it is simply a job they perform (Farris, 2005). They generally teach as their professors did, which means they are focused on transmitting knowledge (Baskin, 1967; Johnston, 1997; Ramsden, 2003; Sweitzer, 2003; Wise, 1967) and not on the needs of the learner. In order for teaching and learning to improve, faculty members need to acquire new perspectives on teaching and be supported in the development of teaching scholarship. Much of the
professional development literature has focused on how to teach or how to develop faculty development programs without addressing how faculty develop into teaching-scholars (Kreber et al., 2005; Trigwell & Prosser, 1997). Weston and McAlpine (2001), however, described a useful process by which faculty can develop in the scholarship of teaching. Development includes the personal understanding of teaching, discussion of teaching with colleagues, and the development of scholarly knowledge with the goal of sharing expertise and advancing the field. These phases can be nurtured through reflection and portfolio work, communities of practice, and classroom inquiry. It is this process, and the support of the university, that will help faculty develop into effective teacher-scholars.

Reflection

If teaching in higher education is to be reconceptualized and developed, it will be critical for faculty to develop their own personal conceptions to reflect a student learning, research-connected focus through a process of reflective practice. The first step in Weston and McAlpine’s (2001) model is to help faculty investigate their own personal understandings of teaching and learning. To fully connect with scholarly literature, faculty must first know what they believe based on their own experience (Kreber, 2005, p. 326). As John Dewey (1933) described, “Active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends constitutes reflective thought” (p. 9). All teachers have a core philosophy, or conception, of teaching that supports, or drives, their actions in the classroom (Coppola, 2002). “Learning to be explicit and reflective about that philosophy allows faculty members to improve their teaching” (Sweitzer, 2003, p.
This means that faculty members who are engaged in reflective practice learn to recognize and set aside assumptions that have implicitly influenced their teaching (Brookfield, 2000, 2005). Once these limiting assumptions have been set aside, the faculty member is free to move past them and ultimately improve practice.

While Dewey (1933) provided early leadership in the concept of reflective practice as critical for development, Schön (1983) popularized this understanding in his work on professional knowledge and reflection on practice. Schön’s main focus was on helping professionals “learn about and improve their practice” (McAlpine, Weston, Berthiaume, Fairbank-Roch, & Owen, 2004, p. 338). He noted that “tacit knowledge implicit in professional actions must be described through a process of observation and reflection” (Harada, 2005, p. 49). As McAlpine et al. highlighted, this reflective process allows faculty to effectively draw on prior knowledge while, at the same time, constructing new knowledge that leads toward improvement. Brookfield (2000) described it this way: “Reflective practice theorists are interested in helping scholars understand, question, investigate and take seriously their own learning and teaching” (p. 129). It is critical for effective reflective practice that faculty do not simply move through reflection without the end in mind. Instead, all work in reflective practice should move toward a goal (Lyons, 2006). When done systematically, thoroughly, and with the end in mind, reflective practice becomes the basis for the scholarly pursuit of teaching improvement, or the scholarship of teaching (Brookfield; Lyons; McAlpine et al.).

Reflection is at the core of a leading conceptual model of reflection in the scholarship of teaching, the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning model developed by Kreber and Cranton (2000). Kreber and Cranton base their work on Mezirow’s (1991)
transformative learning theory, an adult education and professional development theory, based on constructivism, that describes how adults make explicit their own assumptions through reflection. Kreber and Cranton argue that in order for faculty to engage in the scholarship of teaching, they must be involved in content, process, and premise reflection. Kreber (2005) described it this way:

While in content reflection we ask ‘what do I know’, in process reflection we ask ‘how do I know if it works/if I am effective with what I do?’. Finally, when engaged in premise reflection we question the presuppositions underlying our knowledge. (p. 326)

In this process, adults move from an acceptance of the way things are to critically reflecting on the reasons why they are that way. The theory of transformative learning makes clear that adults cannot transform or develop without critically reflecting in each of these areas (Mezirow).

It should be noted that reflecting on teaching and learning does not guarantee improvement in teaching and learning. Being critically reflective means that we find “lenses that reflect back to us a stark and differently highlighted picture of who we are and what we do” (Brookfield, 2005, p. 153). There needs to be a way to validate the outcomes of reflection (Habermas, 1968; Kreber, 2005; Mezirow, 1991). A teacher’s experiences can be a form of validation, as well as a starting point for individual reflection. It must not stop there, however. Faculty should also reflect as they read literature, attend workshops, or observe others’ teaching (Brookfield, 1995; Kreber). Reflection is often done individually and without regard to the accuracy of the outcomes (Kirkwood & Price, 2006), making validity testing a crucial element of reflection (Mezirow). While validity is tested through experimentation in research, in a
“communicative” (Habermas, 1971) area like teaching, it is best done in critical discourse with colleagues, which is the second phase of Weston and McAlpine’s (2001) model.

The outcomes of any scholarship of teaching should be published in some form. Musolino (2005) noted that the most studied aspect of reflective practice is the reflective journal, where faculty write their thoughts down throughout the practice of teaching to help move from content to premise reflection (Mezirow, 1991). While a journal is appropriate during the process of reflection, it may not be the best product of reflection. Kreber and Cranton (2000) identified reflective essays as products of reflection, and one excellent example is the philosophy of teaching (Coppola, 2002; Sweitzer, 2003). If reflection ends in making implicit knowledge explicit, then essays like these help faculty express their knowledge through writing.

One way to publish reflection products is to include them in teaching or course portfolios (Boileau, 1993; Brookfield, 1995; Kreber & Cranton, 2000; Lyons, 2006; Musolino, 2005; Shulman, 2000; Sweitzer, 2003). Bruce Shore (1986) initially suggested that faculty be given the responsibility of providing a “portfolio of evidence” that demonstrated their competence. Shore’s work anticipated Boyer’s (1990) model of teaching scholarship by providing a framework for faculty to show competence and scholarship in their teaching role (Knapper & Wright, 2001). As Boileau (p. 22) described, portfolios take advantage of “(a) reflective thinking on one’s teaching; (b) sharing of what one does with a mentor or colleague as a way to create a dialogue on teaching; and (c) the creation of dialogue on campus about teaching.” While portfolios are often used for evaluation purposes, their primary goal is to encourage reflection and dialogue through formative evaluation (Knapper & Wright). The portfolio provides a
framework for faculty in the reflection process, stimulating “rethinking and planning for the future” (Musolino, p. 60). Hatch et al. (2004) identify components that make a portfolio of teaching a form of scholarship, including course materials, student learning evidence, and faculty reflections. These components help faculty make connections between content and pedagogy and capture the core element of the scholarship of teaching: pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987).

Discourse

As Boileau (1993) noted, the portfolio is a scholarly work that begins with reflection but elicits dialogue on teaching, thereby ending the “privatization” (p. 22) seen in most of the teaching fields.

Professors, to be fully effective, cannot work continuously in isolation. It is toward . . . a community of scholars – that the four dimensions of academic endeavor should lead. In the end, scholarship at its best should bring faculty together. (Boyer, 1990, p. 80)

Weston and McAlpine (2001) said that after reflection, faculty interested in developing the scholarship of teaching need the opportunity to dialogue with others on teaching and learning issues. Reflection, however, is a community activity as well (Brookfield, 1995; Harada, 2005), and effective communities of practice provide a venue for faculty to reflect and test the validity of their reflections (Boyer; Koch et al., 2002; Kreber & Cranton, 2000; Mezirow, 1991).

Communities of practice support faculty as they engage in problems, learn from one another, and bring to the surface foundational principles of effective teaching and learning (Daly, Pachler, & Lambert, 2004; Hutchings, 2000). This can occur in any size group, including a mentoring relationship. While mentors are generally more
experienced, both mentor and mentee are challenged to make their assumptions explicit and dialogue about teaching and learning (Mahara & Jones, 2005). Communities of practice allow faculty to receive immediate feedback from others on their personal reflections and validate those reflections with peers (Ives, McWhaw, & De Simone, 2005; Mahara & Jones, 2005). Brookfield’s (1995) *Good Practice Audit* is an excellent example of this type of discourse. Through communities like these, faculty members engage in the scholarship of teaching and begin their contribution to the scholarship community.

One final approach to discourse is the classroom observation. Seeing the classroom in real-time allows for direct, applicable feedback, shared reflection, and discourse on specific problems or concerns. It also combats the isolation prevalent in higher education (Ives et al., 2005). When faculty members observe others’ teaching, a support network can form that makes future sharing and collaboration possible. While it may be appropriate to use classroom observations for summative evaluations, observations should primarily be formative so that faculty have the opportunity to learn and grow in a safe environment (Danielson & McGreal, 2000).

Research

Phase three of Weston & McAlpine’s (2001) model of development focuses on the scholarly work of inquiry in teaching and learning. This is the scholarship of teaching. Wells (1994) noted that “if the goal of reflection is understanding, the purpose of understanding is improvement in action” (p. 275). Improvement in action happens when faculty are engaged in inquiry, or classroom research, that contributes to the teaching field (Koch et al., 2002; Theall & Centra, 2001). Cross (1990) stated, “classroom
researchers aim at professionalizing teaching through increasing insight and understanding rather than through scientifically controlled experiments that search for universals” (p. 130).

The goal of classroom research, like action research, is to address a problem within the classroom (Hutchings & Shulman, 1999; Theall & Centra, 2001; Zuber-Skerritt, 1997). This is the culmination of a faculty member’s work in the scholarship of teaching. Reflection (phase one) and discourse (phase two) lead to problem identification, study of the pedagogical literature on that problem, and an investigation aimed at improving teaching and student learning (Cross & Steadman, 1996; Kreber & Cranton, 2000; Weston & McAlpine, 2001). Ultimately, this research is practical in nature and immediately applicable for the university faculty involved in scholarship development (Boyer, 1990; Rothstein, 2004).

Glassick et al. (1997) made a significant impact on the understanding of Boyer’s (1990) new scholarship model when they proposed that the peer-reviewed journal was simply one of the many ways scholarship could be presented publicly. One of the recent trends in higher education is the movement towards journals, conferences, and other publishing venues that address pedagogy within the disciplines (Kreber & Cranton, 2000; Sweitzer, 2003). The foundation for this movement was clearly expressed by Shulman (1998): “The future of your various disciplines and professions depends on your success in pedagogically enlightening the next generation of people in your field” (p. 11). Following the peer-reviewed model, many journals publish articles related to pedagogical content knowledge. Sommers (2004), editor of *Teaching English in the Two-Year College*, a pedagogical journal, noted that the very nature of the work published in the
journal made those researchers teacher-scholars. Publishing classroom research in pedagogical journals is, ultimately, an effective way to engage in teaching and learning and raise the status of teaching as a form of scholarship.

Professional Development of Higher Education Faculty

Professional development programs for post-secondary faculty have traditionally focused on teaching tips and strategies, but this approach has been challenged in recent years (Cranton & Carusetta, 2004; Kreber, 1999; Ng, Murphy, & Jenkins, 2002). Teaching at the post-secondary level has, for the most part, been teacher-focused (Cranton & King, 2003; Kallenbach & Viens, 2002; Lee & Greene, 2003); teachers presented information through lecturing, and students simply received and regurgitated. Professional development only needed to address “how to” techniques, strategies, and innovations that helped faculty present information and assess students effectively (Sokol & Cranton, 1998). This behavioral understanding of teaching and learning has recently been challenged by new theories of learning like constructivism (Keiny, 1994; Lee & Greene; Mezirow, 1991). The introduction of constructivism has challenged the epistemology that educators rely upon, shifting their focus from transmitting knowledge about the objective world to helping students construct their own knowledge.

Kreber and Cranton (2000), in developing their Scholarship of Teaching and Learning mode, agreed with Mezirow (1978, 1991, 2000) that adult learning was ultimately about transformation. As he noted in his early writings (1978), “Transformation in meaning perspective is precipitated by life’s dilemmas which cannot be resolved by simply acquiring more information, enhancing problem solving skills, or
adding to one’s competencies” (p. 108). Mezirow challenged, and added to, traditional adult education theories like andragogy (Knowles, 1975, 1976; Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2005) by arguing that adults need to critically reflect on their assumptions before growth can occur (A. L. Wilson & Kiely, 2002). The main purpose for the TL theory, then, is to help adults identify personal perspectives that are “limiting or distorted” (Cranton, 2002, p. 64), review alternative perspectives, and change the way they make sense of the world (Christopher, Dunnagan, Duncan, & Paul, 2001; Mezirow, 1991).

Mezirow (1991) based his theory on the larger framework of critical theory and socially constructed learning as proposed by Freire (1970) and Habermas (1971). Habermas identified three kinds of knowledge: instrumental, communicative, and emancipatory. Instrumental knowledge deals with facts that can be learned through science and inquiry (Eisen, 2001; B. Williams, 2001). Communicative knowledge is concerned with the social aspects of knowledge, including knowing the self, others, and the dynamics of the social world (Cranton & King, 2003). Finally, emancipatory knowledge describes the freedom from constraints and unstated assumptions that follows critical reflection. Mezirow posited that adults should engage in content (instrumental), process (communicative), and premise (emancipatory) reflection in order to transform as learners.

If the goal of adult education is to critically reflect on the basic premises that support actions, it is clear that traditional learning theories that emphasize the discovery of objective knowledge and the transmission of information are inadequate to help adults reach this goal (Baumgartner, 2001; Grabove, 1997; Hartrick, 1999; Illeris, 2003; Ng et
al., 2002; Spilkova, 2001). Freire (1970) called this the “banking” model of education: Students are seen as “passive objects, empty receptacles that teachers fill with knowledge” (Christopher et al., 2001, p. 134). Both Freire and Mezirow (1991) saw this perspective as oppressive since it failed to ascribe value to the student (Christopher et al.; Sokol & Cranton, 1998). Constructivist theories, on the other hand, propose that knowledge is “actively constructed by the learner” (Keiny, 1994, p. 158). Instead of discovering knowledge, learners construct their own knowledge through “language, communication, and social interaction with people” (Lee & Greene, 2003, p. 5), integrating new experiences with past learning, experiences, and cultural and family influences. Overall, “people interpret their experiences in their own way, and the way they understand the world is as a result of their perceptions of their experiences” (B. Williams, 2001, p. 28).

The constructivist foundation of the TL theory speaks directly to the importance of this “perspective transformation” (Mezirow, 1996). Mezirow (1997a, ¶ 2) described the process of perspective transformation in three phases: “critical reflection on one's assumptions, discourse to validate the critically reflective insight, and action.” While there are many studies that describe this process in more than three steps, Mezirow has outlined the fundamental events in this partially linear, or spiral, process (Cranton, 2000). The process begins with a “disorienting dilemma” (Mezirow, 1991), or “trigger event” (M. C. Clark, 1993; Lyon, 2002), that challenges a learner’s meaning structures, or frames of reference (Mezirow, 2000). In order to resolve this tension, the learner must begin a process of critical reflection, with the goal of identifying the intellectual habits, or implicit assumptions, that have led to actions that are inconsistent with the new
perspective. Since assumptions are usually unknown, or uncritically assimilated (Mezirow, 1997b), discourse with others allows learners to express and validate their assumptions (Eisen, 2001; Lyon, 2002; Mezirow, 1991). Discourse, then, leads to transformation and social action.

The benefits of Mezirow’s (1991) TL theory are evident in the learners who experience perspective transformation. As Clark (1993) noted, transformative learning produces more “far-reaching changes in the learner than does learning in general, and . . . [it] shapes people; they’re different afterward, in ways both they and others can recognize” (p. 47). Learners who reach the level of action in transformation are empowered (Christopher et al., 2001; Taylor, 1997) and have the capacity for reflexivity, viewing the world “through multiple frames of reference” (Lee & Greene, 2003, p. 11). Reflexivity is not a final destination, but is, instead, an evolutionary process, helping learners “become more adaptive and able to profit from experience” (Parkes, 2001, p. 182). These learners are “autonomous thinkers who negotiate their own values, meanings, and purposes rather than uncritically act on those of others” (Grabove, 1997, p. 89). In the end, the transformative process helps learners become “liberated and empowered individuals who can actively initiate social action” (Narushima, 1999, p. 5).

Although Mezirow’s (1991) TL theory is the most studied approach to this type of learning (Baumgartner, 2001), others have attempted to address areas that Mezirow seems to have minimized or leaves unmentioned (Baumgartner; A. L. Wilson & Kiely, 2002). Mezirow’s TL theory is called the cognitive-rational approach because of its focus on critical reflection and the transformation of mind processes (Baumgartner; Grabove, 1997). Some critics argue that Mezirow has moved away from Freire’s (1970) emphasis
on social justice, instead focusing primarily on individual growth through Habermas’ instrumental and communicative realms (Dirkx, 1998; Taylor, 1997). It is clear that Mezirow (1994, 2000) agrees that empowerment should be an outcome of the transformation process, but argues that it is just as important to do this as it is to “participat[e] in collective political social action” (Narushima, 1999, p. 7).

Mezirow’s (1991) rational approach to transformative learning, according to critics, also fails to acknowledge that transformation can occur through other-than-mental processes. He has been criticized for “ignoring the affective, emotional, and social context aspects of the learning process” (Baumgartner, 2001, p. 17). By focusing on critical reflection and the analysis of assumptions, critics argue, Mezirow minimizes the transformational role of emotions, intuition, affective learning, and the power of the unconscious mind (Lyon, 2002; Taylor, 1997, 2001). Many studies have explored these elements of learning and have called for transformation to address “whole person learning” (Taylor, 1997, ¶ 22), "including our cognitive, affective, somatic, intuitive, and spiritual dimensions" (The Group for Collaborative Inquiry, 1994, as cited in Taylor, 1997, ¶ 22). While these “other” ways of viewing transformative learning do not negate the power of a rational, critically reflective approach, they do offer a broader understanding of the experiences that lead to transformation.

If the principal goal of adult education is to foster transformation in learners, then adult educators should be prepared to do so. Where professional development is offered, however, development is not the focus (Cranton & Carusetta, 2004; Sokol & Cranton, 1998). The professional development is “done to” (Brookfield, 2000, p. 133) the faculty: they are given strategies to use in their classrooms (Cranton & Carusetta; Kreber, 1999;
Magro, 2002; Sokol & Cranton) with no thought given to how faculty might connect the information to their own understanding of teaching. While this instrumental approach may be effective, Mezirow (1997b) argued that new information is simply a resource adults can use; the information must be incorporated into the learner’s “already well-developed . . . frame of reference” (p. 10) before it is considered meaningful. Kreber noted that the focus on instrumental knowledge in professional development assumes there are research findings “that can be generalized across contexts; an assumption that is difficult to maintain considering the individuality of teachers, students, as well as the context-specificity of teaching” (¶38). The instrumental approach also assumes that there is one right way to teach, and the job of the faculty member is accept that right way (Cranton, 1998; Peel, 2005), which Freire (1970) would call oppressive. If it is true, however, that “professional development . . . almost always requires some type of change” (Eisen, 2001, p. 31), the process of professional development must be transformed to reflect development instead of training.

While it is clear that faculty do need to be introduced to the pedagogical literature, teaching strategies, and techniques that provide a foundation for effective teaching (A. L. Wilson & Kiely, 2002), teaching is primarily a communicative profession (Cranton & Carusetta, 2004; Eisen, 2001; Mezirow, 1995; Sokol & Cranton, 1998). It is “socially constructed by a community of practitioners and scholars,” and “we learn about teaching through experience, reflection on experience, and dialogue with others” (Cranton & Carusetta, p. 6). Teaching calls for “high sensitivity to human psychology and to context” (Krull, 2001, p. 101); teachers cannot be taught to teach (Keiny, 1994) in “how to” training sessions (Cranton & Carusetta; Eisen; Mezirow; Sokol & Cranton). Most college
and university faculty have no formal teacher training and “uncritically absorb techniques, strategies, and styles from their own prior experiences as students and from their colleagues and the norms of the academic community” (Cranton & Carusetta, p. 6). The Scholarship of Teaching and Learning model and the transformative learning theory empowers teachers to critically reflect on their assumptions and socially construct new perspectives through dialogue with others in order to grow and develop (Cranton & King, 2003).

Ultimately, universities must move beyond simply training their faculty, instead focusing on providing a culture that is committed to the development of teaching and learning (Ramsden, 2004). Faculty will need more than instrumental, or factual, knowledge on teaching/assessment strategies. They will need: (1) to learn to shift their role from lecture to coach or facilitator (Hiltibran, 1998), (2) to reflect on their own teaching and identify the gap between their current perspectives and assumptions and new ways of learning (Nicholls, 2005), (3) a safe place to dialogue with colleagues about teaching and learning, (4) to receive ongoing support from faculty developers and colleagues as they implement what they have learned (Cromwell & Croskery, 1994) and evaluate whether they are successful (Engstrom & Danielson, 2006), and (5) to be rewarded by administrators for their efforts to improve teaching and learning through release time, stipends, and teaching awards (Kallenbach & Viens, 2002; Travis, 1996). It will be this environment of support and professional development that will make the difference for those faculty interested in developing their teaching.
Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher has reviewed the literature on faculty conception of teaching, faculty and administrator’s perceptions of teaching, the scholarship of teaching and learning, and institutional culture and commitment to teaching and scholarship. While each of these topics has been studied in the literature, there are a few key areas that warrant more study and provide justification for this study. First, faculty conception of teaching has been shown to influence approach to teaching and student learning (Kember, 1997; Kember & Kwan, 2000; Prosser & Trigwell, 1999, 2006; Trigwell & Prosser, 2004), but the studies are necessarily contextualized (Prosser & Trigwell), and more work is required if other contexts, such as the conceptions of faculty in departments at teaching institutions, are to be represented (Lindblom-Ylannae et al., 2006; Ramsden et al., 2007). Secondly, faculty conception of teaching has been linked to a faculty member’s approach to the scholarship of teaching and learning (Kreber, 2005; Lueddeke, 2003; Quinlan, 2002), but more work is needed to understand faculty perceptions of this form of scholarship if institutions plan to reform scholarly practice and develop faculty into teacher-scholars (Brew, 2003; Kreber, 2002a; Menon, 2003). Third, the course and departmental setting, as well as the discipline, of faculty is related to their conception of teaching (Knight & Trowler, 2000; Lindblom-Ylanne et al.; Lueddeke; Ramsden et al.), but no studies have moved beyond these areas to address the relationship between these conceptions and the entire institution and its culture, despite recent calls for this work (Lea & Callaghan, 2008; Lueddeke; Menon; Quinlan). In order to do so, it is important that both faculty and administrator voices be heard, yet few studies have compared the perceptions of faculty with administrators in order to fully describe the institutional
context despite clearly differing perceptions between the two (Brawer et al., 2006; McAlpine & Harris, 2002; Ramsden, 2004; Tang & Chamberlain, 1997). Finally, most studies of teaching in higher education have focused on the research-intensive university or have not acknowledge institution type, with few studies that have described teaching at traditionally teaching institutions, despite the pressures these institutions face to both improve the quality of teaching and learning and improve scholarship productivity (Braxton, 2006; Cottrell & Jones, 2003; Major & Palmer, 2006; Nicholls, 2005; O'Meara, 2006; Young, 2006). Overall, the limited research done in each of these areas provided justification for the present study: an exploration of faculty and administrator perceptions of teaching, the scholarship of teaching and learning, and institutional commitment to teaching and scholarship at one teaching institution.
CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore faculty and administrator perceptions of teaching, the scholarship of teaching and learning, and institutional commitment to teaching at a primarily teaching institution with a goal of describing the culture of scholarship present. Areas of focus included faculty conceptions of teaching and their relationship to development needs and the scholarship of teaching identified in Boyer’s (1990) scholarship model. Faculty and administrator perceptions of the culture of teaching and scholarship were also explored, defined by policies, reward structures, support for teaching, and faculty evaluation. The research questions for this study are as follows:

What are the perceptions of teaching, the scholarship of teaching and learning, and the culture of teaching and scholarship held by faculty and administrators in one Midwest teaching university?

Secondary questions included the following:

(1a) How do faculty conceptions of teaching relate to their perceived need to develop their teaching?

(1b) How do faculty conceptions of teaching relate to their conceptions of the scholarship of teaching and learning and its applicability within the university?
(2) How do faculty perceptions of teaching and scholarship compare with those of administrators at the same university?

(3) What are faculty and administrators’ perceptions of the institution’s culture of, and commitment to, teaching and the scholarship of teaching and learning?

Research Design

The study used a case study research design in order to address the research question and study faculty and administrator perceptions of key teaching and scholarship constructs. The question for this study required an exploration of individual and group perceptions within a specific context (the university) and sought to understand the perspectives of those involved. This focus on the perspective of the participants required an approach that is based on a constructivist philosophy, highlighting the social creation of knowledge and rejection of absolute truth or objectivity (Creswell, 2003; Fox, 2001; Johnson & Waterfield, 2004). According to this epistemology, of which qualitative research is based, knowledge is constructed as individuals make meaning of new information through their perspectives, environment, and past experiences (Fox; Kivinen & Ristela, 2003). In order to accomplish this, a qualitative design must be used, since researchers in this paradigm seek to provide an in-depth look at cases or small populations to describe phenomena within specific contexts (Johnson & Waterfield). Qualitative research tells a story through “interpretive narratives” that describe or explain the complexity of a specific context (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005, p. 97). While the results cannot be generalized to the population, the depth of these studies can lead to new theory
through inductive inquiry (Creswell; Leedy & Ormrod). A qualitative research design, therefore, was important to addressing the research question.

While there are many qualitative designs that could be used to answer the research question, a case study design answered the question most effectively. Creswell (2007) noted that case study research “involves the study of an issue explored through one or more cases within a bounded system” (p. 73). Two examples he gives of a “bounded system” are “a setting” or “a context.” Yin provides three conditions that should be in place to justify choosing case study research. First, the question itself leads toward an exploration of phenomena, such as those questions that begin with the word “how” or “why.” Secondly, the researcher has no direct control over the case and cannot manipulate it in any way. Finally, case studies are separated from historical studies because they study contemporary cases where observation and interviewing are possible. All three conditions are inherent in this study. The most important reason, however, to choose a case study is because the researcher is interested in more than just the phenomenon to be studied: the context and setting that surrounds, influences, and is influenced by the issue is just as important (Creswell; Yin, 1984). In order to explore faculty and administrator perceptions of teaching, scholarship, and institutional culture, then, the context and setting of this Midwest teaching institution must be the focus.

Finally, case study research is generally associated with qualitative data collection methods, including observation, interviews, and document analysis, but quantitative data can also be used as well (Yin, 1984). Quantitative data in a case study is very useful, as it can often “indicate relationships which may not be salient to the researcher” (Creswell, 2007, p. 15). Strong connections can be made when a phenomena is studied through
quantitative means and interpreted in a qualitative fashion. In this study, the use of quantitative data served to provide both demographic data and faculty scores on the revised Approaches to Teaching Inventory, an instrument that measures faculty conceptions of teaching. The quantitative data was then used to identify basic characteristics of the faculty studied, as well as to support findings from the qualitative data collection methods. Overall, the focus of this study was on qualitative methods, but one quantitative instrument was used as a tool to further describe the case within the context of the qualitative exploration.

Setting of the Study

In order to study the perception of teaching, scholarship, and institutional culture at a primarily teaching institution, Midwest Teaching University (pseudonym), a small, private, Midwest institution that is proud of its teaching focus, was the case that was chosen. The university is a Christian institution, denominationally-affiliated, with a strong mission to provide a quality education with a Christian viewpoint. It is representative of liberal arts institutions, according to the traditional Carnegie classifications, and it is currently undergoing a revision of the faculty evaluation system, with an emphasis on addressing each domain of Boyer’s (1990) scholarship model.

The academic structure at Midwest Teaching University is divided into five schools and colleges that represent the many programs offered to students. The School of Professional Studies houses the many disciplines that are professional in nature, including faculty in Business, Communication, Computer Science, Engineering,
Nursing, Social Work, and others. The College of Arts and Sciences is another large entity, consisting of faculty in Art, the sciences, History, Mathematics, English, and Music, and other disciplines. The School of Education and the School of Theology and Christian Ministry are separate schools, with the amount of full-time faculty working in these areas much smaller. The fifth area is the School of Graduate and Continuing Studies, which serves graduate students and has no full-time faculty. Participants in this study were full-time faculty, department chairs, and academic deans within the three undergraduate schools and the College of Arts and Sciences at the university.

Role of the Researcher

The primary research instrument for qualitative studies is the researcher (Creswell, 2007). The researcher is intimately involved in all facets of the study (Bergsjo, 1999; Creswell, 2003) and, for this reason, is “often described as being the research instrument” (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005, p. 96). Researchers allow the data gathered to influence the direction of the study and embrace their perspectives and biases as an integral part of the research (Creswell, 2003). In the present study, through observation, interviewing, and constant comparative analysis, the researcher acted as the key instrument for the study. The researcher also approached the study as a learner, gathering data that describes the case as it is, not as he perceived it. Participant perspectives are incredibly important to the quality of this study, and these were described as they were expressed by participants.

While the goal was to describe the case and its context as it is, it is understood that the study would be influenced by the researcher’s orientation and personal
characteristics (Creswell, 2003). As participant observer, the researcher was not limited to simple observation. Instead, the researcher moves from “outsider” to “insider” by immersion into daily activities and norms of the organization (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005), living as the study’s participants live (Zaharlick, 1992). This included attendance of all faculty meetings and regular business meetings, as well as through daily observations and spontaneous conversations with colleagues. The researcher was a new faculty member at the institution, so he had already gained entrance into the institution. Prior to becoming a faculty member, the researcher worked as an instructional technologist, supporting faculty in their development as teachers through technology. Over the past three years as a faculty member, the researcher has had experience with the faculty, with teaching development, and with scholarship at the teaching university. As a newer faculty member, however, it was still be possible to “make the strange familiar” (Spindler & Spindler, 1982, p. 23); the researcher had not been a member of the faculty long enough to have lost the outsider’s perspective needed to study the case effectively.

In considering the influence the researcher has on the study in qualitative research, it is also clear that personal biases and expectations have a strong influence on the method and development of the study (Creswell, 2007). In this study, the researcher approached the work with some experience in the inner workings of the institution in question, and admittedly had preconceived ideas of what he would find. His work in supporting faculty in developing technology skills had shown that many faculty members were only interested in developing skills and would not open themselves up to pedagogical development during training sessions. He had also seen a lack of emphasis on helping faculty develop their teaching proficiencies and on professional development
that is required of all faculty, which is something he believed would be beneficial. Based on experience, the researcher expected to find a culture that does not value highly the scholarship and development of teaching, despite possible participant claims that it does. These biases and expectations most certainly had an influence on the researcher’s reactions to participants, helping him to have a critical eye throughout the process, but they were not so strong that they distracted from the focus of the case study: to explore the setting from the participants’ perspective.

Instrumentation

While the role of the researcher was to be an instrument in this case study, other instruments were used to collect data and provide a rich description of the case. The primary instruments were a series of interview protocols used to gather data from individual faculty (Appendix B), two faculty focus groups (Appendix C), a Department Chair focus group (Appendix D), and a Deans’ focus group (Appendix E). Each of the interview protocols was developed to identify faculty and administrator perspectives on teaching and scholarship in order to address the research questions. Each protocol consisted of questions relating to participant perceptions of teaching, scholarship, and the institution’s commitment to teaching and scholarship. The Faculty Interview Protocol (Appendix B) is an extensive list of questions designed to elicit faculty perceptions and conceptions of the study’s topics. The focus group protocols (Appendix C, D, and E) were also designed for this purpose, but the amount of questions was reduced. Some audience-related questions were added to each of the focus group protocols, but the
majority of questions are exactly the same in order to compare the faculty members’, department heads’, and deans’ responses.

While the primary instruments in this study were the researcher and the interview/focus group protocols, two of the secondary research questions required the identification of faculty members’ conceptions of teaching in order to relate those to faculty perceptions of other key constructs. The researcher used a quantitative instrument (Appendix A) that included the revised Approaches to Teaching Inventory (Trigwell et al., 2005a) to identify faculty conceptions. The survey was used to collect demographic data, data on faculty perceptions of teaching and scholarship at the institution, and faculty conceptions of teaching. Six demographic questions were asked to provide context to the faculty members’ responses, and three questions related to faculty perceptions were asked, including two questions used, with permission, from the 1996-97 National Survey of Faculty (Roper Center, 2007). The third section of the survey was the unmodified Approaches to Teaching Inventory. The ATI has become a frequently used inventory to relate faculty approaches to teaching to their conception of teaching and learning. While it is not a valid instrument used by itself, confirmatory factor analyses show that it is valid and consistent across the multiple contexts it has been used in (Prosser & Trigwell, 2006; Trigwell et al.). Successful studies using the ATI have related the results to other contextual factors in teaching (Trigwell & Prosser, 2004), and the researcher used the ATI in the same manner: to relate faculty conceptions of teaching to faculty perceptions of teaching development and the scholarship of teaching and learning. Trigwell et al. recently unveiled and studied a newly revised ATI (ATI-R), and while this may seem to limit the possibility of comparing results with past studies that used the original ATI,
Prosser and Trigwell made it clear that comparisons are not of value due to the highly-contextualized responses.

Data Collection

The data collected for this case study of faculty and administrators at Midwest Teaching University were in multiple forms, including interviews, focus groups, a survey, and document review, and each method was used to address multiple research questions (see Table 3). The researcher worked through five phases of data collection, including Preparation, Survey Administration, Interviews, Focus Groups, and Document Review (Figure 1). Each of these phases is outlined below.

Preparation

In order to begin data collection, the researcher identified those faculty members and administrators who would serve as interview and focus group participants. The interview participants needed to be identified prior to administering the survey because they received a separate inventory from the rest of the faculty that included a place for them to identify themselves for comparison with interview data. Open-ended, semi-structured interviews (Appendix B) were conducted with 16 full-time faculty members that represent each of the campus Colleges and Schools and various levels of experience. A purposeful sample was chosen from the full-time faculty for these individual, informal interviews. In order to attain equal representation among the four colleges and schools, the researcher identified the number of faculty in each college/school and identified a representative sample that was large enough in scope to allow for at least two participants from the smaller areas. Two faculty members each were chosen from the School of
Education and the School of Theology and Christian Ministry, and six faculty members each were chosen from the School of Professional Studies and the College of Arts and Sciences. Each interview participant chosen represented a unique discipline. Care was also taken to choose faculty with a broad range of experience, and this was done by including faculty with a wide range of years of service at the university. Finally, the participants were chosen in order to match the percentage of males and females on the faculty (60/40), which meant that 10 were men and six were women. Three of the faculty chosen were unavailable or chose not to participate, and alternate faculty were chosen to meet the desired distributions. This meant that while discipline and gender distributions were appropriate, the final interview list included a more mature representation of the faculty, with 8 Full Professors, 2 Associate Professors, and 6 Assistant Professors agreeing to participate.

Similar qualifications were required for the faculty and administrator focus groups, although not as precise as the interview sample required. A purposeful sample, using similar qualifications, was used to identify focus group participants from the remaining faculty. Six faculty members were chosen for each faculty focus group, and each focus group consisted of 4 male and 2 female faculty members from unique disciplines and varying years of experience at the university. The School of Education and School of Theology and Christian Ministry were represented by one faculty member on each faculty focus group, and the School of Professional Studies and College of Arts and Sciences each had two representatives. Two of these faculty were unable to meet with the focus group, so they were interviewed separately in order to include their perspectives in the study. Next, a purposeful sample of administrators for the Department
Chair focus group were chosen that represented unique departments from across the university. Finally, each of the Deans of the four schools and colleges, along with one administrative dean in charge of assessment, were asked to participate in the Deans’ focus group. Four participated during the focus group and one was interviewed separately.

*Survey Administration*

Once the interview participants were identified and they had confirmed their interest in participating in both the survey and interview through an email response, the survey was administered to all full-time faculty at the university. The survey, including the Approaches to Teaching Inventory, was posted online through the SNAP online software and emails were sent out to all full-time faculty with a link to the survey itself. The sixteen faculty members identified as interview participants received a separate survey that allowed the researcher to identify their scores for comparative purposes. As the surveys were completed, the data was automatically entered into a database by the SNAP software, allowing the researcher to export the data from SNAP and import it into SPSS for data analysis. The faculty received two reminder emails if they had not yet completed the survey, and survey was removed one week after the second reminder.

*Interviews*

Informal, open-ended interviews were conducted with the 16 identified faculty members to explore the perceptions full-time faculty have of teaching, teaching development, scholarship, and the scholarship of teaching and learning. A standard protocol (Appendix B) was used, but the researcher was free to ask further questions during the interview wherever appropriate. All interviews were one hour long, were
audio-recorded, and the researcher took hand-written notes as needed. Each interview was then transcribed by the researcher and imported into Nvivo 7 for the analysis phase.

**Phase 1: Preparation**
- Identification of interview faculty through purposeful sampling
- Identification of Focus Group members through purposeful sampling

**Phase 2: Survey Administration**
- Survey/Approaches to Teaching Inventory administered online
  - Survey Invitation and 2 reminders by email
  - Waiver of Informed Consent by email
- Data entered directly from survey into SNAP software
- Data exported from SNAP and imported into SPSS for analysis

**Phase 3: Interviews**
- Administration of informed consent
- Open-ended, semi-structured interviews
- Each interview audio-recorded and transcribed
- All transcriptions imported into NVivo 7 for analysis

**Phase 4: Focus Groups**
- Faculty Focus Groups (2)
- Department Chair Focus Group
- Deans’ Focus Group
- Each focus group audio-recorded and transcribed
- Each transcription imported into NVivo 7 for analysis

**Phase 5: Document Review**
- Faculty Handbook
- Faculty Contract
- University Catalog
- Other Important University Documents
- All documents imported into NVivo 7 for analysis

*Figure 1. Data Collection Flow Chart*

*Focus Groups*

While interviews yielded useful data on individual faculty perceptions, focus groups were a critical data collection method for this study, as they provided data on group meaning, processes, and normative understandings (Bloor, Frankland, Thomas, & Robson, 2001). Two faculty focus groups (Appendix C) and two administrator focus
groups (Appendix D and Appendix E) were convened. The purpose was to gather perceptions from faculty and administrators on teaching, the scholarship of teaching and learning, and institutional support for teaching and scholarship. All focus groups were one hour long, were audio-recorded, and the researcher took hand-written notes as needed. The researcher then transcribed the audio files and imported the transcriptions into Nvivo 7 for data analysis.

Table 3

*Data Collection Methods Grouped by Research Question*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Question</th>
<th>Data Used to Address Research Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1a. How do faculty conceptions of teaching relate to their perceived need to develop their teaching? | 1. Approaches to Teaching Inventory  
2. Interviews                                                                       |
| 1b. How do faculty conceptions of teaching relate to their conceptions of the scholarship of teaching and learning and its applicability within the university? | 1. Approaches to Teaching Inventory  
2. Interviews                                                                       |
| 2. How do faculty perceptions of teaching and scholarship compare with those of administrators at the same university? | 1. Faculty Focus Groups  
2. Administrator Focus Groups  
3. Interviews  
4. Document Analysis  
5. Survey Questions / Approaches to Teaching Inventory |
| 3. What are faculty and administrators’ perceptions of the institution’s culture of, and commitment to, teaching and the scholarship of teaching and learning? | 1. Faculty Focus Groups  
2. Administrator Focus Groups  
3. Interviews  
4. Document Analysis  
5. Survey Questions |
Document Review

Important university documents and artifacts, including the Faculty Handbook (2004), annual evaluation forms, and the 2007-2008 University Catalog, were reviewed through document analysis to identify the stated goals for faculty from the university administration. Other documents, including the President’s Dinner programs for the previous five years, the Faculty Contract, the Rank and Service/Promotion application, and the standardized end-of-course evaluation document were also reviewed in order to identify the current status of teaching and scholarship at the university, as well as the stated commitments the university had made to teaching and scholarship. Each document was digitized and imported into Nvivo 7 for document analysis purposes.

Data analysis procedures

The design of this study was emergent, in that data gathered informed the design throughout the process rather than simply analyzed at the end of the data collection period (Creswell, 2003; Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003; Huberman & Miles, 2002). This had important ramifications for the analysis of data. For each question, the researcher identified themes and key terms that were common among the interview and focus group transcripts, many of which were identifiable during the process of data collection. These were entered into Nvivo as nodes, and sections of each transcript were tied to these nodes to identify the breadth and depth of the identified themes. This allowed for other questions and areas of focus to be incorporated in later interviews and the focus groups, thereby improving the data collection through constant comparative analysis (Huberman & Miles, 2002). Many of the nodes were identified based on answers to specific
questions (e.g. “quality teaching in department” for the question “Is quality teaching talked about and/or valued in your department?”). Other nodes developed as the researcher recognized patterns of thought or repeated phrases (e.g. “class size” for every instance when a participant discussed this issue). As transcripts and documents were imported into Nvivo 7, the researcher reviewed each line, tagging phrases and paragraphs to specific nodes. During the analysis, then, the researcher was able to open a specific node and see each instance where that node was discussed or referred to. This was extremely helpful as the researcher analyzed the data for each research question (see Table 3).

While the Nvivo 7 software is designed to analyze qualitative data, SPSS, a statistical software program, was required to analyze the survey and inventory data. Once the data was exported out of the SNAP survey software, it was imported into SPSS for data analysis. The researcher used the statistical power of SPSS to identify the frequencies of each response to the survey questions, as well as mean responses and standard deviations for certain questions. Since the primary data collection methods for this case study were interviews and focus groups, no other statistical analysis was completed. For the Approaches to Teaching Inventory, each individual faculty member’s responses were divided by scale (ITTF or CCSF) and the mean and standard deviation was identified (as per the instructions highlighted in Appendix A). Many variables in the demographic data were also used to combine the individual means into one mean score (and standard deviation) by category. These data were used to triangulate data at a few key points in the data analysis (see Chapter 4). The use of data from the survey and inventory can be seen clearly in Table 3.
While a qualitative study is less focused on the validity and reliability of data (Huberman & Miles, 2002), it was important that some steps be taken to ensure that the study was credible, and also that the researcher collected both sufficient and trustworthy data. The most important step the qualitative researcher can take involves validating the accuracy and truthfulness of data collected through document analysis, the inventory, the interviews, focus groups, and through the closeness of the researcher to the case in question (Creswell, 2007). Creswell provided a list of eight procedures that can help the researcher establish credibility, suggesting that at least two procedures be used for every study. In this study, three of Creswell’s procedures were used. First, data were reported in a rich, thick descriptive format to allow readers to review for credibility with full knowledge of the case. Secondly, all data sources were compared throughout the collection and analysis process in order to validate the results through triangulation (Creswell, 2003). Finally, the study was validated through member-checking (Creswell). The researcher asked all participants to review transcripts for veracity. Interview and focus group participants were asked to verify whether the conversation printed in the transcript was accurate as they remembered it, and also that their words were reported truthfully. Overall, the process of member-checking can improve the study’s construct validity (Yin, 1984). In these ways, the researcher worked to provide a credible and valid description of the case in question.

Ethical issues

As Leedy and Ormrod (2005) noted, the principle of informed consent is as critical to qualitative methods as it is to a more quantitative study. It was important,
therefore, that all of the participants of the study be informed of the work and have the choice to participate. All participants were assured that confidentiality, privacy, and anonymity was paramount throughout the process of the study. These protections were achieved in various ways throughout the study. First, the proposed study went before the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the university and followed all IRB guidelines. Second, the survey software was designed to retain respondent anonymity at all times; the researcher had a record of which participants completed the survey, but the raw data had no identifying tie to the participants themselves. Only those faculty members who agreed to be interviewed were required to identify themselves as they completed the inventory. Third, informed consent documents were required for all interview and focus group participants, with the added measure of requiring in the focus group consent document that participants keep the responses of all other participants confidential. For the survey, the informed consent language was included in the email faculty members received, identifying their rights and making clear that by completing and submitting the survey, they were giving their informed consent. Fourth, all data, files, and notes were only accessible to the researcher from the beginning of data collection through final data analysis, and the data will remain anonymous as per IRB stipulations. Finally, the researcher used pseudonyms for all interview and focus group participants. Through these procedures, the researcher provided protection for all case study participants.

Limitations

While the researcher worked to mitigate the effects of any limitations that existed, there were some limitations inherent in doing case study research. One of the limitations
of this study was the fact that it reflects the culture of only one institution, a liberal arts, primarily teaching university in the Midwest. While qualitative approaches such as the case study are important to the education field (Merriam & Simpson, 1995), they are not easily generalizable to the entire population, i.e. all universities (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). It is assumed, however, that the study provided useful findings for other primarily teaching higher education institutions.

Another limitation inherent in this case study was the immersion of the researcher into the culture being studied, which can introduce bias (Stewart, 1998) and cause the researcher, as an insider, to have difficulty making “the strange familiar” (Spindler & Spindler, 1982, p. 23), or recognizing patterns of thought and behavior within the setting due to familiarity with it (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Also, the researcher is “neither omniscient or omnipotent” (Shaffir, 1999, p. 685), making it difficult to recognize and address all of the facets of the culture in question. It is important to case study research, however, that the researcher be a participant observer in the setting, which makes this limitation necessary for the study.

A third limitation, characteristic of qualitative studies in general, was the researcher’s reliance on research participants as the primary form of data. It is the participants’ perspectives, stories, and experiences that make up the data for this study. This introduces the possibility that participants provide inaccurate information, misperceptions, and biased interpretation of events (Huberman & Miles, 2002; Shaffir, 1999). Since interviews and focus groups were the primary data collection methods, participants may also have been influenced in unintended ways by the researcher or fellow participants.
CHAPTER 4. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

Introduction

The purpose of this case study was the identification of faculty and administrator perceptions of teaching, the scholarship of teaching and learning, and the culture of teaching and scholarship at Midwest Teaching University, a small, private institution that calls itself a “teaching institution.” In order to do this, the researcher administered a survey, including demographic questions and the revised Approaches to Teaching Inventory (Trigwell et al., 2005a), which identifies faculty conceptions of teaching. Sixteen full-time faculty members were chosen to participate in a follow-up interview to compare their conceptions of teaching with two important areas: their perceived need for teaching development and their perceptions of the scholarship of teaching and learning. These two comparisons were in direct response to two of the four secondary research questions for this study. In addition to the 16 interviews, four focus groups were convened: two for full-time faculty, one for department chairs, and one for academic deans. Their responses, in conjunction with interview participant responses and the analysis of key university documents, to the various questions posed to them related to teaching and scholarship at the university formed the basis for two final secondary questions in this study: “How do faculty perceptions of teaching and scholarship compare with those of administrators at the same university?” and “What are faculty and administrators’ perceptions of the institution’s culture of, and commitment to, teaching
and the scholarship of teaching and learning?” This chapter provides a discussion of the data findings derived from the described sources and used to address the primary research question: “What are the perceptions of teaching, the scholarship of teaching and learning, and the culture of teaching and scholarship held by faculty and administrators in one Midwest teaching university?”

Description of the Case

Midwest Teaching University

Midwest Teaching University, a private, four-year, Christian, Midwest higher education institution, is a traditional, liberal arts university with a strong, proud focus on its status as a teaching institution. It is strongly affiliated with a denominational church, shown through its central mission of providing quality Christian education. The university has been teaching-focused throughout its over 100 years of service to students, and this focus continues today. The university is divided into four undergraduate schools and colleges, including the School of Education, School of Theology and Christian Ministry, the School of Professional Studies, the College of Arts and Sciences, as well as one graduate school, called the School of Graduate and Continuing Studies. The School of Professional Studies includes departments whose degrees lead to professions such as Business, Computer Science, Nursing, Social Work, and others. The College of Arts and Sciences, on the other hand, focuses on the areas such as sciences, art, music, mathematics, and English. In total, the university offers over 100 undergraduate degrees of study and over 20 associate’s, continuing studies, or master’s degree programs. MTU is a liberal arts institution, with a list of core courses all students take in addition to the
courses within the major’s curriculum. With an undergraduate population of close to 2,500 students and close to 2,000 graduate students, the university is quickly growing, announcing record enrollments for the last 12 years.

The university is “unapologetically a teaching institution,” and this is evidenced in a number of ways based on institutional documents such as the catalog and Faculty Handbook (2004). Faculty members at the university have, until recently, had a 28 hour teaching load each year. This was lowered to 24 within the last two years. The university prides itself on keeping the student-faculty ratio low, with an average of 20:1 over the last ten years. Faculty are required to be involved in advising, committee work, and are asked to be involved with students and in support of university initiatives. Each faculty member is required to submit an annual evaluation that includes evidence of their teaching ability, their relationships with students, their scholarly activities, their spiritual commitments, and other areas the university deems important. With this evaluation, faculty must also submit the results of peer observations and end-of-course evaluations from students. These annual evaluations are evaluated annually by the department chair and reviewed by university administrators.

When faculty members are ready to apply for promotions, the same categories that are reviewed annually are reviewed again in order to evaluate the readiness of faculty to move on. Promotions require years of experience, certain levels of graduate work, and evidence of effective teaching and scholarship. There are not, however, specific requirements for the amount of research and scholarship done by faculty, nor for the level of quality demonstrated through teaching-related evaluations. Most requirements deal with teaching, but it is also clear that university support primarily goes toward staying
current in the field, not teaching or research. Financial support includes paying for conferences, for part of the professional organization fees the faculty members are responsible for each year, and for advanced degrees. A few monetary awards are given each year for faculty, and recognition is given to faculty for years of service, for scholarship, and for teaching through the inclusion of faculty accomplishments in an annual program. In terms of faculty development, the university has an orientation program focused on faculty orientation to university policies and procedures, and a faculty development committee oversees one faculty meeting a semester and occasionally offers outside development opportunities. Overall, the focus of the university is on teaching and the students, demonstrated by the high emphasis on teaching loads, advising, teaching-related evaluation, and the lack of faculty research or scholarship requirements.

*Full-Time Faculty Characteristics*

One of the initial tasks of the researcher was to identify who the full-time faculty at the university were based on specific demographic questions. While the introduction of multiple demographic questions like these can cause participant concern that their individual responses, taken together, may make anonymity impossible, only one faculty member elected not to respond to these questions, and one other faculty member chose not to respond to a few of them. The first question related to the age of the faculty member, and these ages were combined into five categories (see Table 4). The mean age of the faculty who completed the survey was 48, with the youngest faculty member at 25 and the oldest at 69.
Table 4

*Surveyed Faculty by Age Range*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>35.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>63.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>97.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65-74</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>97.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Missing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>System</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Faculty were also asked to identify what department they teach in, and these departments were categorized based on the School or College they reside in (Table 5).

Table 5

*Surveyed Faculty by School/College*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School/College</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arts and Sciences</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>48.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>56.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Studies</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>90.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theology and Christian Ministry</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>98.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
40 (74.1%) of the 54 faculty in the College of Arts and Sciences, seven (77.8%) of the nine faculty in the School of Education, 28 (68.3%) of the 41 faculty in the School of Professional Studies, and eight (72.7%) of the 11 faculty in the School of Theology and Christian Ministry responded to the survey.

The faculty were also asked to identify how many years they have worked at the institution (Table 6) and how many years they have been in higher education (Table 7).

Table 6

Surveyed Faculty by Years at This University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2 years</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-6 years</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>44.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-12 years</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>62.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-20 years</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>81.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>94.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-41 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>98.8</td>
<td></td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean number of years the faculty reported at the institution was 11 years, with a range of 1 to 41, while the mean number of years faculty reported in higher education was a little bit higher, 13 years, with a range of 1 to 41 also. Finally, the faculty members
were asked to identify whether they had teaching experience prior to becoming a professor (Table 8), with a high percentage reporting prior experience in teaching.

Table 7

*Surveyed Faculty by Years in Higher Education*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cum. Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-2 years</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-6 years</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>36.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-12 years</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>52.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-20 years</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>73.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30 years</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>92.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-41 years</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>97.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8

*Did you have teaching experience prior to becoming a professor?*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>System</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Each of these questions was intended to identify the demographics of the faculty who responded to the survey in order to provide both information and to provide categories for comparison with other data collected in this study.

Conceptions of Teaching

In order to identify the relationship between faculty conceptions of teaching and their perceived need for teaching development (1a), as well as faculty conceptions of teaching and their conceptions of the scholarship of teaching and learning, the revised Approaches to Teaching Inventory (ATI-R) (Trigwell et al., 2005a) was used. The ATI-R measures faculty conceptions of teaching on two scales: the Information Transfer/Teacher-focused scale (ITTF) and the Conceptual Change/Student-Focused scale (CCSF). Each scale consists of 11 response items (Table 9), and the scoring of each scale is based on the mean of all item responses in that scale. Each participant receives a score for both the ITTF and CCSF scale, and standard deviations are also reported.

Table 9

*ATI-R Scales and Their Related Response Items*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Response Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ITTF</td>
<td>1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 10, 11, 12, 16, 19, 22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCSF</td>
<td>3, 5, 7, 8, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 20, 21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 119 full-time faculty members, one had recently left the university and one is the researcher, so the total population of full-time faculty was 117. Of those 117, 83 faculty members (70.9%) completed all or most of the ATI-R. Five faculty members left ITTF
scale items unanswered, and seven faculty left CCSF scale items unanswered, with a total of seven faculty members who did not complete the ATI-R fully. While individual scores could not be computed for these faculty members, if they did complete one of the scales fully, their mean score for that scale was included in the calculation of group means.

Table 10

ATI-R Mean Scores by Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scales</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITTF (n=62)</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCSF (n=63)</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITTF (n=16)</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCSF (n=16)</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITTF (n=78)</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCSF (n=79)</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This explains why the number of participants differs between scales, with 78 (66.7%) total ITTF scale scores and 79 (67.5%) total CCSF scale scores (see Table 10).

Each of the 16 interview participants was given a pseudonym and results were compiled (see Table 11). One of the challenges of the research design was the fact that interview participants were chosen prior to the completion of the ATI-R, meaning that there was not a randomized sample of individuals taken from the entire populations’ ATI-R scores. In comparing the mean score of the faculty as a whole to the mean score of the 16 interviewees, it is clear that the difference between the ITTF and CCSF scales was
more strongly pronounced among the interviewees, with CCSF being the stronger of the two.

Table 11

_Interview Participants’ ATI-R Scores_

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>School/College</th>
<th>ITTF</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>CCSF</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chris</td>
<td>Full</td>
<td>Theology</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emma</td>
<td>Associate</td>
<td>Arts and Sciences</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fred</td>
<td>Full</td>
<td>Arts and Sciences</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genevieve</td>
<td>Full</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George</td>
<td>Full</td>
<td>Arts and Sciences</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harry</td>
<td>Assistant</td>
<td>Arts and Sciences</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jack</td>
<td>Assistant</td>
<td>Theology</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James</td>
<td>Full</td>
<td>Arts and Sciences</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jessica</td>
<td>Associate</td>
<td>Arts and Sciences</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td>Assistant</td>
<td>Professional Studies</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joshua</td>
<td>Full</td>
<td>Professional Studies</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martin</td>
<td>Assistant</td>
<td>Professional Studies</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Molly</td>
<td>Full</td>
<td>Professional Studies</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pamela</td>
<td>Assistant</td>
<td>Professional Studies</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sarah</td>
<td>Assistant</td>
<td>Professional Studies</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stephen</td>
<td>Full</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEANS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The faculty who were not interviewed, according to the mean scores, ended up with almost identical ITTF and CCSF scores. As a whole, the interview participants did have a small effect on the overall mean for each scale. Several factors could have had an influence here, including the lack of anonymity provided to interviewees, the interviewees’ awareness that their results would be compared with interview data, or it could simply have been the lack of random selection in the choice of the purposeful sample.

Conception of Teaching and Perceived Need for Development

Once the interviewed faculty members’ conceptions of teaching were identified, the researcher used responses from the interviews to identify each faculty member’s perceived need for development. While they were not asked directly about their perceived need for development, in each case, their understanding of their need and the approach they take to address that need became clear. Based on their responses to questions asked throughout the interview, four key variables were identified as being important determining factors in the faculty member’s overall understanding of perceived need:

1. Do they recognize a personal need to develop in their teaching?
2. Do they recognize a need for help from others?
3. Is their focus on teaching or on content/keeping current in the field?
4. Are they actively working to develop as teachers?

Each participant’s responses to the four questions were used to identify the level of perceived need for teaching development and the level of active development that
participant engaged in. Once this was identified for each participant, the research
identified five categories that each of the participants could be placed in (see Table 12).

Table 12

*Interview Participants by Level of Perceived Need and Level of Development*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Perceived Need</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Continual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Emma</td>
<td>Chris</td>
<td>Fred</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joshua</td>
<td>Jack</td>
<td>Stephen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Martin</td>
<td>James</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>John</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Harry</td>
<td></td>
<td>Genevieve</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pamela</td>
<td></td>
<td>Jessica</td>
<td>Sarah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Genevieve</td>
<td>George</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Molly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The categories, the faculty placed into the categories, and the faculty members’ ATI-R
scores are reported in Table 14. The following paragraphs highlight how faculty within
these categories describe their needs and practices related to teaching development,
followed by a description of how these relate to their conceptions of teaching.

The first group of faculty, Emma, Joshua, and Martin, were identified in the Low
Need/Low Development category due to their focus on gaining content knowledge over a
need to develop in their teaching. Emma, an associate professor, for example, considers
herself to be an academic and chose the teaching profession because she loves to learn.
Describing her approach to teaching, she said,
I think I’m always looking for a new way to present information. My way of doing research is the same way I prep for a class…I just start doing research and then it starts expanding out and I get all these directions that I want to go. The trick is to bring it back and make sense out of it.

As is seen here, her approach is very content-focused, highlighted later as she described the need to stay “vibrant” by continuing her own research and learning. All three of the faculty in this category identified small ways in which they had improved their teaching and use of teaching strategies, but also noted that they did not actively or formally work on how they teach. Instead, their focus was on content and staying current in their field. Joshua, a full professor, in answering a question about whether he works to develop his teaching, said, “From a content standpoint, yes. I don’t know that I deliberately say, ‘well, I want to improve in this technique and that technique.’” Martin, an assistant professor, also described a focus on content and his lack of focus on improving his teaching when he answered the same question. While Martin, like Emma and Joshua, did describe areas where they could improve as teachers, when describing what they need to do, their responses gravitated towards keeping current in the field. Martin initially described the scholarship of teaching this way:

I have an obligation to share material, I have an obligation to stay up on material on my what specialty is. And to share those advances, modify my curriculum to reflect those advances, and then teach that to my students…Scholarship of teaching means to stay on top of your topic, integrate that within your curriculum, and then present it to the students.

While he went on to discuss pedagogy and needs he has to become better as a teacher, like Martin, all of the faculty members in this category seemed to identify their need primarily in content knowledge collection.
The second category, High Need/Low Development, identifies two faculty members who are highly aware of their need to improve their teaching but describe a lack of time to spend doing so. Both Harry and Pamela relayed disappointment both in how they teach and how much time they have to spend improving their teaching. Harry, an assistant professor, just completed his first year of full-time college teaching and was clearly unhappy with his teaching. When asked how he approached a typical classroom session, he began by saying, “Yeah, you’ll be interested in this, I bet, as an educator, because I think my approach really stinks.” He later described himself this way: “I’m thinking of myself as a reactionary preparing for class and not wanting to look like the idiot.” When asked whether he works to develop as a teacher, he said:

Not wisely. I don’t do it well if I do it. And I do it. I work so stinkin’ hard at this. I work hard to prepare for each class, yes. I have checked out a couple books on college teaching, teaching methods, try to put those into practice a bit, but, I think, in the end, its still kind of this nervous reaction to a class I have in three hours. You know what I mean? Rather than a really smart setting up of a class in advance.

He clearly recognizes his need to spend time improving how he approaches his teaching, but feels that his time and energy now need to be focused on making it through the next class. Like Harry, Pamela, a fellow assistant professor who is involved in administrative duties as well, is also frustrated with her teaching and the time she has available. She described a situation where a student challenged her knowledge on an important topic in her field and the frustration that it caused her, with her response being “Whoa. That should never happen. That disappoints me in terms of my teaching.” In her response to a question on whether she works to develop her teaching, she said,

I wish I could. I mean, really, I wish I could. That is my biggest disappointment. That the time that’s left over in the day, I mean, I have the choice: I can eat, I can
sleep, I can develop my teaching. We’re getting down to that. And I’m not sure if it’s because of the way that I’m organized or not. I’m not sure why. Other people seem to have it together, or maybe that’s the key: they “seem” to have it together and I don’t always. I’m looking for the day that I can really spend some quality time. I do spend some time. I mean, I’m always reading, but I’m reading right before I go into the classroom. I don’t want to have to do that.

In both Pamela and Harry’s case, the need to spend time is clearly evident, but time itself is illusive.

The third category, Moderate Need/Moderate Development contains those faculty members whose need for development is made clear by their active focus on teaching and teaching strategies in their work. These participants, however, develop based on their own experiences and do not feel the need to spend much time seeking help from outside resources and colleagues. Chris, Jack, James, and John each spend time reflecting on how they teach, trying new strategies within the classroom environment, and seriously considering how their actions affect student learning, but none of them described outside resources, such as conferences, education-related reading, or professional development activities that helped them do so. Chris, a full professor, for example, described his serious use of student evaluation data, as well as describing his use of tests:

As a measure of my teaching effectiveness as much as a measure of what they’ve learned. For example, whenever I give a test, if there’s one question everybody, or the majority of class, misses, I give it to them. Evidently, that’s not a failure on their part, that’s a failure on my part. So I think tests are a measure of the prof’s effectiveness, also.

James, another full professor, also spends time reviewing his teaching and highlighted the importance of course evaluation data when he said,

Usually, it’s the first thing I look at after I turn in the grades. I go down through, and of course being a numbers person, I numerically tabulate everything. Certainly if there are multiple comments pertaining to a certain issue, I will make note of that and make note as to what needs to be changed… what I will often do
when I teach a course is to go back to the last time I taught the course or the last couple times I taught the course and read back through just to see if there is something... you know, if there is something substantial, I try to make a note of it and try to make the change before the next time it rolls around, but sometimes there are subtler things that maybe come up. Maybe just a realization that I need to spend a little more time on this topic because some of the students didn’t quite get it. So then I go back and make use of the data that way.

While both Chris and James spend time developing their teaching, they do not necessarily base that on what is happening outside of their classroom. John, an assistant professor, when asked whether he works to develop his teaching, said

I don’t sit here and read “How can I be a better auditory teacher?” I’m not a big fan... I like reading, but only reading the stuff that I like. You know? And so with things like that, I would much rather have a person talk to me and tell me about that. “Here are some ideas of doing that.” I would listen better.

Jack, another assistant professor, answered this question in a similar fashion, clearly calling his approach informal:

I would say yes. I don’t know that I do it in a formal way... I think the thing that forces me to do that is that I’m constantly revising my syllabus for my class and thinking of new ways to present the material. How do I change things and make it more exciting. I tell students that I take their end-of-course evaluations really seriously, and I really want them to do it. In fact, I tell them that it will affect their grade if they don’t. And I make it clear that I’ll never know what answers they gave, but I want them to do it. Because I read through them, and I tell them I particularly read through the comments section, because I need to know if this is making a difference.

Jack goes on to describe his participation in a teaching-related conference each year, but notes that the actual improvements he makes to his teaching come from student feedback. John, like Chris, Jack, and James, described an informal, very personal, approach to teaching development that was based primarily on his own experiences in the classroom.

Overall, the faculty members in this category recognize a need for improvement, but do not necessarily view learning about teaching from outside resources as a priority.
While the third category is made up of faculty who expressed their need for development by pursuing change within their own classrooms, the fourth category, High Need/Active Development, encompasses those faculty who epitomize the active, full pursuit of teaching development through personal reflection, attending workshops and conferences, attending professional development on campus, observing others’ teaching, and other learning avenues. Genevieve, a full professor, for example, when asked how she works to develop her teaching, responded,

Attending a variety of workshops and conferences has been very supportive for me. Talking to other college personnel, reading journals in the field… so those have been great influences. Also, our interactions among ourselves as college professors, I think, has been great insight. Not to say I do it all right by any means, but I try to make progress and improve based on what I see students need and what others are doing as well as what we’re reading and knowing is valuable…I actually try some things that I’ve read about or studied about. So, it isn’t just listening to them but actually coming back and applying it…Another thought that helps me to know that I’m trying to keep abreast is actually taking some of the material that I work with and then presenting it at conferences.

Genevieve has clearly moved beyond developing on her own, focusing instead on the literature, conferences, and discussions with colleagues to help her improve. In a similar fashion, George, a full professor, highlighted the multiple ways that he actively approaches teaching development:

There a variety of ways that I continue to try to refine it. One is that I continue to give attention to various learning styles. How do students pick up the information most effectively? …So I try to incorporate a variety of different kinds of ways to get at the same information…And then there outside kinds of experiences, places they can go. I try to find online resources, places that explain it a little differently. And then also, I try to attend at least one conference or seminar every year. Now, because I teach such a wide range of different concepts within our department, I try to rotate each year what sort of thing I’m dealing with… Most of these conferences I attend end up having a pedagogy component, or “pedagogy” even in the title.
Like Genevieve and George, Jessica, an associate professor, initially described the work she does to develop her teaching one way, but then added a unique aspect of her work that provides further proof of her need for development and active pursuit of that development. As she noted,

[A colleague] and I, just this very morning, finished a collaborative article based on research on our new composition course. We had a feeling that more students were dropping since we changed the course and kind of ratcheted it up a couple of notches. And when we looked at the data, it turns out they’re not really dropping it in higher numbers, but in looking at student responses to the survey, we learned some other things about our students and who we are and how we need to be adjusting our pedagogy because today’s first-year composition student is the not the same as the ones who came through our doors even five years ago. And sometimes when you’re a veteran teacher, you kind of lose sight of that. Those changes kind of happen, but if you’re not keeping an eye on that, it’s easy to focus on other things. So that was really helpful for us to say, “Oh yeah, this is a different kind of student that we’re getting, and here are some adjustments that we need to make so we’re more effective in the classroom.”

Jessica’s involvement in research on her students shows a level of concern for teaching improvement not seen in most of the other interviewees. But her overall focus matches the active pursuit of pedagogical need fulfillment by the other faculty in this category through various formal activities and approaches.

The other two faculty members in the High Need/Active Development category also affirmed their need for improvement in teaching while describing the multiple forms of teaching development they pursue, but they share one pursuit that is unique among the group: they each pursued doctoral work in Education, not in their field. Sarah, an assistant professor, described a focus on conferences and networking, but she primarily identified her pursuit of pedagogical courses through her doctoral work, noting that she chose the doctoral program,
Because that’s where I lack the knowledge. I am not a teacher. I am a nurse. I know nursing, and I continue to read the journals and continue to update my knowledge base in my particular field, my particular specialty. But I did not know how to teach. And so that’s where the lack of knowledge was at.

By choosing this avenue, Sarah clearly recognized her weaknesses and worked to develop herself through the classes she has taken. She is currently working on her dissertation in an area that brings her content and her pedagogy together. She is one of six (37.5%) interviewees who have pursued an education-related doctorate, based on the degree each faculty member lists on their university website biography, and one of 25 (21.4%) faculty overall who have done so (see Table 13).

Table 13

*Full-time Faculty Terminal Degree Types*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terminal Degree</th>
<th>Interviewees</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>All Faculty</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ph.D.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>43.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph.D. Candidate</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph.D. Candidate in Education</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>18.8%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ed.D.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>18.7%</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ed.D. Candidate</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.A.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate in Discipline (J.D., D.M.A., etc.)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's - Discipline</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's - Education</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's candidate - Discipline</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Like Sarah and others, Molly also focused her dissertation on an educational topic within the context of her discipline. As she admits, her primary avenue for development in the recent past has been her dissertation work, and she later describes her involvement in presenting at conferences on education-related topics. In addressing whether the university helps faculty become better teachers, she further describes the work of watching others, saying,

I’ve become a better teacher. I just don’t think it’s necessarily because of an act to pull us… because we have a lot of good teachers here. If you are at all competitive, you want to meet the… I want to be as good as these… in my department, so it helps me to keep a standard up or become better, and I gain a lot of knowledge from, or tactics, and they probably do the same. I think we all share. So because we have a lot of good teachers, I think you become a better teacher.

Ultimately, both Sarah and Molly have pursued teaching development uniquely by gearing their dissertation work toward teaching in their discipline, yet they, like the other faculty in this category, do not limit themselves to that. They demonstrate that their need for development requires pursuits in multiple formats.

While the types of pursuits made a difference in the faculty in the fourth category, another key difference between the third and the fourth categories was the way these faculty members directly identified their needs and reflected on the tie between needs, teaching development, and scholarship. Genevieve, George, Sarah, and Jessica all echoed the need to be life-long learners, and also highlighted the importance of basing their approach to teaching on research. Sarah, like the research project Jessica undertook with a colleague on her students, described the need for this type of research when she said,

In order to develop effective teaching strategies, you’ve got to try them out. You’ve got to research them, you’ve got to find out about them. You’ve got to see what’s being done and say, “well, that’s not working. Let’s try something different.” You’ve got to look at your student, your student body, not just the
students you have, but at the whole population and say, “what kind of population do we have here? What are their needs? Are they different than other college populations?”

And while Jessica had discussed her individual research, she also discussed the need for her teaching to be scholarly, saying,

I guess that fact that what I do in practical terms in the classroom is based on research. I’m not just blindly doing it, and I’m not just doing it because that’s what I was taught. I understand what the philosophical underpinnings are. Why that’s a best practice, and what kind of theorizing is behind it.

Like Jessica, all of the faculty participants in this category expressed a strong desire to learn, to apply, and to improve, not only through their activities, but also through their reflections on teaching and their focus on the literature and individual research. These participants showed a clear desire and need to improve and a strong willingness to actively and constantly pursue their development.

Faculty in the final category, Moderate Need/Continual Development, identified development activities they have pursued in the past, as well as noted a high need for those activities, but seemed to show less need for further development. Fred and Stephen, both full professors with years of teaching experience, definitely advocated for the need of faculty to improve and be given opportunity to do so, but many of their comments were in past tense. It should be noted that these faculty are clearly aware of the need for all faculty to be continually development, and they continue to develop themselves, but because of their experience, active, deliberate teaching development seems to be no longer required. Instead, there was a clear interest in helping those around them and giving back to the teaching profession. Fred, a full professor, for example, clearly sees development as a continual process, highlighting that,
I’ve always had a focus on the student as far as learner. That’s always been true, but as I’ve learned and studied a bit about the pedagogical world, I’ve added a lot of things along the line as a lot of patterns. I got away from the guessing game of what I anticipate students to know and learned that pretty early on. We had workshops on behavioral objectives, that type of thing, and we had some good, excellent presentations along those lines that assisted me and getting that whole thing oriented along that way. I converted the entire curriculum, I was the only teacher, converted the entire curriculum to a behavioral model. In fact, I published a paper on that particular one as an example of how you can do that kind of thing. So, I’ve had quite an evolution in all of that and continue to do so. I've tried lots of different approaches, and you know with online classes and everything else, you keep modifying as you go through. So, I consider it a rolling ball. Always a process.

Fred, as evidenced by the published paper, has reached a point where his focus has shifted from his own development to the development of others, shown both through his interest in students as scholars, but also in his interest in helping other faculty develop. In describing his scholarly pursuits, he identifies this desire by saying,

I’ve written a lot of papers and whatnot. In more recent years, the papers I’ve written have been sometimes compilations of student works together. Often educationally related things, so that, in other words, how to do something or whatever like that. Those kinds of projects that are more in the educational world than they are in the actual sort of serious hard research types of things that you might do in the laboratory or the field…But now, in my position right now, I find myself slightly removed from that in the sense that now I’m stimulating new faculty, younger faculty, to work with students to develop a research program that they are functioning with. So mine is sort of one step back, but it’s assisting them in providing and getting the financial support they need, or whatever other kinds of support they need, to accomplish those kind of goals.

For Fred, seeing others grow into effective teachers and scholars has become his main focus as he nears retirement, yet his continued interest in personal growth and development is evident.

In a similar fashion to Fred, Stephen, with over 30 years of teaching experience at the elementary and college level, understands the need for continued development while, at the same time, feels ready to give back to those around him. When asked whether it
was difficult for him to leave the elementary classroom to become a college professor, he said,

It was. It was hard. And even today, one of my favorite things about this job is getting back into the classroom. Just being in that environment, watching those student teachers teach, bringing all the experience that I have into that. You know, constantly assessing... I always see myself up there teaching. What would I have done differently? I think you sort of get this teacher mentality, where you’re always thinking about “how would I do it if I was up there?”

Stephen has a clear need for personal development that has been engrained in him throughout his teaching career. While his main focus is on his students becoming better teachers, he is also giving back to colleagues within his department, noting that,

I’ve had a lot of informal conversations with other faculty members during lunch or whatever, sort of sharing what’s been working and what hasn’t, particularly among some of our new faculty. They’ve come and asked, you know, “how do you work out some of the things you’re doing in your classroom?” You know, asking some of the same questions that I was asking 12 years ago... I think that’s been very helpful. I appreciate the fact that the people we work with in the School of Education seem to be very open and enjoy talking about what’s going on.

One unique aspect of Stephen is the fact that his content area is teaching, so his work is now focused on helping others become effective teachers. Conferences he attends, for example, are content-oriented, but that content is instruction. So he spends his days working to assist his students, as well as his education colleagues, in improving their teaching. Recently, however, he has also begun participating in the university’s new faculty orientation program, providing his expertise by addressing teaching and teaching strategies with them. When asked whether the university helps develop faculty as teachers, he said,

If they do, I’m not aware of it. And it’s like you said: I’m in a little different situation because my area is instructional methodology. That’s what I do, so I’m very aware of it. I think [this university] is pretty typical of a lot of universities in that we hire people for what they know, not whether they can teach effectively or
not. So could the university do more?... Absolutely. I think we could. I think it’s sort of a touchy situation. I think you sort of run the risk of insulting people, perhaps. But, I still think it’s very important that people who come into the university who have little or no teaching experience, I think it’s important for them to understand that teaching is an art. And primarily, your job is to teach information effectively so that our focus isn’t so much that our students just regurgitate back what we’ve taught them, but the bigger question is, have they done things in the classroom that have showed us that they can apply what we taught them...The bigger question is, can you take that information and apply it so that it makes you a better teacher? So I think every professor has to ask that question.

Stephen has a different perspective because of the experience he has and the studying he has done on the learning process, but it is evident that he understands the need for faculty to develop and has shown his interest in being a part of that process. Both Stephen and Fred have chosen to give back and help others, while at the same time, have continued the life long process of learning.

For each of the categories of perceived need, faculty members were grouped based on their responses to interview questions related to teaching development, scholarship pursuits, and institutional support for faculty in order to identify whether any patterns emerge when these groupings are compared with their ATI-R scores. This was done to provide some further insight into how approach to teaching is related to the perceived needs of faculty to develop into better teachers (see Table 14). While some of the categories do not have enough faculty participants to relate these definitively, some patterns emerge in the comparisons that are worth noting. In the Low Need/Low Development category, despite the fact that in the interview, faculty reported a stronger focus on content knowledge, not teaching, all three faculty had higher student-focused (CCSF) scores. In two of the three cases, however, the scores for both CCSF and ITTF were close and were strong (close to 4 out of 5). In the High Need/Low Development
category, both of the faculty who described a high need for development, but a lack of time, reported a strong CCSF score as well, with one reporting equal scores in ITTF and CCSF, and the other reporting a CCSF score over a point higher than the ITTF score.

Table 14

*Interview Participant ATI-R Scores Categorized by Perceived Need for Teaching Development*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of Perceived Need for Teaching Development</th>
<th>Interview Participant</th>
<th>ATI-R Scores (ITTF, SD, CCSF, SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low Need/Low Development</td>
<td>Emma</td>
<td>4.09 (0.70), 4.55 (0.69)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joshua</td>
<td>2.82 (0.60), 3.73 (0.65)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Martin</td>
<td>3.82 (1.40), 4.09 (1.22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Need/Low Development</td>
<td>Harry</td>
<td>2.73 (0.79), 4.45 (0.52)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pamela</td>
<td>4.00 (0.45), 4.00 (1.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate Need/Moderate Development</td>
<td>Chris</td>
<td>3.64 (0.92), 3.64 (1.36)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jack</td>
<td>3.18 (0.87), 3.09 (1.14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>James</td>
<td>4.18 (0.98), 2.64(1.12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>John</td>
<td>3.73 (1.01), 3.45 (0.93)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Need/Active Development</td>
<td>Genevieve</td>
<td>3.45 (1.2), 4.55 (0.52)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jessica</td>
<td>3.45 (0.69), 3.73 (1.19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sarah</td>
<td>2.45 (1.04), 3.91 (0.54)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>George</td>
<td>2.82 (0.98), 4.00 (0.45)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Molly</td>
<td>2.64 (1.12), 4.45 (0.82)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate Need/Continual Development</td>
<td>Fred</td>
<td>3.82 (0.40), 3.18 (1.40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stephen</td>
<td>2.18 (1.33), 4.91 (0.30)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In both of the first two categories, where there is little development of teaching occurring, four of the five faculty reported stronger CCSF scores, with the fifth reporting an equal score on both scales.

Some interesting patterns also emerged in the comparisons between faculty who reported a higher need for development in the interviews and their individual ATI-R scores. Of those participants in the Moderate Need/Moderate Development category, three reported higher ITTF scores and one reported an equal ITTF and CCSF score, indicating a stronger focus on teacher and information transfer, not the student and conceptual change, within this group. Only one of the participant’s scores, however, were more than a point apart. The other three had equal or close to equal scores on both scales. In the High Need/Active Development category, all five reported higher CCSF scale scores, with four of them reporting a CCSF score over a point higher than the ITTF score. Adding in participants from the Moderate Need/Continual Development category, six of the seven faculty members in the last two categories reported higher CCSF scores, and five of these had a CCSF score over a point higher than their ITTF scale score. The only faculty member who did not report a higher CCSF score was Fred, a full professor who described his work in the interview as being student-focused despite a high ITTF score. Removing Fred’s scores, overall, the faculty in the Moderate Need/Moderate Development all reported a stronger focus on the teacher and information transmission, while the faculty in the last two categories reported a strong, and in most cases much stronger, focus on the student and conceptual change. While further study would be required to define these relationships further, the exploration of this connection between
Conception of teaching and perceived need has elicited some clear patterns related to the perception of need and the activity of faculty based on that need.

Conception of Teaching and Scholarship of Teaching and Learning

In a similar fashion to the comparison between faculty conceptions of teaching and their perceived need to develop their teaching, a second question in this study focused on the relationship between faculty conceptions of teaching and their conceptions of the scholarship of teaching and learning. In order to identify faculty conceptions of the scholarship of teaching, responses from the 16 interviewed faculty in the current study were collected from questions related to approach to teaching, understanding of scholarship of teaching, scholarly pursuits, and discussion of teaching/scholarship within departments. Six conceptions of the scholarship of teaching were identified based on these responses. The conceptions move from most basic, where scholarship of teaching is simply reading the literature on teaching, to most advanced, where the scholarship of teaching is focused on improving student learning through study and research that is communicated to further the work in the discipline. The following paragraphs highlight each conception through the responses of the faculty that identified themselves within that conception.

In the first identified conception (Conception 1), the scholarship of teaching is limited to simply reading and collecting the literature on teaching, and only one faculty member fell into this category. Harry, identified as a new faculty member in the High Need/Low Development category, reported that the most he has done within the five approaches is checked out books on teaching. He admitted to reading the information, but
has not worked to make improvements based on what he’s learned, primarily due to time and the newness of his subjects. Harry also described a fear about the feedback he was receiving and his reluctance to make changes based on that feedback. When asked whether he made changes based on course evaluations, he said,

You would think that’s true. I think it’s probably… the first year, I didn’t even look at them. I literally didn’t even pull them up, didn’t want to see them. Because I thought that, “Oh, there’s going to be some comments in there that are going to ruin my week.”…This year, I think I decided to venture in there and look at a few. And they were fine. But I guess, I hate to say, even the really nice constructive ones, I glossed over, I let them warm my heart, and then I read more. And they were just lost in the shuffle. I really should go back and write down some of those better comments and find a way to shoehorn those into what I do. But I didn’t.

In all of his descriptions, it is clear that he is aware of the importance of improving his teaching, but he has not taken the time to make changes in his teaching.

Emma, like Harry, identified herself as approaching the scholarship of teaching by reading the teaching literature, but took it one step further, highlighting her focus on improving teaching based on that literature (Conception 2). She first identified her awareness of the literature when she was asked to describe the scholarship of teaching, saying,

Well, I have a little text, and I can’t remember the author… um, McKeachie. It’s doing that type of reading. Looking for ways to make myself a better teacher, and I think that’s a good place to start, and in fact, I did take one course where that was the text for that course. So when you talk about the scholarship of teaching, it’s the techniques of teaching, how to most effectively transmit materials. I don’t know if that’s what you’re looking for or not, but, to me, that’s what that says. It’s taking the art of teaching and turning that into a scholarly pursuit to make sure you are doing the best job, the most effective job that you possibly can looking at the research.

In her response, she mentions a specific book on college teaching, describing the importance of knowing what the literature says. During the interview, however, Emma
answered whether she thought the way she learns best influences how she teaches by saying,

“I’m not sure. You know, my own learning about learning styles, I realize that you have to present information in a variety of ways to kind of catch everybody. I mean, I hear someone say, “Well, I’m a very visual learner, so you have to present things…” So, no, that’s really not OK because the person next to you might be, you know, their learning style is different. So you try and present the same information in a variety of ways. I probably don’t do that enough, although I think, you know, you can do it with lecture, you can do it with video clips, you can give them journal articles to read. So, maybe I do more than I think I do. At least I’m trying to cover that much of it.

In this response, Emma both identifies teaching concepts (learning styles) she has studied and highlights her use of that concept to improve instruction. Interestingly, Emma comes close to identifying herself within Conception 3, which focuses on the simple investigation of teaching and learning in the classroom when she describes how teaching might influence research:

“I’m sure it must, because if you are teaching, there may be questions. You know, we’re all scientists; we’re all, unofficially, we’re all scientists. We all do research all the time, so if there’s something that comes up, “Yeah, I wonder how this would work, or for this particular group of students, I wonder about this. Or is there a theoretical basis for this that I can look at? Is there something developmental with this?” So, sure, I can see where teaching would drive research.

While this does reflect Conception 3, however, her use of the words “may be” and “would” highlight the possibility of this research happening, not an actual implementation of research and investigation in the classroom, which places Emma firmly in Conception 2.

Chris, James, and John were each placed into Conception 3. These three faculty members described themselves as interested in development, understanding of their need to improve their teaching, and each work hard to improve teaching and learning. They
spend time studying their own classrooms, trying out new strategies based on specific feedback from tests, grades, and student feedback. James identified his understanding of the scholarship of teaching this way:

> When I think of the scholarship of teaching in that context, where all these other areas have been separated out, in that context, I tend to think of it focused more narrowly in the idea of actually doing research, whether it’s formal or informal, whose primary intent is to improve teaching. Be it, you know, going back through course evaluations, be it trying some new things in the classroom and seeing if that seems to get more interaction, more understanding, more learning. So when I hear it in that context, I tend to narrow the focus down to those types of issues, though I think a lot of the other issues, the scholarship of application, the scholarship of discovery, can also involve the scholarship of teaching.

His response very clearly portrays a focus on student learning and improving instruction, not simply a focus on the improvement of the teacher. Like James, Chris, when asked whether teaching was a scholarly pursuit for him, responded,

> What’s the point of me having a reservoir of information if it can’t be transmitted? I mean it’s not for my sake. So I know all this stuff but I can’t communicate it to anybody else. Well that makes my head useless. So the point is to transmit. So, yeah, attention needs to be given to methodology in teaching, I think. And there is a scholarship there. Understanding how people learn. When I was learning to preach, I read books on homiletics. I read books on homiletics that dealt with the psychological dynamic of listening to a sermon, how the mind hears or how the mind processes data that is heard or even seen. And so understanding clinically how persons respond to preaching was important to me. And the same is in reference to teaching. How students hear and understand and interact. So yeah, that’s a very important component to scholarship. And I’ve had teachers who were really smart who couldn’t communicate it at all, and they were doing the profession a disservice. So I tend to the student evaluations. I take those seriously. I don’t write those off. And as I said, I use tests as evaluation of me as well as evaluation of what the student has learned.

Chris mentions studying homiletics in the past, but when it comes to teaching, he focuses on student evaluations and tests. Like Chris, John also highlights this discrepancy. It is clear that the changes Chris and John make are student-centered: they are based on what they hear from students and from the performance of those students. All three of these
faculty focused not on the literature (Conception 1), or using the literature to improve teaching (Conception 2), but on student feedback and in-classroom investigation of teaching and learning (Conception 3).

A theme that George, Jack and Sarah added to the conception the previous faculty had of the scholarship of teaching was the use of discipline-specific literature in the improvement of teaching and student learning, which became the basis for Conception 4. All three of these faculty members described their activities and their understanding of the scholarship of teaching in a way that fit this fourth conception well. George and Sarah were a part of the High Need/Active Development category because they each identified clearly their involvement in the educational literature and activities of the discipline. In George’s case, a running theme through his interview was the importance of the link between the discipline and the teaching of his discipline. In describing the link between research and teaching, for example, he said,

I think there’s a very definite link. I mentioned before that just keeping current with the most up-to-date information in your field ought to influence, certainly, the content of what you teach, but I think will also influence the delivery of what you teach because there are certain things that are packaged in certain ways that make it more or less effective to communicate those sorts of things. So, yeah, I think that scholarly pursuits really ought to affect the way you teach, and it should be intentional. I think you have to make that connection intentional because you can read lots of scholarly journals and refereed kinds of things, but if it doesn’t make any difference in terms of what you do, then it’s just a bunch of words on a page.

George’s focus is really on applying what he is learning in the classroom. Like George, Sarah also sees the connection between research and teaching and is interested in making sure research is applied. In answering a question on how she has developed since becoming a professor, Sarah points that that she has learned,
Different teaching strategies that work in different situations. But, as we all know, the same teaching strategy never works with... you can never use the same strategy and get the same effect with a different population, because every population is different. But, I’ve learned different varied teaching strategies that seem to work in nursing, overall.

Her focus is on those strategies that work specifically in the nursing classroom. It is also clear, however, that she does not simply test her own theories in the classroom, basing her instructional choices on the research as well, as is evident in her definition of the scholarship of teaching:

It’s being an expert. It’s evolving into an expert, I think. Benner, in nursing, talks about the evolution of a nurse, and how you go from novice to expert, and I see the same thing in teaching: you go from novice to expert. And you look at what others have done. You look at new things and developments in the field. You look at things at work; you look at things that don’t work. You continually research on what works, what doesn’t work, how can I make my students alive and empower them to continually seek new knowledge themselves?

As was noted earlier, Sarah is pursuing a Ph.D. in Education because she sees the value of learning what she doesn’t know: teaching. And underscoring this learning, for Sarah and George, is a connection between teaching and learning within specific disciplines.

Another interview participant who has spent time focusing on teaching within his specific discipline is Jack. Jack was in Moderate Need/Moderate Development category due to his primary focus on informal improvement, but since one of the courses he teaches is related to education in that field, he spends a lot of time in his discipline’s educational literature. For example, in describing the need for university support of teachers, Jack said,

I have students, and again, I don’t have this thing all figured out, I’m still working through it, but we’re working through “The Seven Laws of the Learner,” which is a Bruce Wilkinson [text]... I don’t know if you’re familiar with that or not. And so we get into these things like, “it is the teacher’s responsibility that the students learn” and some of these concepts, and the students say to me, “why do our
professors not know this? Why do they not have to take this class? Every professor in this university should take this class.”

Based on his work with this book on teaching, along with his immersion into the primary principles of his education-related discipline course(s), he clearly is involved in reading and learning within the discipline. It is not entirely clear whether he makes improvements based on what he learns from his discipline contexts, but he does describe multiple forms of development in his definition of the scholarship of teaching:

The scholarship of teaching, for me, would be learning, continuing the learning process of the teaching technique. So when I’m standing in the classroom, what things am I learning that change the way I approach that experience, whether that’s learning from other colleagues, or learning from observation, or learning from workshops, or from personal experience. How is my teaching in the classroom being developed?

Overall, Jack was included with George and Sarah in Conception 4 due to the strong, daily focus they each have on the literature of their discipline and their commitment to improving their teaching.

Five of the faculty, including Fred, Stephen, Jessica, Molly, and Genevieve, were identified as a part of Conception 5 due to their focus on moving beyond simply using the literature of the discipline to furthering the discipline through their work. All five of these participants were listed in one of the last two perceived need categories due to their high need for development and their focus on active and continual development. Fred and Stephen were placed in the Moderate Need/Continual Development category, describing perfectly this final conception of the scholarship of teaching. Fred has gone the more traditional route of publishing works, noting that most or all of his most recent published articles have related to education/teaching at the college level. All of his energy, he made clear, has gone in recent years to giving back to the discipline and to his fellow
colleagues. Stephen has also spent his time giving back, although he notes that his focus has not been on the traditional scholarship pursuits of publications and presentations. He has done some presentations at a content-oriented conference in the past, but he gives his definition of the scholarship of teaching in a little different manner:

I have to admit it’s pretty unclear to me. That’s a little foggy. If what I do in teaching, in terms of what I do in the classroom and what I do in the public schools, if people are learning from what I’m doing, … I would consider that scholarship. For example, in publication, the whole purpose is… your work is read, and when people read it, it makes them a better teacher. So if you take that same thought and apply it to what I’m doing here at the university, although I’m not publishing, if the question were asked, “well are you doing things that influence people, that help them teach better?” I would say “I probably am.” So if that falls under this scholarship umbrella, then I would say that I’m probably doing a pretty good job, although you can always improve in areas.

Instead of focusing on publishing and presenting, Stephen has chosen to spend his time giving back to his colleagues in the School of Education, teachers in the area who attend workshops he gives, and his students. While this may be nontraditional, from his perspective, Stephen is furthering the work of his discipline.

Jessica, Molly, and Genevieve have also been involved in giving back to the discipline through education-related presentations based on specific curriculum and research projects they do within their classroom and departments. Jessica, for example, in describing her perception of the link between research and teaching, noted that,

I guess I see that in two ways. Reading research helps me with my content and I would say I feel that most in the upper division courses that I teach. For example: Shakespeare. There’s so much scholarship. You could spend a lifetime reading the scholarship and never get anywhere near to being finished. But just to kind of know what the trend is now and what my students might see again in graduate school if they are planning to go on. Or research that will help them to do a better job of teaching Shakespeare in the high school classroom…. So, there’s the content angle…And then the other would be very specific links between what the research shows about the teaching of writing, for example. Sue Williams and I,
just this very morning, finished a collaborative article based on research on our new composition course.

Jessica underscores the importance of knowing the research, but also highlights the importance of doing research herself, describing an education-related research project, mentioned earlier, that she plans to submit with a colleague to a discipline-related organization’s publication. Like Jessica, Molly believes in the importance of giving back to the discipline in her work. She describes scholarship, for example, as “acceptance of your writing and ideas by the larger scholarly community. Being able to stand up to your peers with your writing, your thoughts, your research. Being able to stand up with your peers.” She goes on to describe her scholarly pursuits, including her presentation of education-related workshops at disciplinary conferences. Molly is clearly involved in furthering the discipline through educational avenues, including a dissertation related to her higher education classroom. Genevieve is unique in that education is her field, so often the line between content and pedagogy can be blurred. She is committed, however, to the active sharing of her work in her own classroom with the scholarly community. As she describes,

Another thought that helps me to know that I’m trying to keep abreast is actually taking some of the material that I work with and then presenting it at conferences. For example, at the state reading conference. So, what I presented was one of the projects that I was doing in a class, and I studied background about it and the research of why it would be central: why I thought it would be important or valuable for me to do as a class project… One year I presented it, and then the next year, I presented the same thing, and a student came up to me after class, and she said, “You’ll be interested in knowing that we do that exact project at our school,” and this was at another state university here in the state. And her teacher had been to my workshop the year before and had learned it, and she said, “Now we do it in our class.” So, that made me feel that somebody else could take some part of what we learned at a conference and appl[y] it in their classroom, and I felt rewarded for that.
Overall, for Genevieve, Molly, and Jessica, as with Fred and Stephen, the scholarship of teaching is not just about improving teaching based on the literature and classroom research. It also means communicating the work of improving teaching and learning to the scholarly community so that all can benefit from it.

While approaches 1-5 had, as a focus, the improvement of teaching, three faculty were identified in Conception 6 due to their understanding of the scholarship of teaching as staying current in the field. Pamela, Joshua, and Martin, through their responses, identified this sixth conception for varying reasons. Interestingly, both Joshua and Martin fell in the Low Need/Low Development category as it related to their perceived need, and that is evident here as well. Martin, in describing the scholarship of teaching, primarily focused on keeping current in the discipline, only mentioning the inclusion of pedagogy after later thought. In Joshua’s case, his focus is on keeping current as well, made clear initially as he described how he views the link between research and teaching:

What research does: it frankly forces you to read things that you otherwise would not take the time to do. So when I first got here, my dissertation was still pretty hot and I got a lot of encouragement, so I ended up doing two or three publications off my dissertation. Just to do those, I would have to go in often and look at another 150 to 200 articles. I’ve done some conference papers, and have done for a couple of years. Same thing. It forces you to stay very, very current.

Joshua goes on to describe what he believes scholarship, including his viewpoint on Boyer’s model and the scholarship of teaching, is when he says,

I’m OK with some of the other kinds of scholarship as practice, but I don’t see that in quite the same light. Like going off and getting involved in the community. I don’t quite view that as scholarship. I think it’s a hybrid. My bottom line is sometimes I think Boyer is used as an excuse or justification to not support more traditional scholarship. And those other things are important, but I’m not sure I would define them as scholarship. I think [the scholarship of teaching is] being competent in your field and taking teaching serious. And in the
process of teaching, preparing is where you really learn it, so I think that’s part of it. I think you get deep understanding, so that’s kind of how I view that one.

Again, his focus is on keeping current, not on any levels of teaching improvement faculty in Approaches 1-5 sought.

Like Martin and Joshua, Pamela was identified in a Low Development category, despite a high perceived need for it, due to her busy schedule. Also, she continued to return to the need to keep current in the field throughout the interview when asked about the scholarship of teaching. For example, when asked whether she works to develop her teaching, she said,

- When you really talk about development, in my mind, I need to sit down… When I first started, I sat down with the textbooks I had, and I read those textbooks, and I made notes on those textbooks. I’ve had I can’t tell you how many new editions. Have I done that? No. And the notes are just not cutting it anymore.

Her focus of development seemed to be on her knowledge of the content and keeping up with the changes in newer editions of the textbook. She further emphasized this in describing her perception of the link between research and teaching, saying that teaching legitimacy only comes when research is cited and the content is up to date. Pamela’s focus is clearly on teaching and content knowledge, and this is also seen in her definition of scholarship of teaching:

- Well, I guess I’m thinking that the scholarship of teaching is that, in terms of the way it’s said “the scholarship of teaching” and not “teaching scholarship,” is appropriate because the scholarship has to come first. The research has to come first, and it’s foundational. The development of what your teaching… there has to be time that is attended to that.

Like Joshua and Martin, Pamela places content knowledge as first priority, evidenced in all of their initial responses to questions related to the development of teaching and the scholarship of teaching.
Overall, out of the 16 faculty interviewed, 12 were identified as holding a conception of the scholarship of teaching and learning (Conceptions 2 through 5) that directly related to teaching improvement. One of the remaining faculty members (Conception 1) engaged in the literature of teaching, but acknowledged his inability to use that literature to make improvements to his teaching practice. The other three focused primarily on keeping current in their field when conducting research, considering this to be the meaning of the scholarship of teaching. These six approaches provide evidence that, among the interviewed faculty, there exists a wide range of conceptions concerning the scholarship of teaching and learning.

Faculty and Administrator Perceptions of Teaching and Scholarship

*Perceptions of Effective Teaching*

In order to identify how faculty and administrators perceive teaching at a teaching university like Midwest Teaching University (MTU), two faculty focus groups and two administrator focus groups were convened to respond to a variety of related questions. Each group began by addressing their perceptions of an effective faculty member, and after responding, they were asked to further address their perceptions of an effective teacher in higher education. While there were key differences in their responses to the two questions, all four groups identified attributes of effective teachers when discussing faculty traits. This was acknowledged by one faculty member when she said,

> I think what’s interesting to me...is it took me a minute to realize the difference between the two questions that you asked, because we’re such a teaching oriented institution that I assume that a good faculty member is a good teacher, and that’s all we were talking about... I wasn’t thinking that faculty really is a broader concept.
Both faculty and administrators identified traits of effective teachers when describing the effective faculty member, and many, but not all, of the traits were common between the two groups. In comparing faculty and administrator perceptions, a picture begins to form about the ways these groups perceive both faculty work and the characteristics of effective teachers in higher education.

The two faculty focus groups, each consisting of six faculty members representing all four schools/colleges at the university, provided a laundry list of effective faculty and teaching traits that were categorized into five areas: subject-matter competence, communication, student engagement, relationships, and passion. The first trait of an effective faculty member that the two faculty groups addressed was subject-matter competence. This included comments related to knowing content, staying current in the field, and participating in the discipline. While this was primarily discussed as an effective faculty trait, one faculty member described the connection each group made between content and teaching when he said,

I think part of the key to classroom effectiveness with students is that subject matter competency. So what I’ve found is that the more that I, and others, are reading the journals, trying to stay as current as possible, going back, reading through some of the canon in political science and history, I think that’s one of the positive consequences of subject matter competency is then you’re freed up to be even better in the classroom because you know the material, you know what you want to do, you’re not scraping to try to put thoughts together. But I think there is a direct correlation between subject matter competency and then effectiveness in the classroom.

The faculty expressed that competence does directly affect the classroom, but each group also identified the difference between knowing content and being able to communicate that content. And one participant went on to also highlight a need that both groups
identified, which is to go beyond “getting it across” to students and, instead, engage students in the learning process. As she described,

> When I think about teaching, I think about it as two-sided. My sharing the information, but also my students being able to absorb that information. I can stand up there and lecture, and even do different discussion in the classroom, but if my students are not absorbing the information, that means they don’t really understand it or it’s not making them think differently, or even think more openly, then I haven’t taught them, really, I don’t think. And that’s one of the problems, sometimes, with some subject matter: it’s just a regurgitation.

Participants from each group supported the need for faculty to get students engaged, encouraging them to think, discuss, and take responsibility for their own learning. The subject matter competence was important, they argued, but effective teachers went beyond keeping current, clearly communicating that content and providing opportunities for students to grapple with it and learn in the process.

While the typical teaching tasks of learning, communicating, and letting students experience content were highlighted in the faculty focus groups, both groups also addressed two other attributes of effective teachers: passion and a willingness to build relationships with students. The former came through as participants first talked about the motivation to be effective. As one participant identified,

> I think that really comes back to the issue of motivation. I think an effective teacher has to decide “why am I doing this?” Other than a paycheck at the end of the month. And if that, really, is all that’s involved, if it has become a job, then I think we probably have lost our effectiveness… I think there is a calling involved here that I think it’s possible to lose sight of over time.

Each group recognized a higher calling found in teaching and the need for faculty to be engaged and passionate about the work they do. This was emphasized in comments related to personal investment in teaching and passion about the subject area. For example, one participant said,
And I want to go back to passion as well. I think that is really a key variable because the students are only going to care about the material as much as you do. Probably less, but almost impossibly ever more. So you’ve got to really be committed to your subject matter, to the kingdom, to try to draw the students into that. Because they may be as passionate as you, but probably never more. So I want to pitch that pretty high…Because I think with passion, you can make it come alive. And I think that’s the key for the students, that they can touch it, get their arms around. It’s not some dead information or whatever, but that it’s an alive kind of topic.

Faculty saw a clear connection between passion and student engagement, highlighted further by the emphasis in their comments on building relationships with the students. Each group discussed the need to get to know the students, to understand where they are coming from, and to be willing to openly listen to them and relate to them on a personal level. Faculty went beyond just knowing who they are to describe a personal engagement with students and a demonstration of caring for more than just academic performance.

This attribute was described by one participant this way:

Having an ear and a heart for them. Teachers are sort of lecturers, and they’re sort of up on the stage, but until they make a personal connection, like you said, and they know that you are responsive to their needs and care about them as people, I think that opens up much broader pathways to their heart and their minds. It’s what we’re trying to make a change in.

Overall, in both passion and relationship-building, the focus group participants described a real connection with their work that goes beyond the teaching tasks to focus on the heart, the desire, and the willingness to connect with students in ways intended to strengthen the learning that takes place.

Like the faculty, administrators also participated in focus groups that focused on their perceptions of teaching and scholarship, and while they affirmed the attributes introduced by the faculty, other attributes were strongly addressed that were not among the faculty. Both a department chair focus group, consisting of six department chairs
from across the four schools/colleges, and an academic dean’s focus group, with contributions from five deans, were convened to address the same questions: what makes an effective faculty member, and what makes an effective teacher in higher education. Through these focus groups, the five categories of attributes that the faculty identified were recognized. Like the faculty, the administrator groups both emphasized the need for faculty to be competently engaged in their subject, but also be able to communicate that information in a way that engages students in the process. The administrators also recognized the need for passion and for personal connection with students. As one department chair said,

I was thinking passion. An effective faculty member, to me, is one who has passion both for his or her discipline, to some degree that’s going to vary, but there’s passion for that, and passion for the student. And that doesn’t mean they have to rant and rave, but usually a student, when they connect, I think they’re connecting, at least that was true of me when I was a student, you connect with someone because you sense they really believe this. They’re really into this. And they value me as well. Passion.

This passion, according to the administrators, was important for students to see, but also to feel. As one participant identified,

I think personality plays a pretty large role, particularly in the sense of approachability, engagement, responsiveness to students, passion. So a person who is engaged in their subject with the students, and open in that relationship and that dialogue, that goes a long way… It seems to me, anecdotally, that students will forgive poor pedagogy often for professors that are engaging and energizing, or interesting, or connect with them, care with them. That seems to be a really important factor.

This participant really pulls together all of the elements that both administrators and faculty agreed on: effective teachers are competent in their field, communicate well, engage students, are passionate, and build relationships with students.
While faculty and administrators were generally in agreement about the characteristics of effective faculty, two areas were strongly addressed by the administrators that were only minimally acknowledged by faculty: continual improvement and scholarship. Two faculty members did address the need to improve and “hone” the craft of teaching, and one faculty member discussed the need for faculty to be involved in presenting and publishing within the discipline, but the administrators addressed these areas more specifically and in more detail. For example, many of the administrators noted how impressed they are when they see faculty who change methods, adapt to new students, and spend time learning about, and developing, their teaching. One dean, in highlighting this focus, said that it impressed him because “when they’re changing their pedagogy, they’re trying to be learner-focused.” Another described one of the senior members of the faculty this way:

How many times has that individual reinvented himself as an educator and taken the best of every moment and been able to reflect, and refine, and reform, and reshape in great longevity, and I think probably has some of the best student evaluations.

As is described here, faculty members who spend time continually adapting, refining, and growing, according to administrators, are the effective ones. This was further emphasized by a department chair who said, “I think they have to be able to model, you know, scholarship, the desire to be learners. They have to be learners.” It is this scholarship focus that also sets apart the administrators’ perceptions of effective faculty from the faculty perceptions. The involvement of faculty in scholarly activities is an important aspect of their work, according to the administrators, and while faculty did acknowledge the need for scholarship later in the focus groups, they did not strongly equate it with
teaching effectiveness. One of the administrators, however, summed up this focus, by saying:

It seems to me an effective teacher [is] regularly involved in the discipline, so that’s things like submitting papers to conferences, it’s active consulting relationships in the community, all of those various forms a scholarship that we talked about before, collaborative work with colleagues, interdisciplinary things, all that kind of thing. Of course, an active reading schedule. I mean, it’s a problem if a faculty member is not, does not have a vibrant intellectual life.

The administrators clearly saw continued learning and active scholarship as key attributes of effective teaching, and by doing so, highlighted a couple of key ways that perceptions differ between administrators and faculty.

While it is possible to identify the perceptions administrators have of teaching through their words, it is important that their actions be reviewed, also. As they are the primary forces behind university policies and procedures, the administrators’ collective perceptions can be identified through analysis of key institutional documents, including the university catalog, the Faculty Contract, and the Faculty Handbook (2004). It is clear through document analysis that the university believes teaching to be the primary focus of its faculty members. First, the administrators consider the university to be a “teaching university.” Secondly, a clear description of the university’s expectations for effective teachers, found in the Faculty Handbook, says,

Commitment to outstanding teaching is a distinguishing characteristic of private institutions of higher education such as [Midwest Teaching University]. As a result, the University recognizes that quality instruction is the most important function of each faculty member.

Since teaching is considered to be of preeminent importance, every faculty member must strive for excellence in the classroom. This presupposes that the dedicated instructor has a command of his or her subject, keeps abreast of new developments, carefully selects teaching strategies that are suitable to his or her course and facilitate the learning process, works to communicate effectively the
material, and encourages questions and opposing views. The [Midwest] faculty member should exhibit the best in "good practice" in matters relating to the evaluation of student work and returning such in a timely fashion. (p. 21)

This highlights the primary importance the university places on teaching in the life of the faculty member. It also addresses many of the attributes of effective teaching espoused by both faculty and administrators in the focus groups, including subject-matter competence, communication, and student engagement.

Administrators at the university have also addressed the expectation they have that faculty develop caring and nurturing relationships with students, highlighted most clearly in the Code of Ethics section of the Faculty Handbook (2004). The Code of Ethics describes the behaviors expected of the faculty related to students, the university, and professional colleagues. The first principle, related to students, says the following:

The primary obligation of the teaching profession is to guide students in the pursuit of knowledge and skills and to assist them in determining a life's work or mission in that they can best serve Christ, the Church, and their generation. In fulfilling the obligations of this principle, the faculty member will:

- deal justly and impartially with all students.
- recognize individual differences and seek to meet the individual needs.
- stimulate and encourage a high standard of scholarship with emphasis on the scientific method of seeking truth.
- encourage the student to develop a well-integrated life intellectually, physically, spiritually, and culturally.
- aid students to develop an understanding and appreciation of the Christian way of life together with its responsibilities and privileges.
- respect student confidences. (p. 20)

In this section are calls for the faculty to engage students in their learning, address specific student needs academically, but also to care for the non-academic needs of those
students as well. Clearly, administrators value the work of the faculty in the lives of their students and intend to encourage it by advocating for those students in the handbook.

While the Faculty Handbook (2004) is a useful document for the discovery of administrator perceptions of teaching, it cannot be taken at 100% face value for two key reasons: First, the handbook is posted on a website and is not handed out to new faculty, which means that there is not a guarantee that it has been thoroughly reviewed by each faculty member. Secondly, faculty members often focus on those areas that are evaluated, not simply recommended. The Annual Evaluation report, which is filled out by each faculty member at the end of every school year, therefore, may be a more accurate reflection of what administrators desire to see in their faculty. In this report, each faculty member answers a series of questions related to specific areas of faculty life in order to report on how well they have done that year. There are seven areas to be addressed: Christian Character, Teaching Effectiveness, Service and Loyalty, Subject Matter Competence, Professional Training and Growth, and Personal Relationships with Students. Four of these areas relate directly to the attributes of effective teaching above, including teaching effectiveness, subject matter competence, professional training and growth, and personal relationships with students. The following is a list of these items with the criteria used for evaluation:

Teaching Effectiveness: evidenced by enthusiasm, quality of work, varied and effective methodologies, interest in subject matter, and understanding of students.

Subject Matter Competence: indicated by professional peers, published scholarly writings, lectures and performances, professional registrations or certifications, research, and confidence of students.
Professional Training and Growth: including graduate study leading to degrees, postdoctoral studies, and professional organizations; keeping current in one's academic discipline.

Personal Relationships with Students: including activities, student advising, skills in human relationships, and availability to students.

Through these evaluation areas, almost all of the major attributes are addressed, including two that have not been seen in the documents reviewed so far: passion and scholarship. The only attribute not addressed in any of the documents is the continual development of teaching skills and ability. It should be noted that the categories for evaluation listed above are also used when faculty apply for promotions, showing that these areas are evaluated at key times of change as well as in the annual review process.

While the annual evaluation does address most of the characteristics of effective teaching recognized by administrators and faculty, one area that is not addressed is the continual growth of faculty in regards to teaching. Based on the title of the Professional Training and Growth section, it seems that this is where that attribute should fit, but the focus is on scholarship, not teaching. This component is also missing from the single section of the Faculty Handbook (2004) on professional development. In this section, the support that the university gives to faculty professional development is outlined, beginning with the following: “Continued professional development is an obligation of every faculty member. In order to support the pursuit of scholarship and professional development, the University provides the following benefits” (p. 37). The bullet points that follow identify three support avenues, including partial reimbursement for graduate work, partial payment for membership in professional organizations, and support for attendance at professional conferences. This section shows clear support for faculty
scholarship and subject matter competence, but there is no outlined support for
development of teaching or teaching in general.

One other key document in the life of a faculty member is the faculty contract,
since it lists specific items each faculty member agrees to when they sign it each year.
The faculty contract at Midwest Teaching University is a one page document that
outlines the salary, benefits, and responsibilities of the faculty member. Unlike the
Faculty Handbook (2004), the faculty contract is read every year, which makes the list of
responsibilities an important place to look for administrator perceptions of faculty
teaching and their overall expectations. As the faculty contract states,

The Professor agrees to the following:

1. To be in accord with the mission, values, and priorities of the
   University, and to support the Articles of Faith and lifestyle
   standards of the [Church denomination] as outlined in the Manual;
2. To exemplify such personal, moral, and religious conduct as shall be
   above reproach, including active involvement in a local church;
3. To agree to and follow the policies and procedures adopted by the
   University from time to time relating to the academic workplace;
4. To attend regularly scheduled chapels, faculty meetings, committee
   meetings, division/department activities, and such classes or other
   individual assignments as pertain to the members of the faculty and
   to such student groups that may be assigned;
5. To furnish the University with complete official transcripts of
   academic preparation;
6. To notify the VPAA or head of the department/division in which
   he/she is teaching in case of enforced absence because of illness or
   other unavoidable reasons;
7. Not to engage in other remunerative employment unless approval is
   granted by the Vice President for Academic Affairs;
8. To participate in professional activities, such as participation
   in conferences, writing for publication, and other forms of
   public service which minister to the wider community,
   provided these activities do not unreasonably interfere with
   the Professor's regularly assigned duties for the University.
Reviewing these items, they focus on general responsibilities for a faculty member at
MTU, but besides the last item on active scholarship, the items fail to address any of the
attributes acknowledged by both administrators and faculty as important for teaching
effectiveness.

Overall, the focus group and document analysis data show that faculty and
administrators are in general agreement concerning the qualities of effective teaching.
Both groups identified subject-matter competence, communication, student engagement,
relationships, and passion as the key attributes that are both looked for and evaluated at
the university. Administrator perceptions, however, differed from faculty perceptions in
their focus on scholarly activity and continual development of teaching as additional
aspects of effective teaching. Scholarship and scholarly activity was shown to be a part of
university documentation and annual evaluation processes, but despite the importance
afforded to it by administrators, teaching development was not a part of actual university
practice. The foundational perceptions of faculty and administrators on teaching,
however, were generally aligned.

Perceptions of Approaches to Teaching

In order to identify faculty and administrator perceptions of the way faculty
approach teaching, questions related to teaching and learning responsibility, the influence
of faculty learning style on teaching approach, the influence of past teachers, the
department, the university, and overall approach to teaching in the classroom were asked.
The first avenue that was used to detect faculty perception of teaching as it related to their
approach to the classroom was to ask the question, “Who is ultimately responsible for
student learning?” Of the 16 faculty that were interviewed, all of them recognized the
responsibility students have in their own success, but many of them went farther to
discuss the responsibilities they, themselves, had in the process as well. There were two
faculty members who did not believe they had a responsibility for student learning. One
participant, for example, said,

> When they get to this level, you know, “it’s your responsibility to learn. I’m going
to do the best job I possibly can to make it interesting, but it’s not my
responsibility to motivate you to learn at this point, at this time.” I want to help. I
definitely want to find students that can’t very well, that struggle. My heart goes
out to them, because I was one of those students that needed the help to learn
better at the next level. So I want to find them and help them learn, but… I don’t
see myself as a major motivator. I see myself as a tool that a student can use to
learn: to learn the profession, to learn the skills.

While a few faculty members, like this one, placed the responsibility solely on the
student, many of the faculty did recognize that despite the students’ responsibility, they
had an important role to play as well. For example, one faculty member said,

> Well, you can lead a horse to water… Ultimately, it’s the student. And I know
I’ve told the department for years, and it’s true, I think, of the school in general,
we love taking credit for when…students do great things. But the reality of the
matter is, they’re going to do great things whether we’re any good or whether we
stink. And I guess, to a certain extent, teachers should judge their success not by
the best students, but by the average, and in some cases, below average students.
But I think ultimately, it’s the students’ responsibility.

In this case, he acknowledged the fact that teachers have an influence in some cases, but
it is still the students’ responsibility. Other faculty went farther, however, to recognize the
work of the student, while at the same time acknowledging the changing role of the
teacher as a facilitator of learning. This highlights a perspective that is closest to the five
participants who would not acknowledge that students were more responsible. Instead,
these five faculty members noted a shared responsibility, as seen in this example:

> To borrow Bruce Wilkinson’s understanding, and this may cop out of your
answer, I don’t know. It is the teacher’s responsibility that students learn, but it is
the student’s responsibility to learn no matter how good or how poor the teacher
is. So from my perspective as a professor, it is my responsibility to help our students learn. Now, I realize I can only go so far with that. If they choose not to learn, that’s their choice. However, I can do things that cause them to want to learn, and that’s my responsibility.

Overall, the participants were generally hesitant to place the responsibility entirely on the student. While they expressed varying levels of responsibility, most all of them described a need to provide information, activities, and motivation to help students learn.

In order to further elicit from interview participants what their perceptions of teaching were, they were asked to describe both how they learn themselves, as well as identify whether the way they learn influences how they approach their teaching. All of the participants, when asked how they learn best, we able to identify the way they learn best, and they identified a wide range of learning styles and combinations of styles. Quite a few of them defined their learning style as visual, auditory, kinesthetic, or a combination of these, and faculty who did not use those exact terms still described their learning in one or more of those fashions. For example, one participant identified how he learns best this way:

I’m now learning best when I sit and read on my own and I take notes on what I’m reading. Sitting and reading? That doesn’t stick. But when I start to write down notes on it, I can recall things that I wrote down a month ago, but I can’t recall things I’ve read a month ago. So I guess that’s the short of it is I learn best when I read and take notes on my own material. Do I learn best when I’m sitting and being lectured at? Yeah, as long as I’m taking notes, it does work. Between the two, though, I think I learn more from reading than I do from lecture.

In this case, he does not discuss learning styles or use standard terms for them, but he is aware of how he learns. Other participants described how they learn best by referring directly to the learning styles, but whether they could identify specific learning styles or not, all of the faculty recognized specific ways that they learned best, and all, when asked, affirmed the influence that learning style had on how they teach in the classroom.
While this was true, however, five participants did indicate that they recognized the
danger in teaching that way all of the time. As one of them said,

I’m sure it does. I try to accommodate different learning styles. I’m very aware of
that, which, I guess, is another thing I learned here at [this university]. But I’m
sure my learning and teaching style tend towards the visual. But I do try to work
against that tendency and include other learning styles.

It is clear that all of the participants recognized their tendency to teach the way they learn
best, although some did admit working against that tendency. Even those that worked
hard to approach their teaching using multiple learning styles, however, admitted that it
was often easiest to teach the way they were most comfortable, which was how they
learned. This points to the strong influence faculty learning has on their perceptions of
effective teaching.

Along with their individual learning styles, another influence the participants
described was past university professors and approaches, both positive and negative, to
teaching they have seen in the past. When asked if there had been teachers who had an
influence on how they currently approach their teaching, most all of the participants were
able to recall specific people that, for good or bad, had an influence. For example, one
participant said,

As with most people, as you’re going through your undergraduate world, you see
people that do things well by your definition and people who do terrible. And so I
have my classic example from the economics department that was the worst
possible teaching model I could possibly imagine, and then I remember somebody
who was a paleontologist professor who was an absolute dream. So, there is those
opposite poles there. And I found an affinity towards the people that were very
skilled, they could communicate very effectively, and had their pedagogical life,
at least, in order.

While this example shows clearly an influence, he does describe an “affinity,” which may
point, also, to a connection to a style that would be similar to his own. Another
participant recognized this possibility when he described one faculty member that had an influence, saying, “I teach a lot like he taught. But I don’t know if we felt this camaraderie because we were already so similar or not. So I don’t know if I could say it was causal.” All of these participants connected with specific teaching approaches and were aware of how those approaches aligned with their own. Not all of the faculty members directly addressed their own understanding of why they have chosen to emulate examples they have had, but most all of the faculty did see a link between how they were taught and how they teach. A few of the participants acknowledged the tendency directly. As one described, “Well, honestly, and I’m not sure I like what I’m about to say, but I teach the way that I was taught. Predominantly lecturing.” It should be noted that many of the faculty described past teachers as only one of the influences on their current approach to teaching, but almost all of the participants perceived a clear connection between past examples and current practice.

Faculty were also asked to address whether their department had an influence on their teaching approach, and those faculty who agreed that this was true primarily discussed the role of colleagues in influencing and challenging their teaching. Many of the faculty disagreed that their department had an influence on how they approached their classroom experiences. For example, one faculty participant said, “No. No. No. What determines my teaching method is the content and outcomes.” For him, it was the discipline that had a primary influence, not the department. Others agreed, noting that accreditation standards and content had an influence, but not the department itself. It is also important to note that none of the faculty expressed a lack of autonomy for how they teach their classes, instead citing a freedom to teach the way they desired to teach. For
most of the faculty, the department indirectly influenced teaching approach due to the natural conversations and comparisons of teaching approach between colleagues. As one faculty participant identified, “Indirectly, I think it does, because I see what others are doing, and if it works for them, I say, ‘OK, I’ll try that.’ But I also seek things out on my own, too, so I think it’s a combination.” And as a senior member of the faculty said, “I learn from younger people like you, younger teachers, as well as people who’ve been here longer, too. So, yes, peers in our department are an incentive for me.” Many of the faculty expressed a similar sentiment, highlighting both the collaboration and competition of faculty within their department as an influence, albeit indirect, on their teaching. None of the faculty, however, believed that, outside of the discipline, the department had a direct influence on how they teach.

Participants were also asked whether they believed the university had an influence on how they approached their teaching, and in this case, both direct and indirect influences were acknowledged. A few faculty members identified direct ways that the university influenced their approach to teaching. In a general way, for example, some faculty noted that high standards, university-wide academic objectives, and evaluation procedures influenced what they focus on in the classroom. As one participant observed,

There has been a change in the evaluation policy for classes since I’ve been here. When I came, it was pretty much a free for all. Everyone developed their own course evaluation and sort of thing, and eventually that’s supposed to somehow fit into generic categories that we have for rank and promotion and those sorts of thing. And now we’ve gone to trying to institute a campus-wide evaluation, to which you can add your own your own categories if seems that you need to add more for your own specific discipline, which we often do here. So, there are those, I think it’s seven, particular questions that are asked of us when compiling evaluation data. How well have you done in these particular seven categories? I give some attention to that… because those seem to be university-wide goals.
While the evaluation items lead this participant to adjust specific approaches to teaching in the classroom, for some, just the identity of the institution has an influence. The university “says that it’s unapologetically a teaching institution,” and this fact means, for some of the faculty members, that the university places priority on teaching over more traditional scholarship activities, affords more attention to teaching, and holds teaching to high standards. For these faculty, the identity of the institution and the campus-wide goals have influenced the way they think about teaching and the time and attention they give to it. One final direct link noted by a new faculty member is the availability of resources and the potential impact these resources have on the approach faculty can take in the classroom. When asked whether the university could have a negative influence on teaching approach, she said,

You are limited, many times, by what you have or don’t have to teach with. And it’s been good this year for us in the nursing department that we’ve had the virtual learning center, with Sim-man and Sim-baby. We’ve been able to do a lot of different things, and we’re putting more on the table to do this next year. But, … you are limited in many respects by what you have available to you to use to teach with.

She also acknowledged that while it has not affected her due to her personal motivation, she can see where the lack of professional development “would [have an influence] on a lot of people, and I’ve seen that it has on some people, to where sometimes people don’t even know they’re lacking in that area because they haven’t been exposed.” For all of these participants, the identity and teaching focus of the institution, as well as the resources and professional development offered, have a direct influence on approach to teaching.
Many faculty members also addressed an indirect influence on their teaching that stems from the fact that the university is a Christian institution with a strong core mission to educate with a Christian viewpoint. Interestingly, some faculty reported feeling that they have less freedom to address certain topics within their courses, while others felt more freedom because of the mission of the university and the close ties the university has to the founding Church. The thoughts of those who feel more inhibited in what they say in the classroom can be summed up in one participant’s comments:

You know, this institution is the Church. It’s not loosely affiliated…this is the Church…So I think we have a responsibility because this is the Church…. I’m careful when I teach certain things. And yet, there’s that tension between presenting information and allowing students to sort through all of it, and then making their own decisions. I’m very aware that I work for the church, so I think there’s a sense that I have a calling to be consistent.

For these participants, there is a care that must be taken in balancing the teaching approach to reflect the institution’s mission without compromising the student’s education. The balance, as these faculty note, can sometimes force changes in teaching approach, but none of the faculty spoke negatively about that possibility overall. They simply acknowledged that it did have an influence at times.

From the opposite perspective, many of the faculty identified a freedom they had in the classroom because of the Christian mission of the institution. Since faculty members at the institution are Christians, they feel free to bring in perspectives and points of view that may not be welcome at other institutions. One faculty participant described this freedom this way:

I taught for one semester at [a neighboring institution] for one course. They lost their geochemist and they needed this course in geochemistry taught, so I taught it for them…. I felt much more restricted than I do here. I can say pretty much what I feel like here. There, because you’re in long secular environment, you have a
little bit more restriction into your interpretations, your thoughts, and so forth. I felt more restricted in that respect than I do here.

The fact that it is a Christian institution, in this case, removes restrictions from certain topics, interpretations, and discussions, and many of the faculty found this to be true.

Another put it this way:

Well, certainly as a Christian institution, there certainly are topics I can talk about here that I couldn’t at another institution. Even in a math class, there are topics I can talk about… Beyond that. I’m trying to think if I was at another institution, what would I be doing differently? I’m not sure there’s a whole lot I’d be doing differently.

Here, the participant recognized the freedom, but also acknowledged that it was not a direct influence on his approach to teaching, since he would be teaching the way he does at other institutions as well. One participant summed up this link between the university and teaching by saying, “and so, probably, in an indirect way, the university impacts the way I teach, but I would teach that way anyway because it’s who I am.” For all of these faculty, the university has an indirect influence on their teaching because of the freedom they feel to approach topics they would not be able to approach at other institutions, but as the last comment notes, faculty approach to teaching is not strongly influenced because the faculty are Christians and are simply allowed to be who they are.

In order to identify other potential influences on approach to teaching, as well as to gather the perceptions faculty and administrators have of their colleagues, the focus group participants were also asked to identify whether the faculty in their area generally approached teaching from an Information-Transmission/Teacher-Focused (ITTF) or Conceptual Change/Student-Focused (CCSF) perspective. Three participants said their colleagues leaned toward CCSF, including one faculty member who noted it this way:
I would say the second one. The conceptual change because in our area, we need to know that students understand the theory because we’re going to work with diverse populations. We have to know that they understand the values, the ethics, the cultural, the nuts and bolts of what you’ve got to do to work with people. But they have to conceptualize that in their head. They have to wrap around that to be able to go out and apply it.

The largest group of faculty said that colleagues in their department leaned toward ITTF.

Some of these participants, like those in Computer Science, acknowledged that their subject matter led them towards an ITTF model because of the amount of facts and information students needed to learn.

Table 15

*ATI-R Mean Scores by School/College*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School/College</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arts and Sciences</td>
<td>ITTF (n=35)</td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>CCSF (n=37)</td>
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<td>Education</td>
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<td></td>
<td>CCSF (n=6)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CCSF (n=27)</td>
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</tr>
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<td>CCSF (n=8)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CCSF (n=1)</td>
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Table 16

*ATI-R Mean Scores by Departments in School of Professional Studies*

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<th>Scale</th>
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<td></td>
<td>CCSF (n=2)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Exercise and Sports Science</td>
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<td></td>
<td>CCSF (n=3)</td>
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</table>
Figure 2. ATI-R Mean Scores by Departments in School of Professional Studies

Comparing the results of faculty in the four schools/colleges within the university using the combined mean scores from the ATI-R (Table 15), each of the four faculty groups scored higher on the CCSF scale than the ITTF scale, although for Arts and Sciences, Professional Studies, and Theology and Christian Ministry, the CCSF score was only slightly higher. The School of Education showed a clear orientation to the CCSF approach to teaching.

While the scores for the Schools of Education and Theology and Christian Ministry are representative of one department each, the School of Professional Studies and the College of Arts and Sciences represent multiple departments, meaning that the overall score did not necessarily represent each area within it. Looking at Professional Studies (Table 16), only four of the nine departments in that school showed a higher CCSF score, despite CCSF being the stronger of the two overall. The four science
programs (Computer Science, Exercise and Sports Science, Engineering, and Family and Consumer Sciences) and the General Studies program each had a higher ITTF score.

Table 17

*ATI-R Mean Scores by Department in College of Arts and Sciences*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arts and Sciences</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>ITTF (n=35)</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CCSF (n=37)</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>ITTF (n=19)</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CCSF (n=20)</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Sciences</td>
<td>ITTF (n=10)</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CCSF (n=11)</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral Sciences</td>
<td>ITTF (n=6)</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CCSF (n=6)</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3. ATI-R Mean Scores by Department in College of Arts and Sciences
The overall mean, then, was affected more by the amount of faculty in the programs that had a higher CCSF score. In terms of the College of Arts and Sciences (Table 17), the multiple departments are formally grouped in three areas: Humanities, Natural Sciences, and Behavioral Sciences. As was the case with the School of Professional Studies, the overall result for this faculty group was a stronger score on the CCSF scale, but this was not representative of each area. Faculty in the Humanities posted a strong CCSF approach to teaching, but both Natural Sciences and Behavioral Sciences posted a stronger ITTF approach. Faculty members in the Humanities were the largest group to respond and exerted a strong influence on the full group mean. Overall, the results highlight a difference between departments and the school/college they are in, confirm faculty and administrator perceptions that there are differences within departments, and highlight the potential influence of the department on faculty approach to teaching.

While some of the focus group participants were able to make a determination concerning the general orientation of their colleagues, others were unable to do so due to the influence of other factors such as the course, the discipline, and the class size, three variables that the faculty members felt were unrelated to personal preferences or individual approaches to teaching. For example, from a faculty perspective, two participants said that it depended entirely on the course and did not, therefore, identify a leaning either way. For example, a Business faculty member said,

I guess, in my department, the sense I have is that it varies more by subject matter or course than by person. Now, that’s just a sense, because I haven’t sat in on my colleagues courses, and they haven’t sat in on mine. But just a sense I have is that some courses naturally seem to lend themselves more toward the student-centered approach as you’ve described it, and others lend themselves toward the other side.
Other participants identified the course type, and more specifically, the level of the course, as a factor. There was a general consensus that the type of course influenced whether the professor could approach teaching from a teacher or student focus. It was also clear, however, that faculty believe course level also played a part. As one participant described,

The way that we intentionally set up the history part of the curriculum is that the freshman and sophomore level classes are very highly transmission of information to them, so that they know the core, they understand the emergence from one era to the next, to the next, and the details. And then we’ve intentionally put more of the conceptually-based courses in the junior and senior years, because to really do critical thinking well, you have to know the information. People can say they’re doing critical thinking, but you need to know a certain set of data in order to actually critique FDR’s New Deal or something like that really well. So what we’ve done on the history side is heavily towards the teacher information side freshman/sophomore, and then more analyzing, critiquing, etc., different ways of looking at the New Deal, say, for example, in the junior/senior level courses. So ours varies as we move through the 100, 200, to 300, 400 level courses.

This distinction made sense to the rest of the faculty because they understood the need for freshman level courses that provided the background information that would become the basis for future conceptual courses. They agreed that the level of the course had a strong influence on the approach to teaching a faculty member could take.

This observation was also identified through the Approaches to Teaching Inventory results. For the ATI-R, each participant was asked to identify a course at the beginning of the inventory, and each response item was related to the participant’s approach to teaching within that course. Each course, if possible, was identified by its level, whether freshman (100), sophomore (200), junior (300), or senior (400), and a group mean for each scale was identified (see Table 18). Faculty reported an ITTF mean.
of 3.76 at the 100 level, and the score decreased at the 200 and 300 course level, while a
100 level mean score on the CCSF scale increased through the 200 and 300 levels.

Table 18

*ATI-R Mean Scores by Course Level*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Level</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>ITTF (n=10)</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CCSF (n=10)</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>ITTF (n=11)</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CCSF (n=10)</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300</td>
<td>ITTF (n=34)</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CCSF (n=34)</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400</td>
<td>ITTF (n=5)</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CCSF (n=5)</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undetermined</td>
<td>ITTF (n=18)</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CCSF (n=20)</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the 400 level, there was a significant drop in the CCSF mean score and abrupt increase
in the ITTF score, but this may be attributed the small amount of participants who chose
a course at that level when completing the inventory. Overall, though, as the participants
had identified, the level of the course did seem to have an influence on the approach
faculty were able to take to teaching in their courses.

Another major influence, according to faculty participants, on whether the class
had a student or teacher focus was class size. The university has made it a point to keep
the student-teacher ratio low because of its focus on the student overall, but many faculty noted that the class size was too large to facilitate a student-focused classroom. For example, a professor of a 100 level course described a class he used to teach that had 142 students in it, noting that,

I told the registrar’s office, “as long as there’s a chair, go ahead. It doesn’t matter any more.” Because of what you’re talking about. If we’d have done the kind of engaging, concept change kind of activities in there, this was 11 years ago, we’d still be there doing those activities. And so it was a lot of transmission and it covers a multitude of sins, but none of them have to do with quality education.

Many of the faculty described courses that, in the past, had more manageable sizes, but seemed to describe a trend towards increased class sizes in recent years. One participant described his concern for the larger class sizes this way:

And, of course, the administration apparently believes that in history, you only lecture, because whenever… we have this problem with large classes. Half of our classes are 50 or more. And I said, “but we can’t teach this way,” and the response I’ve always gotten is, “well, what do you do in history? You lecture.” So there’s a bias in the system against the conceptual model because you cannot do that nearly as effectively in 50, or 60, or 70, or 80, or 125, as you can in a group of 25 or 30. So, you know, I think three of the four of us would be very much in the conceptual change model, except that we are handicapped by class size in general.

While not every participant went so far as to identify the administration as the problem, there was clearly a sense that class size was out of faculty control and they were not able to teach the way they wanted to because of it. Some faculty did acknowledge that conceptual change-focused teaching was possible in the larger classes. It simply took more work. As one participant described,

I’m real attentive to everybody paying attention, so I’m watching people’s eyes all the time, and nobody ever sleeps in my class. If they start to wander off, I’ll ask them a question. I’m really maybe anal about that. And that’s obviously much easier when I’ve got a class of 20 or 25, but I had a class of about 50 this last semester, and it’s important for me for students to process and talk to one another,
so I subdivided everybody into a learning cohort. So everybody was in a group of, I think, 4. So I still would accomplish that same kind of task. In other words, I would refuse to lecture for an hour and 15 minutes every class period in a large class like that, but I would go for a while, and then I would give them some kind of a discussion question or something to process in their learning cohort. I think you can manage whatever size group you have, but I do think it affects things.

Many faculty agreed that it was possible to include conceptual change activities into classes with large student populations, but they acknowledged how much more difficult this was. There was definite concern that class size affected teaching approach a lot more than it should.

One final influence on teaching approach, related to class size, that faculty addressed was simply the amount of work it takes to be student-focused in teaching. Conversations related to the difficulty of this work came out of the discussion of class size, but also took a life of their own. Initially, the conversations were about class size, such as this one related to doing small groups in large classes:

S: I’ll have a small group of 12 or 18-20, and they all know each other, who’s there, who’s not, and they pretty much are able to make connections, whereas 45, you’ll have more people on the margins that just won’t get into active learning groups or teams as well. I like the way you intentionally sort of assign them throughout the term to force that.

T: That’s a lot of management to see, “what’s this group doing?” You’ve got ten groups or whatever in the class, there’s going to be some kind of trickery.

L: That’s true, but I watch them carefully, and I can tell when their body language and everything goes off, I’ll just go over to them, I’ll say, “Have you completed all what I’ve given you to do.” “Oh yeah, I’ll get back on it.”

However, faculty also recognized just how much harder it is, in general, to engage students, and how tempting it is to simply lecture. Some did express frustration with the pressure they felt to do conceptual change-type activities all the time, feeling, as one participant expressed, that they hear “don’t lecture, don’t lecture, don’t lecture,” without
an acknowledgement that lecture is effective when used wisely. This specific participant, however, acknowledged that he teaches in a discipline that is more conceptual change-focused, which made it easier for him to not lecture. Overall, the faculty recognized the quality that is there when the classroom is student-focused, but acknowledged how much easier it was for faculty to simply lecture and lead a teacher-focused classroom.

In a similar fashion, both the academic dean focus group and the department chairs were asked to identify the faculty in their area based on the teacher or student-focused approaches, and the same themes of discipline, course, and class size were discussed. The responses from the department chairs were almost identical to those heard in the two faculty focus groups. The department chairs acknowledged the influence of the discipline, the course level, and class size. They also struggled to identify a general leaning either way in their individual departments, with three saying they could not make a determination, two leaning ITTF, and one leaning CCSF. Most of the academic deans were also unable to make a determination, primarily because many of them lead more than one department. They did, however, recognize some of the same themes that the faculty did. First, they clearly laid out the progression that students take from freshman to senior year. As one dean described,

> You think about the progression of an eighteen year old to 22, or of course, nontraditional students from beginning to end, and you know, in the taxonomy of things, it makes sense to have a layer, an early layer, that’s content driven. You’ve got to know certain things. Of course, it’s a problem when that pervades every level of instruction…If their techniques are not distinguished between, say, having a junior level class in the major and a gen ed class as a freshmen, if they can’t distinguish whether they would be doing different things there, that’s probably worth talking about and figuring out.

Other participants acknowledged this progression, but took that farther to address faculty
preferences, which was only indirectly touched on in one of the faculty focus groups when they discussed the difficulty of student-focused teaching. As one dean noted,

It seems to me that there is a safety in the information-driven teaching. A security. So, it’s much easier to be the expert going through the PowerPoints faster than you can take the notes. And communicating information at a level that you can’t compete with. That puts the professor in a privileged place that isn’t related to the task of teaching. It’s more personal or psychological, and I don’t think that serves the students well when that’s the case. So I think one of the issues in transmission bias would be to make sure that that is in fact driven by the discipline and not by your own security, or your own preference. Because I think that there are professors that are uncomfortable, less comfortable, with having to actually engage students, and move outside their notes, and outside their PowerPoint, and to be in the give and take.

Like this dean, the top administrators clearly acknowledged that there were some influences out of control of faculty, but did point toward specific ways that faculty do have control and ownership of the teaching approach in their classroom, which was not something the faculty or department chairs did. The deans introduced an important influence alongside the discipline, the course level, and course size: faculty preference.

In the overall discussion of approaches to teaching in the classroom, faculty and administrators expressed similar perceptions of the aspects of faculty life that influence a faculty member’s approach to teaching, although some key differences were identified. Interview participants identified their own perceptions of student learning responsibility, the influence of personal learning styles, and the influence of past professors, the department, and the university, specifically as these related to possible influences on current teaching approach. Faculty and administrators within the focus groups, then, identified their perceptions of the teaching approach of colleagues in their own areas, highlighting key influences on faculty approach to teaching, including the discipline, the course, and class size. Administrators took it one step further, however, than faculty by
identifying one aspect that faculty did not: the influence that the faculty member’s personal preference for teaching approach has on teaching in the classroom.

*Perceptions of Scholarship*

In order to identify faculty perceptions of scholarship in general, all interviewees were asked whether they believed there was a link between research and teaching, and while all of them saw a link between the two, their perceptions took many forms. One common thread throughout all of the responses was the recognition that research helps the professor keep current in the field. In fact, for four of the interview participants, keeping current was the primary benefit of research. As one participant described, research “frankly forces you to read things that you otherwise would not take the time to do.” For the four participants who agreed with this assessment, research informs the content they teach. Four others expressed similar thoughts, but brought in a second component: credibility. For these four, research not only helped them stay current, but it also added credibility or “legitimacy” to what they teach for the students to see. As one of these participants noted,

> I think sometimes it’s not a direct link. I think it’s often an implied link in terms of providing credibility. I mean, there’s certainly absolutely nothing I… I certainly don’t get up in class and say, “you should believe me because…,” but as students become aware of scholarly activities, that does add credibility.

For those who addressed the idea of credibility, research allows them to model to students their involvement and connect the content to specific, current literature. A third group of faculty members identified the positive effects research has on a professor’s mental engagement. Two participants described keeping their minds sharp through research, or as one said,
I think teaching could get pretty stale if you weren’t actively researching. When I was preaching, it was important for me to go to school, because my preaching… and I had a parishioner tell me, “we always can tell when you’re in school when you’re preaching than when you’re not, because your preaching is better when you’re in school.” And I think the same holds for teaching. I think your teaching is better when you’re engaged yourself.

In the case of these participants, as well as the other eight that were focused on keeping current and credibility, research was primarily linked to teaching through the updating of content being taught in the classroom.

While the previous ten participants connected research to teaching through current content, the other six more specifically tied research to the improvement of teaching and content delivery. Two of the remaining faculty members were hesitant to identify a link between research and teaching because they have not seen a clear link between research and the improvement of teaching. As one noted,

It’s a question I’d like to be able to answer “yes” to. But of all the researchers I’ve met in my life, I can’t honestly say that more… say that with increased research, there is increased teaching ability. I do not believe that. I do believe a good teacher… I think they’re two different jobs, and I think it’s odd that we have them mixed together.

Both of these participants recognized a link, but questioned the value in a link when teaching suffers because of a focus on research. The last four interviewees would agree with this assessment, although each spoke of a clear tie between research and specific teaching improvement. One related the link this way:

Yeah, I think there’s a very definite link. I mentioned before that just keeping current with the most up-to-date information in your field ought to influence, certainly, the content of what you teach, but I think will also influence the delivery of what you teach because there are certain things that are packaged in certain ways that make it more or less effective to communicate those sorts of things. So, yeah, I think that scholarly pursuits really ought to affect the way you teach, and it should be intentional. I think you have to make that connection intentional because you can read lots of scholarly journals and refereed kinds of
things, but if it doesn’t make any difference in terms of what you do, then it’s just a bunch of words on a page.

In each of these last six cases, participants recognized the importance of keeping current in the field, but each desired that research go beyond updating the content that is taught to improving pedagogy, or how that content is taught.

Similar to the interviewed participants’ perceptions of the link between research and teaching, their individual definitions of scholarship help describe faculty perceptions of both scholarship and teaching at Midwest Teaching University. All of the participants were asked to identify what scholarship was to them, and their responses were categorized into three perspectives: traditional, multiple, and universal. Five of the faculty, when asked, gave a traditional definition of scholarship. Research and publishing were at the core of their understanding of that term. There was, however, another smaller group of participants who disagreed with the assessment that scholarship equaled research, instead supporting the idea that it is “more broad than simply search and discovery.” One participant described it this way:

I would say scholarship is applied research, rather than just research for research sake. I think it’s got to be applied research. There are plenty of books and papers and journal articles and things like that that have been written just for the sake of having written something. That don’t necessarily apply anywhere to, to anything other than getting something done or having written something. There are places that, institutions that have a publishing requirement, and you publish something because you’re required to publish as opposed to really finding something that could make a significant contribution to what you’re doing. It’s got to be that applied.

Like this participant, the faculty in this category viewed scholarship as more than publishing, including applied and connective components as well. The final group of participants agreed with this second group, but went farther to define scholarship in a
general sense. For them, scholarship simply meant “almost anything that keeps you active.” These faculty took a universal perspective, calling anything scholarship that is focused on learning. For example, one participant said,

But, scholars to me are anybody who is trying to learn seriously. A scholar is a serious learner. And that the person always wants to know: that is the essence of scholarship. However they assimilated the information is immaterial. It’s just that they are assimilators, they are taking it all and, and they continually are taking it all in, and they’re excited about what they’re learning. Anybody who’s fearful about learning is not a scholar. They’re a dogmatist.

This participant, like the others, clearly defines scholarship from a broad perspective that encompasses the second group that highlighted the use of multiple scholarship formats, which makes the traditional faculty perspective a minority one. The majority of faculty members recognize and support multiple forms of scholarship and believe that scholarship is ultimately about active learning and development.

Another avenue used to identify faculty perceptions of scholarship was two questions asked on the survey administered to all full-time faculty members regarding their perceived identity related to scholarship.

Table 19

7. In general, do you consider yourself to be a teacher, a researcher, or an intellectual?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Faculty Interviewees</th>
<th>All Participants</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The first question addressed overall identity (Table 19), asking the faculty to choose whether they considered themselves to be teachers, researchers, or intellectuals. None of the faculty saw themselves primarily as researchers, and only 13% saw themselves as an intellectual. The largest majority (87% of those who responded) identified themselves as a teacher. This was confirmed by the second question related to identity, which addressed faculty interest in teaching and research (Table 20). Again, teaching rated high among the faculty, with almost 93% of faculty expressing interest in only teaching or leaning toward teaching. Only six faculty regarded research as their primary interest. Based on these responses, it is evident that teaching is both what defines the strong majority of the faculty at MTU and what they are most interested in.

Table 20

8. Do your interests lie primarily in teaching or in research?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Interviewees</th>
<th>All Participants</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primarily in teaching</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>46.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In both, but leaning toward teaching</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>46.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In both, but leaning toward research</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primarily in research</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scholarship from an administrator perspective was already addressed, in part, in the focus group data on teaching effectiveness, since the primary attribute of effective
teachers, for administrators, was subject matter competence and willingness to keep current in the field. Scholarship was also shown to be a strong part of the important documents of faculty life, including the Faculty Handbook (2004) and the annual report. The deans’ focus group, however, expanded on the previously addressed discussions by incorporating Boyer’s (1990) model and, specifically, the scholarship of teaching. The scholarship of teaching had been addressed by the interview participants, with varying levels of understanding of what the scholarship of teaching was and what it looked like in faculty life. The administrators’ comments provide another perspective on this topic, as well as helpful direction for ascertaining the perceptions these important leaders have on scholarship at the university.

The discussion that the deans had on the scholarship of teaching highlighted prior discussions on the future direction of scholarship at the university, making specific comments that prove helpful in describing their current perceptions even though these perceptions were not currently enacted through policies and procedures. The overall discussion related to the debate over whether the current scholarship plan should be revised to tie each component to the scholarship of teaching since the university is a teaching university. As one of the deans began,

I think that’s where we need to put our focus and our resources is on the scholarship of teaching. And we have tried to draft a new evaluation, faculty evaluation instrument, and one of the options I put forward was an option where every single area of scholarship was focused on the scholarship of teaching. So your discipline, your improvement of your knowledge of your discipline, was solely for the purpose of, then, using that knowledge to improve teaching…I think that the scholarship of teaching, at a university where teaching is the primary focus, then we need to define that, what we mean by that, and we need to resource our faculty in every aspect, from evaluation to improvement in their process, their teaching process… Every aspect of Boyer’s model of scholarship, I think, should be filtered through the lens of the scholarship of teaching.
His comments provide a window both into his perceptions of scholarship as well as the state of scholarship at the university. There is a clear indication that scholarship should be all-encompassing, and should always point back to the improvement and development of teaching, but it is equally clear that the resources and evaluation instruments are not in place to do so at this time. Another participant, who acknowledged his disagreement with the idea of tying everything back to teaching in the past, expressed his thoughts this way:

I do think there’s a value in scholarship which is about contributing to the field, but also intellectual vitality, and a freshness and energy. And I don’t think those two are contradictory. The best teachers I have are the ones who are really the best scholars. And it isn’t that I have some really good teachers that are weak scholars. My best scholars are my best teachers just as a rule. So I think that’s part of it: cultivating mentality where they have vision, and where they’re thinking, and where they’re engaging new ideas, and they see their role in this kind of way and it changes how they see themselves. So I think scholarship, whether in our model we think of it pointing back toward teaching, or just along side of teaching, I think it doesn’t have to be either/or, and really is best when it’s both/and. And I do see the scholarship contributing back, then, to teaching clearly, and I think it’s possible for us to do. I think we need to find a way to do it.

In these comments, this participant recognizes the importance of scholarship and teaching being connected, but also affirms the importance of contributing to the field and the need for scholarship that goes beyond the institution. Again, it is important to note that since this conversation was more about future direction than current practice, these comments can only illuminate specific administrator perceptions, but it is notable that the administrators acknowledged a need for scholarship and the importance of scholarship that leads to teaching improvement.

Since the administrators’ perceptions of scholarship and the scholarship of teaching were not directly related to current practice, document analysis was conducted to identify policies and positions enacted by administrators at the university. Just as
administrator perceptions of teaching were identified through the documents, policies, and procedures of the university, their perceptions of scholarship can also be seen through the Faculty Handbook (2004), the faculty contract, and the Annual Evaluation report form. The Faculty Handbook does not directly address scholarship requirements, but through the Code of Ethics, some administrator expectations are made clear. The third principle deals specifically with faculty behavior related to the profession and professional colleagues, and it says the following:

The teaching profession is distinguished from many other occupations by the uniqueness and quality of the professional relationships among faculty, calling for a basic loyalty to the organization and personnel involved in this great task. In fulfilling the obligations of this principle, the faculty member will:

- support and promote the policies, standards, and regulations of the University as adopted by the administration and faculty.
- treat members of the profession in the same manner as he or she wishes to be treated.
- speak constructively of colleagues and other departments even though academic freedom should allow expression of differences of opinion.
- maintain active membership in professional organizations.
- seek to make professional growth continuous by research, study, travel, attending conferences, writing, and other professional activities.
- teach in a way and spirit that will make the teaching profession so attractive that it encourages youth to enter the profession. (p. 21)

Administrators, through this code, describe key attributes of effective scholarship that they expect of their faculty, including active memberships, continuous research, conference attendance, writing, and other activities. The administrators have also backed these expectations up by holding faculty accountable for them through the annual evaluation report, where two of the key areas of accountability are Subject Matter
Competence and Professional Training and Growth. These areas require faculty to address the same scholarship components as are listed in the Code of Ethics above. It should be noted, here, that there are no specific requirements for the amount of scholarly activities required each year, nor are there specific instructions for the overall balance of items reported in the annual evaluation. Faculty members are simply required to report what they have done in each area. Overall, through these two avenues, administrators have laid out both their desires for faculty and specific expectations for scholarship and scholarly activity.

Faculty and Administrator Perceptions of University Commitment to Teaching

Many of the comments made by faculty and administrators related to overall perceptions of teaching and scholarship at the university alluded to specific ways that these participants felt the university could better support and value these important faculty practices. The participants acknowledged that many aspects of university life influence their approach to teaching, including policies, procedures, and practices of the university and of its administrators. In order to more directly address the areas participants alluded to, two thematic questions were posed. First, is the university committed to teaching? Secondly, does the university provide teaching support? To answer these questions, the faculty and administrator responses to a variety of topics and issues in university life are identified and organized to provide a picture of the commitment the university has to teaching.
Is the University Committed to Teaching?

The question “Is the University Committed to Teaching?” was addressed in multiple ways based on the life and practices of the university. This was a challenging question to address because of individual differences, as well as differences between faculty and administrators. To address this question, faculty and administrators were asked to provide their perceptions of six areas, including their perception of the university’s “teaching institution” identity, hiring and orientation practices, the amount of discussions that occur on quality teaching, and the reward and evaluation structures of the university. Through these six important areas of university life, faculty and administrators have described the value they believe is placed on teaching at Midwest Teaching University.

Institutional identity. In order to identify faculty and administrator perceptions of the university’s commitment to teaching, participants were first asked to identify the extent to which the university’s self-label of “teaching institution” was lived out in everyday policies, procedures, and values. Since teaching is the primary focus of the university, this focus should be evidenced in the daily activities of its faculty, as well as through the administrators’ activities, decisions, procedures, and policies. A few faculty who were asked this question addressed aspects of their role that demonstrated the high focus on teaching, including teaching load, student focus, and the review process. First, faculty noted the time commitment that teaching takes on the campus. For example, one interview participant, describing the university’s teaching focus, said, “That’s all we do. I mean, that’s not all we do, but as I look across campus and look across the department…that’s what we spend our time doing…Interacting with the students and
teaching them.” A faculty focus group participant addressed this focus on faculty time this way: “Our teaching load, I think, is indicative of the fact that we are unapologetically a teaching institution. There’s nobody sitting around here and teaching just one class or two classes a year, or even in a semester.” These faculty members, along with two others, noted that the 24 hour teaching load each year meant that their time was mostly taken by teaching and preparation for teaching. Others identified the investment of faculty at MTU in the lives of students, based on the low student/faculty ratio and a general interest in seeing the students succeed. Finally, a few faculty members highlighted the prominent role teaching plays in the faculty review process. As one participant noted,

Well, certainly, it’s part of the review process…Seems to be a little ebb and flow on how much research and scholarship you’re doing, but a major component is definitely your relationship with students and your teaching effectiveness. We could have another talk about how well that’s measured, but…in your observations and peer evaluations and student evaluations…it’s given a strong weight. And just by sort of saying that, that helps…put that to the forefront.

This participant highlights the multiple ways that faculty members are evaluated and points out the message administrators are sending about teaching because of this teaching focus. Overall, for a few of the faculty, the “teaching institution” moniker was evidenced through the time faculty spend on teaching, the focus faculty have on the student, and the multiple teaching evaluations that take place.

Like the faculty, a few administrators also identified teaching load and student focus as the evidence of a “teaching institution.” As one academic dean described, for example,

The most obvious way is the definition of faculty workload. Technically, workload and course load are different. I guess what I’m really talking about is course load. That’s the most referenceable aspect of that. We have a few cases where, in unique situations, we’ll have release for people for unique committee work or accreditation procedures. There are a few research-oriented releases.
Sometimes people work on a book they’re about to finish and we help them with that, but I think that’s the most referenceable place if we’re a teaching institution. If students or parents wondered what we’re here for, then that’s probably the most referenceable thing is that the majority of a person’s role is attached directly to classroom work, teaching, learning, review, student time.

For this academic dean, course load is the primary aspect of a faculty member’s work that highlights the university’s focus on teaching, referencing specifically those aspects that relate to courses such as teaching, learning, and student time. One of the department chairs emphasized the time faculty have for students this way:

One of the things I think it means is greater accessibility. Faculty are accessible to the students. A couple of thoughts come to mind. I have contact very year, both semesters, with approximately 250 freshman that if we were at a research university, probably, I would not have contact with. Beyond that, not only the contact with freshman, but even the office hours and being available. I know when I was in graduate school, my professor… and it’s funny how you remember things, I still remember his office hour was Wednesday at 1:00 every week. 1:00 on Wednesday, and if you didn’t catch him during that hour, you’re on your own because he’s off researching. So what does it mean practically? I think it means great accessibility.

For both of these administrators, the focus on the student inherent in the work of the faculty at MTU is shown most clearly in how accessible they are to the students both in and out of class time. For these administrators, like the faculty mentioned above, the course load and student focus combine, then, to form clear evidence that the institution is focused on the teaching and learning process.

While a few of the faculty and administrators identified specific ways the university supported the use of the “teaching institution” label, some questioned whether the university had an appropriate focus on teaching in key areas. One faculty member, for example, questioned the institution’s low student/faculty ratio, noting that,

I think we’re locked into a particular model of teaching, a particular model of pedagogy, in the way the university is organized and in the way faculty are
recognized and things like that. I think we’re locked into a pedagogy which says, “we must have a faculty student ratio across the university of such and such. Let’s put the students most at risk in very large classes.”…It’s possible for a freshman to come in to this institution and spend his entire first year in classes of 50 or more. Well, that says to me that we are a processing facility. On one level, we are simply a processing facility rather than a teaching institution, because for me, a teaching institution would be more oriented on how best to meet these students needs. And somehow it seems like it’s… I know it’s easier to do it this way because that’s the way it’s always been done.

For this participant, while the institution works to keep the student/faculty ratio low, too many of the courses taken at the freshman level are large, which seems to show a high teaching focus, but a low focus on the quality of student learning. Two other faculty members discussed a lack of support they saw from administrators related to teaching as evidence that the focus on teaching was not as strong as the label “teaching institution” makes it seem. As one described,

Yes, but I wouldn’t make it a strong “yes” because I really don’t see us doing a whole lot to try to develop our teaching. I don’t see a whole lot being done with a person who comes here and wants to teach at this type of institution but maybe is not a great teacher, I don’t see a whole lot being done in terms of providing them support and training that would help make them into a better teacher.

In this case, the faculty member equates teaching focus with teaching support and describes a lack of support for faculty to improve their teaching, which made the response to the question on the “teaching institution” label a negative one. As a third participant made clear, “Such a big deal is made about us being a teaching institution, there should be more emphasis put on good, effective, quality teaching.” While each recognized facets of faculty work that resonated with a teaching focus, their overall impression was that key areas were not being addressed.

Despite the presence of a few faculty members who identified key aspects of the institution that supported the “teaching institution” label, including those who did so
while addressing areas that were not consistent with it, most of the faculty and administrators viewed this label not as the presence of a high teaching focus, but the absence of required research and publication. This idea was expressed by the rest of the faculty in many different ways. In the survey administered to all full-time faculty members, all were asked to identify whether they agreed that the pressure to publish reduced teaching quality at the institution (Table 21). 78.6% of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement, and 13.1% were neutral on the issue, showing that a strong majority of the faculty believed that the pressure to publish, if it existed on campus, was not high enough to distract from the central task of teaching.

Table 21

9d. The pressure to publish reduces the quality of teaching at this institution.

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<tr>
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<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Interviewees</th>
<th>All Participants</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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For some, the lack of focus on research was a positive characteristic of the institution.

One faculty member, in describing MTU as a teaching institution, said,
The university says that it’s unapologetically a teaching institution. That’s stated up front. Which, therefore, implies that we’re not necessarily looking for you to, to use the traditional, to publish something every year or you’ll lose tenure, or you lose your faculty status, you’re fired, that sort of thing. That much is true.

For this participant, and others, the lack of pressure to publish, and the lack of consequences for not being involved in research, is a benefit to working at a teaching institution like MTU. Participants expressed relief in the fact that their focus did not have to be on retaining their job and meeting publication expectations, but could, instead, be on their students and on teaching. One administrator agreed, noting that,

The positive thing that I think is a part of our identity as a teaching institution [is that] it really is not about pedagogy at all. It is that, as professors, we’re here not to do research. Our interest is not primarily focused somewhere else, but our interest and concerns are primarily focused on the students.

For all of these participants, the lack of research and publishing requirements showed that teaching truly was the most important aspect to faculty life and work.

While there were clearly faculty and administrators who recognized the positive view of a teaching institution being defined as an institution that is not focused on research, the majority of the participants recognized this definition as primarily negative.

One faculty member concisely described the overall sentiment this way: “I’m not sure that we are a teaching institution as much as we are not going to be a research institution.” Many of the participants shared deep concern with the fact that the university did not seem to be defined by a teaching focus, but was instead defined by the lack of a research focus. As one faculty member noted,

Every time we talk about this issue, [a past administrator’s] voice just resonates in terms of “unapologetically, we are a teaching institution.” But what he’s saying is that we’re a teaching institution, not a research institution. I really think what we need to do is…have a combination of those things.
Reacting to the negative connotation that came with the “unapologetic teaching” comments, this participant expressed a desire that research also be considered an important part of faculty work. This sentiment was further identified in the comments of two other faculty participants. The first expressed his concern this way:

I’m always disturbed by that. I like the idea of being committed to the teaching, but I would also like to hear that, unapologetically, we encourage scholarship. To me, it always looked like, and I may be misinterpreting this, that it was an attempt to say, “Yeah, we’re teaching, and then there’s that research stuff.”… The message about being a teaching institution… put it this way, it’s an incomplete message. Very incomplete.

While this participant expressed an overall discomfort with the “teaching institution” label, the second participant used much stronger words to describe it:

It’s a cop out. It's a way of saying we aren’t going to support research. But, I do like the fact that at least we have overtures now in recent years of discussions that we will have potentiality of support for people to do research. I laud that. My commentary here is more of the past tense than it is current. But, yeah, it's basically been an excuse in the past for not supporting other kinds of things. So I call it a cop out.

Unlike the faculty who viewed the lack of research expectations in a positive light, this participant, and others, are clearly frustrated by the fact that the institution seems to be labeled a “teaching institution” solely because of the absence of support for research. Calling it a “negative identity,” each of them expressed a desire that research and scholarship be given stronger support by the university.

Similar to the faculty, administrators who expressed frustration with the negative identity implied in the phrase “teaching institution” identified the need for more emphasis on research, but their primary concern was the lack of intentional support for teaching at the university. As one administrator noted,

From my time here, it seems to me that phrase has primarily meant we don’t do research. So it says less about what we do than about what we don’t. The
commitment to teaching hasn’t really been reflected in attentive, intentional focus on developing teaching. So there’s not really training, there’s really not accountability. The end of course surveys really don’t tell me enough to really even say anything intelligently to my faculty. The peer reviews, while they could be helpful, tend not to be. I mean, they are somebody’s friend that sat in class and say “They’re a great person. Wonderful teacher. Asset to the university.” But there are no really significant, meaningful elements of this that say, “well, we’re a teaching institution and that’s reflected in accountability, training, resources.” So I think that’s a weakness for us.

This administrator, and others, recognized a disconnect between the label “teaching institution” and the intentional resourcing of faculty to improve teaching on the campus. This theme played out through multiple comments by academic deans and department chairs. One academic dean said,

What you require faculty or an institution to report upon then determines what your expectations are, and then that’s also where you will put your resources to help the members of the institution to accomplish those expectations…. If the expectation is that we are to be good teachers, than how do we assess good teaching and good learning? … How do we resource that? Externally, accreditation agencies, both for departments as well as the university, are asking us to demonstrate that. If we say we’re a teaching institution, then how do we resource good teaching and good learning. And I think we’re still getting a good handle on how do we locate and allocate resources for good teaching and good learning to take place. It’s beginning, but it’s not there yet.

Here, the administrator highlights the importance of assessing key areas of teaching and learning so that improvement and development can take place, but notes that resources are not in place to support that yet. Many of the administrators expressed the fact that teaching should be highly effective at a teaching institution like this one, but that to get there, it will require that the university have a positive identity as a “teaching institution” with a more intentional focus on teaching development, accountability, and the application of resources for faculty.
Hiring. An institution’s focus is evidenced through multiple avenues, including support, resources, and scholarship practice, but a primary factor is the role that teaching plays in the hiring process. As the Faculty Handbook (2004) states,

Criteria for hiring faculty will be based on University, departmental and divisional goals. For prospective teaching faculty, close attention will be given to the evidence of one's spiritual maturity, compatibility with Church and University lifestyle expectations, and teaching ability. To evaluate a candidate's teaching expertise, the University will give special attention to external references as well as on-campus observations, possibly involving the candidate in teaching class session(s) or seminar(s). (p. 9)

From this statement of the criteria faculty must meet to be hired, it is clear that the institution is affiliated with the church and holds spirituality and a church-compatible lifestyle to be the most important factors in the hiring of faculty, followed by teaching ability. This was affirmed by some of the faculty and administrator participants. For example, one faculty member said,

Do you ever hear in your departments the term “institutional fit?” Is that a common phrase in your department or no? It’s a very common phrase in our department…This idea that when it comes down to hiring a faculty member, a person who’s got slightly higher credentials or whatever the case, vs. somebody who has decent credentials but is a better institutional fit, it’s always going to go to the person who’s the institutional fit…And how is that defined? I always think that it’s not just defined in teaching terms. I think that it’s defined, in part, in ministry terms, or family terms, and other terms, as well.

This participant recognizes that teaching is not the primary factor in choosing to hire new faculty, but, instead, it takes a back seat to compatibility with the mission of the university. One academic dean elaborated:

I was thinking about a conversation I had just a week ago, or maybe a week and a half ago, with a perspective faculty member who has been rejected now because of the classic story where they had terrific credentials, professional experience, education, high-end graduate school work, that kind of stuff, but there is a faith question… It’s not about exclusivity and elitism at all. We’re all growing, we’re all developing, we’re all going to be better four years from now, three years from
now than we are now, all of us. But there are some basic things there that are just too central when we think about us being a Christian university and teaching university.

This participant alludes to a common experience, emphasized by the use of the term “classic,” where potential faculty are hired based on their compatibility with the Christian mission of the university, and not solely because of their ability to teach. These participants, while not directly addressing the criteria from the Faculty Handbook, have affirmed the handbook policies through their observation of the regular practices at the university.

Another aspect of the Faculty Handbook’s (2004) statement on teaching criteria that aligns with actual practice as identified by administrators and faculty is the process administrators go through to identify teaching ability. One administrator described it this way:

I’ve changed the way I’ve interviewed over the last few years. It used to be sort of the general missional questions, but one of the questions I ask now is “give me an illustration of what you believe is effective teaching in your field that you have, yourself, exhibited.”

In this case, the administrator recognized the need to focus on teaching and asked for specific instances where effective teaching has occurred. Another administrator identified the importance of teaching experience when he said,

There are rare cases where we are hiring people who have significant professional experience who have taught very little. If they’ve never taught, they’re almost not considered at all. If they’ve taught just a little, that’s vetted pretty well…There are certain disciplines where it’s favorable to have a lot of professional experience. It absolutely is often discussed and seriously considered. In fact, in one case, as we talked about it, it was kind of coming down to a top two, and they were weighted oppositely in that. And so the one that had little to no teaching experience, a follow-up request was made to that person to write a couple pages on their teaching philosophy. That would give us a little more confidence in what their approach would be.
Administrators like this one described an approach that took teaching seriously, requiring a “vetting” process as well as specific questions related to teaching in the interview process.

Also consistent with the handbook criteria on hiring faculty were the perceptions faculty and administrators had of the use of teaching observation as an important component of the hiring process. The word “possibly” used in the handbook to describe the potential use of classroom observation shows that it is an inconsistent practice. In one faculty focus group, only one of the six had been asked to teach during the interview process, and only one reported that their department required this, despite the acknowledgement that observation was “standard practice at any other university.”

Another faculty participant was surprised when she realized, in the context of the interview, that there was inconsistent use of observation even within departments, saying,

> When I first came here, as part of my interview session, I had to teach a class. And the faculty did come in and watch me teach, and they said that I taught well, which is good. And I found out later that someone else had come in who did not teach well. But besides them coming in for my interview and watch me teach… I don’t think anybody else has done that since I did that. Why’d they make me do it? I’m going to have to find out. Other people have not…I’ll have to ask about that, because I think I am the only one they made do that. But in that sense, I don’t think the university follows up on that.

In this case, the realization that there was inconsistency caused some concern, making her want to find out why she was required to do so when others had not been. In the academic dean focus group, one of the five deans acknowledged the use of teaching observation in the process, but noted that the responsibility for this was placed on the department chairs, and it was clear there was not a consistent use within that school.

Another dean described a key reason why observations are not used:
We have not done a sample lecture. We do look for history, track record, personality qualities that would indicate this is someone who can engage with people, communicate well. And to a certain extent, I think those qualities are the same whether it’s in the classroom or around a table. But in terms of formal review, we haven’t. So that may be something... of course, until the institution... issues some formal standards, it’s a little hard to do that, I think. So we reflect the culture of the institution in that way.

For this dean, the lack of formal policy on the use of teaching observation denotes a lack of support from the university to use the practice, and he, therefore, did not use it in his school. Overall, it is clear that then formal policy described in the handbook is being followed: faculty members are “possibly” asked to teach in the interview process.

Also inconsistent in the process was the general perceptions faculty and administrators had on how much teaching was even focused on in the interview process. Administrators described a more recent change in how interviews were being conducted in order to ask more teaching-based questions. Some mentioned the use of artifacts as a positive part of the interview process, but it is not used by all administrators, pointing to the inconsistency in how faculty members are hired within specific areas. When faculty were asked about their own hiring experiences, some pointed to a simple review of their curriculum vitae and reference contacts, and a few described teaching observation done in their interview or in others’ interviews. There was, however, a sense that teaching may not be highly valued in the hiring process overall. As one faculty participant noted,

No one in any of my interview process ever asked me if I knew how to teach. It seems that, and I don’t think that this is unique to [this university], I think this is just higher education, that the philosophy is “Have they mastered their field?” And if they have, that means they’ll be a good teacher. And I think those two are about as far as apart as they can get. Just because someone has knowledge in a field doesn’t mean they know how to communicate that knowledge. And I think one of my frustrations, one of the things I see, one of the things I hear from students is that many of our professors are not good teachers. They’re really smart and they really know their subject, but they’re not good teachers. But we just
interviewed a guy for [a position in our department] and he said, when I met with him for a while, that I was the first one that had asked him if he knew how to teach. So, I’m thinking, how do we do this?

For this participant, it does not seem that faculty members are even being asked about teaching, and this was underscored by another faculty participant who was surprised by “the lack of interest and expertise in teaching.” While this response came within the context of a question on whether quality teaching was discussed at the university, he clearly identified a lack of discussion throughout his career at the university, including in the hiring process. Both of these participants’ perceptions were that there was a lack of teaching focus when they were hired at the university, and these perceptions were in contrast to the administrators’ understanding of their own practices.

Table 22

9a. My institution provides adequate mentoring and other support for beginning instructors.

<table>
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<th>Faculty Interviewees</th>
<th>All Participants</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
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<tr>
<td>Disagree (2)</td>
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</table>
Orientation. Once faculty members are hired, the university requires that they move through an orientation program, but the participants provided somewhat of a mixed message about the consistency of this program and the benefit for them as teachers. Of the faculty survey respondents, 52.4% reported that they agreed or strongly agreed that the institution provided “adequate” support for new faculty, particularly through mentoring (Table 22). The overall mean was slightly higher for faculty that were not a part of the interviews, identifying a more negative outlook by interviewees. Care was taken, then, in the analysis to include responses from faculty focus groups, as well as the department chair focus group, since these faculty members also completed the survey. Overall, the participants recognized the strides the university has taken in recent years to improve the orientation process for faculty, but questioned the amount of teaching support new faculty receive through their first years.

Many of the faculty participants expressed their appreciation for the changes made to the orientation process over the years to help new faculty transition into their roles. When asked whether they went through an orientation program when they first started at the university, most of the more experienced faculty said “no,” or they described minimal assistance offered by the university. As one of the senior members of the faculty described,

I came here from a public school arena, which is so incredibly different. It is a different world where you’re presented a curriculum, very structured, even what you teach, all of that. To this university, when I first got hired, they said, “OK, here are the courses.” … They said, “here’s the syllabi that have been created by the professors before you.” And basically that was it. And I waited for more. And I said, “well, where are the textbooks?” They said, “well, you just decide what that is.” And I said, “well, what about the syllabus?” And they said, “you can completely revamp it if you want.” So all of a sudden, all this autonomy that I had not experienced in the past was just sort of dumped in my lap, all these decisions.
And at the same time, I was working on my doctorate and my plate was really full. And I just couldn’t get over that they would say to me “we just totally trust what you come up with.” Basically, there were very little guidelines, which took me some time to get used to. On one hand, I felt like I was lost, but on the other hand, I felt a tremendous amount of responsibility to do this thing right because they said, “we hired you do this, and we trust you’ll do it well.” So that’s where it was. That took some getting used to, I can tell you... But I thought they could have done a better job of giving me a little more guidance. I was just sort of thrown into this world, and it was sort of, “Good luck.” That’s the feeling I had.

This participant described a common theme by those who arrived on campus many years before: little to no preparation. As another senior faculty member, when asked whether he went through an orientation/mentoring program, said, “No. Very simple. You’re on your own…You're basically thrown to the wolves.” He then went on to say,

F: It’s better now, but I don’t think we’ve really developed. We have not, period. We have not developed a mentoring program. Maybe there are some departments that have something like that, but the associations I’ve had have been extremely minimal. I have attempted to try to assist people as they have questions and to work with them in evaluations, whatnot. Identify issues and we try to deal with those and make suggestions and so forth, but more of a subtle mentoring, not necessarily an overt where you meet and you talk over things in detail. Very little of that. Very little.

Again, this participant acknowledges the lack of preparation offered to faculty in the past, but notes that things have changed somewhat since he began teaching at MTU. He also notes, however, that he believes the university could be doing more in the way of teaching preparation, which was also a consistent theme addressed by faculty. Overall, senior faculty members were glad to see that newer faculty members were provided a stronger orientation program than they had.

Many of the newer faculty members acknowledged that they were provided an orientation program, but they also acknowledged a lack of focus on teaching in the program itself. When asked whether they had been through an orientation program, most
faculty members said they had. When asked to describe what the focus of the orientation program was, however, they described topics that, while important, did not directly address teaching. For example, one faculty participant said,

The things we talked about in the new faculty orientation sessions that happened primarily before classes began mostly dealt with an introduction to the university itself rather than dealing with the craft of teaching. The things that we were to have discussed as we went on were supposed to be, at least this was the stated goal, more centered around best teaching practices and that sort of thing, and we never got there. Now, I will say that I have heard from new faculty who’ve come since I’ve been here that they have done some more of that.

This participant noted that the orientation was really focused on orientation to the university, not orientation to the teaching role. Another participant noted that the orientation focused on the system, including turning in grades and using the library, and not on teaching. In this case, the participant described feeling like the university expected that she was ready to teach and only needed assistance transitioning into the university system. A third participant described this feeling as well. When asked whether he went through an orientation program, he said,

I didn’t. I mean, yes I did. I did. But it was things like “here’s how our insurance works,” and “here’s the rules of the university,” and it’s kind of just getting acquainted with the university. There was nothing on how to become a good professor. The reality is, and this is what’s scary to me in the teaching world, is that outside of getting acquainted with the university, nobody taught me how to write a syllabus, nobody taught me anything about what I was to do in the classroom, other than I had to take roll and I had to make sure I had a final exam of some kind. And there were certain requirements that I had to do in the class, but no one ever told me how to do any of this….And I realize for someone coming to [the university] who’s taught at another university, a lot of that kind of stuff would be unnecessary. But we’re hiring a lot of young people who have little or no teaching experience, which I think is great, but I wonder how they’re surviving and what their classes are like. Because, again, not only do we teach the way we learn, based on our learning styles, but I think we also teach by what we have seen, and observed, and experienced ourselves. And I’m not sure those are always good models. At least what I had were not always good models.
Like the earlier examples, this participant describes a program focused on university orientation, not an orientation on teaching, but he goes on to recognize a concern he has about this: without support in becoming an effective teacher, he is afraid that many will either not survive, or they will simply teach the way they learn best or model their teaching after examples they have seen in the past, which may or may not be effective.

All of the faculty members who had been through an orientation program expressed a lack of teaching focus, and many highlighted their concern that teaching be a focus for new faculty in the future.

The question of whether the orientation program addressed teaching was also asked of administrators, who provided a clear picture of what the intent has been in the past and where the program is heading in the future. When administrators were asked whether teaching is being included in the orientation process, the academic dean most recently in charge of the faculty orientation said this:

Two word response: It’s not. That’s all. The orientation has expanded. At first, it was kind of just an orientation to, “here, we need to get you started,” and then some follow up in dealing with the new hires, maybe more on a case by case basis. And then making sure that they were getting acclimated in their local area, their department, or division, or school. Over the last couple of years, it’s expanded to more of an introduction to the university, more of an orientation to the culture and the areas of the university, and how the different areas work with each other, and then some more emphasis dealing with the culture of the university…And I think, at that point, we’re still reliant upon local departments or local Schools… when I say schools, like the School of Education or the School of Theology… to really embrace that faculty member, maybe have a mentor faculty within that area, or someone at least looking out for the new faculty member and helping acclimate them to that local area. I’m hoping the next step as an institution is that we can begin looking at a good set of development, faculty development for both new faculty and continuing faculty… related to just the practice of teaching in your discipline, and we’re not there yet…I don’t think we have the resources to establish that yet.

In this statement, the administrator affirms the perceptions that faculty have of the
orientation program, noting that the focus has been on orientation to the university, not to teaching, and that administrators rely on, but do not require, departments to support faculty in teaching-related areas. He also expresses his perception of the importance of teaching support from the university, however, and his hopes for future work in this area.

Another dean, who will be taking over the orientation responsibilities for the future, confirmed improvements in the future, saying,

I just laid out the schedule for that for next year and so I’m thinking through that. I think we have eight sessions with them throughout the year. So you’re asking, of those eight, which ones deal specifically with teaching? Probably two of the eight. As I think through it, that’s probably what it is. Now, on one hand, we didn’t have that before, so that’s a good thing. On the other hand, of course, we can always do more.

Based on these comments, the administrators clearly perceive teaching support to be an important part of a new faculty member’s orientation to the university, and hope to make it a stronger focus in the future, but teaching, so far, has not played an important role.

Both faculty and administrators identified a lack of focus on teaching and teaching support in the orientation processes of the university, but they also agreed on the importance of having this support for the future. In one faculty focus group, a participant from the School of Education, in addressing improvements faculty in her area could make to the learning process of students, inadvertently argued for teaching support on the college level. She described the need for high school teachers, who are focused on specific subjects, to know pedagogy well. Asked, then, whether the same could be applied to university teachers, she said,

I feel that if you’re going to come in to a position where you’re going to be teaching, you need to have had some type of methodology in teaching. I strongly believe that. And I don’t mind the fact that you are an expert in your field. You need to be to teach on the university level. But that’s the whole key. You’re
teaching. So, if you’re teaching, you need to know something about how I’m supposed to get this information across. Now, some people just have a gift to be able to teach no matter what. Now other people, they don’t have that gift… They need to be taught how to teach. And I think even if faculty [are] hired and they have never taught, I think we do them a disservice by not helping them understand…how teaching should be done. Of course, some of them would be highly offended, but my thing is, you haven’t taught if your students haven’t learned anything, or if your students don’t understand what you’re talking about.

This participant’s strong belief is that pedagogy is an important part of the learning process of faculty because they are charged with the important task of student learning. Many of the faculty described having some teaching experience in graduate school, but few noted any specific teacher training they went through. A few of the department chairs, despite not going through a teaching-based orientation program, did describe the informal support they received through their department and the reasons why it was so important for them. As one noted,

Fortunately, I had someone on the faculty who really mentored me, and I have mentored my small department, and I think that close relationship has been very effective. I would call it, specifically, a mentoring relationship, where we’ve talked about almost everything that’s happened. … I wish for every new faculty member, especially young faculty members, …[that] they could be engaged in a mentoring relationship with an experienced faculty member. You know, if you wait until your end of the year evaluation to talk to your department chair about things that need to be improved, you’re going to quit before you [have] turned into a great faculty member.

This chair argues that mentoring was an important support for him, and that it has been for those he has worked with as well, because of the questions it makes them think about. Another department chair followed this comment by acknowledging that his department also assigns a mentor, but that the mentor is not “institutionally provided.” These participants address the importance of providing support, but also bring the conversation full circle to address the role the institution should play in orienting faculty to teaching
and how to teach effectively. For both administrators and faculty, it was clear that teaching should have a central place in the future focus of faculty orientation.

*Faculty and administrator discussions.* Besides the perceptions faculty and administrators shared concerning the value placed in teaching through hiring and orientation practices, they were also asked to identify discussions about quality teaching happen on campus and what those discussions say about the value of teaching. Of the 27 faculty who responded to the question of whether quality teaching is discussed at the department level through interviews and focus groups, all but six reported that some discussions occurred among departmental faculty. The six who did not believe their department spent time discussing teaching had varying responses, and reasons, for this. A few participants, like this new faculty member, simply said that it was not happening:

I feel like I have two of the top ten teachers in the university in my department... But do we actually talk about good teaching methods? No. Do we talk about stuff that works and that doesn’t? No, not really. Do we talk about teaching? No.

Another described it this way:

I don’t know that we talk about teaching all that much. I think we’re very good at supporting each other emotionally. So it’s more like, when it’s paper grading season, we’re all kind of tearing our hair out together.

Others alluded to the fact that since teaching is the job they were hired to do, they should be striving themselves, and that the job takes so much time, there is little time to talk about teaching. As one participant said,

I think it’s, perhaps, understood or expected, inferred. And I’m not sure that I can say in our meetings we have time to sit and discuss quality teaching. I think it’s part of what we are expected to do.

Another participant said something similar, noting that,
If you’re doing your job, and you’re doing what you’re supposed to be doing, if there was something that was really off track, I really do believe that it would be brought to my attention, and I think it probably would be for every other professor on the floor, too, even in the other departments.

Each of these participants referred to teaching as a job, but where the first one perceived teaching improvement to be her responsibility, this second participant seems to see improvement as necessary when issues arise and does not see the need for regular discussions on teaching. While most of the faculty did not go into this much depth, these six faculty members recognized a lack of discussions, either formal or informal, that occurred in their departments.

Of the remaining 22 faculty who noted that some discussions about teaching occurred, a few described formal gatherings where teaching was discussed, with most of the rest indicating that any discussions that do happen are informal, casual conversations between colleagues. In the few cases where formal discussions occur, these departments have individually pursued formal gatherings. For example, one participant described formal times this way:

S: Now, this past year we have met every Monday at lunchtime as a faculty and we talk about what’s going on in our courses… We just decided we needed to do that because some of us, we teach the same students. And so we need to know what’s going on with each other’s courses. And by doing that, we have found that there’s some overlap in some of the things we’re doing at different levels, and we’ve also discovered some ways that we could more creatively disseminate information…And that’s how these things evolve is by sitting and talking. Maybe not in a formal setting, but saying as a faculty, “we want our students to be better learners.”

This department’s faculty, with support of the department chair, made teaching a priority by planning weekly lunchtime discussions of it. The other department representatives who acknowledged discussions of teaching in formal settings talked primarily about the
annual review, where each faculty meets with the department chair to review the year based on the key areas, including teaching, that faculty at the university are evaluated on.

As one participant, who happened to also be a department chair, described it,

That’s where I talk to individual faculty members during their annual reviews and so forth. That’s when we talk about the specifics. The things I hear, the things they talk about, the things they’re concerned about, and so forth. We put that together and discuss those kinds of things and make suggestions about how to do things better. So it’s been more on an individual basis than in a group setting.

All department chairs are required to meet with each faculty member at the end of the year to do this, and based on the responses from participants, this is the most, and for many the only, formal setting for discussions like this.

While a few faculty members identified formal discussions, and while each department chair is required to conduct individual discussions with faculty, most faculty described informal conversations as the sole way that teaching is discussed. For example, when asked whether discussions on quality teaching were informal or formal in her department, one participant said,

Informal. Sometimes anecdotal. You’re just sitting around talking and things pop out, or you ask questions, like, for instance, I might notice one of my co-faculty members carrying something to their class, so I will ask them, “what are you going to use that for? What are you doing in class?” Or they’ll come by and say, “Oh, we’re going to do so and so and so and so in class today.” And so in that sense, it’s very informal.

While some of the participants described general discussions that occur, a few addressed the conversations that arise out of problems or challenges that happen in the classroom.

As one focus group participant described,

Ours is done informally as well. We tend to do business during the department meetings, but informally it happens a lot. “Here’s something that worked.” A book, an idea, a clip of a movie or something like that, a certain discussion kind of question, how to effectively use the discussion board on Blackboard or
something like that. Usually those things come up in the context of “here’s where I really blew something.” And then you’re sort of sharing with someone else and something clicks, and that sort of thing. So I think the relationship of the department members is really the key to dealing with those specific kinds of strategies amongst each other.

A few faculty, like this one, mentioned conversations that start because specific faculty ask questions based on issues they ran into in the classroom, but some faculty also attributed informal conversations to the presence of new, or younger, faculty. As one participant noted,

> We talk about it a lot. We do. Around the copying machine, you know, we don’t have a water cooler, we have a copy machine. And we do talk about that a lot and what we can do differently. And I think that that’s been the case because there are a number of us that are engaged in Ph.D. work…. And we’re engaging the Ph.Ders and saying, “OK, talk to us about how that changed your teaching, or are you incorporating more research in what you do?”

The majority of participants who acknowledged that their department discussed teaching identified informal meetings, like this one, that are not necessarily intentional, but occur occasionally as faculty seek help, support, or just talk with each other in the hallway.

Like the faculty, department chairs and academic deans agreed that when discussions happen at a department level, they are informal in nature, and are often problem-based. One department chair did describe teaching discussions that were very formal in nature, happening within multiple department meetings throughout the year, because of the high concentration of general education courses. As this participant noted,

> I think one of the reasons we do talk about it maybe more so, for instance, more formal, is because of all of the general [education] courses. We do a lot of discussion. We want those courses not to be cookie cutter, but we want them to be a lot the same so that students can go from section to section and know they’re going to be in somewhat of a similar experience. So we do a lot of sharing of ideas and we’ll email back and forth: “this works for this assignment. You might want to try it in class today with that.” So, that kind of thing is common, especially among the courses that are [general education] courses.
Most of the administrators, however, saw discussions happening within their area as informal, and many described conversations that began casually because of issues a professor was having in a classroom. As one department chair described it,

I’m not sure we do it enough, you know, this talking about quality teaching. And I don’t know that it makes a big difference, but maybe it does. It seems like it’s, and I think even what I’m hearing, a lot of it is problem-centered. We talk about it when we have a problem…We’re not as proactive. I’m not sure we’re talking about great ideas in terms of teaching methods. It’s usually when there’s a problem. Now again, maybe that’s normal, maybe that’s not bad, but I don’t know.

Another participant agreed, noting that the conversations were born out of classroom instances that either worked well or were problematic, and were not “purposeful.” In the conversation that occurred in the department chair focus group, participants, like the faculty, acknowledged that there were not intentional discussions of teaching within the department, but, instead, they were more anecdotal. Administrators also acknowledged a reason why formal discussions of teaching are not always possible: faculty resistance.

One of the administrators characterized this idea this way:

I think there’s resistance to the conversation. And, not surprisingly, from faculty who are maybe weaker pedagogically. And so I think that’s a factor in the conversation. As soon as that conversation is raised, …they’re going to explain to me how the end-of-course reviews are not accurate, and why they’re not fair, and why they don’t mean anything, and why their course has a different response, and it’s the student, or it’s the culture, or it’s the discipline, or it’s something, but it’s never them. So as soon as you start talking about critical assessment, or reconsidering how they teach, things close up very quickly. So I think that’s a challenge to try to do that in a way that is constructive, and constructively challenges really all of us. All of us can use it. But I find that it’s actually my best teachers who are most open to conversation about pedagogy. It’s the other ones that are not.

These comments, as well as the previous ones, identify the perception by some administrators that some faculty do not accept conversations about improvement well,
and formal conversations can end up being pressure-filled rather than constructive. No matter the reason, however, it seems that at the department level, teaching is an informally-discussed topic throughout most of the campus areas.

The overall perception from faculty and administrators concerning the discussion of teaching at the department level was that it happens in most areas informally, but the same faculty and administrators noted that there was little to no discussion of quality teaching at the university level. One participant provided a possible reason for this, saying,

And I think that may be a function of a broader trend, and maybe other departments are different, or other communications across departments are different. I think, over time since I’ve been here, there’s a decline in the level of professional conversation among colleagues generally. And maybe it’s happening and I’m not in the room or not involved in those conversations. And I think, to some extent, it’s a function of an increase in class size and increase in enrollment. People sense that they do not have the time for anything other than what’s in front of them right now.

Like this faculty member, most said there was no discussion that occurred on a larger scale than the department, and those that did say some discussions had taken place, they acknowledged that they happened years ago or were not directly related to teaching and teaching improvement. As one faculty member said, “I think that it used to do so more so than it does now. I mean, again, when was the last time in a faculty meeting that we talked about teaching? It hasn’t happened for a few years.” There are two faculty meetings set aside for professional development each year, but the perception was that these did not address teaching for the most part, which was frustrating for some faculty. As one said,

This is one of my pet peeves. I’ve talked to administrators about this before. That our faculty meetings should be pedagogically-oriented. They should be focused
towards teaching and how to teach better. That's what I think our faculty meetings should be about. I think when you get however many people you get in there, you waste their time when you do other stuff, frankly. Yet, you've got a pass details out and give announcements and so forth, but most of that can be handled in emails. So, if you're not forwarding the functions these people are about, it's a waste of time.

Participants like this one expressed a desire for change in how faculty meetings are run in order to focus more on teaching, rather than on business.

While a faculty meeting was one place where faculty believed teaching could be more emphasized, two other areas that were addressed by faculty were offerings from the university’s Faculty Development committee and the School/College meetings. In terms of faculty development, faculty described limited opportunities offered by the committee, as well as low turnout to events that have been offered in the past. The perception of these participants was that faculty development was not intentional or well-resourced, and there did not seem to be a formal way that faculty as a whole would be involved in development. It should be noted, however, that many faculty who were a part of the College of Arts and Sciences described college meetings that were more in line with their expectations. The dean of the college spent deliberate time in meetings discussing teaching and working to recognize effective teaching. As one member of this college stated,

When we made that changeover from divisions, [the dean of the College of Arts and Sciences] would talk about that in our meetings on teaching effectiveness. And this last year, he had faculty from different departments come in and talk about their own teaching and what they do, and the experiences that influence their teaching. That was really interesting, because it was a variety of faculty people who had been around for a long time, and people that had not been around quite so long.
Another said that “most of our meetings were professional development rather than business.” Many comments were made by participants who saw the focus this dean had as a positive step towards strong emphasis of teaching at the university level. As a university, however, faculty did not express confidence that teaching was an important topic of conversation.

Administrators, when asked if quality teaching was discussed at a university level, agreed with the perception that although it was happening in some areas, like the College of Arts and Sciences, that was not enough. As the dean of the College of Arts and Sciences noted, for example, the faculty, at a university level, talked about teaching,

A little bit, not enough. I know in my own area, we had a few sessions built in to our college meetings where we talked about that…I know it’s happened before periodically, episodically, not systematically. I think that’s the difference: we probably ought to be more systematic about that so that it’s routinized, it’s more naturalized. I think we’ve relied on the end-of-course evaluation as a system that is supposed to stimulate that and probably doesn’t…I know it’s useful, but, like anything, whatever you do all the time tends to lose value over time…A system left unto itself will inherently disintegrate. You have to feed it to keep it healthy. It won’t remain normal by itself. So we need to have that and other things, but I think we need to be in a continuous posture of feeding it, doing something with it to value it.

For this administrator, and others, the lack of conversations about teaching needs to be addressed so that faculty members continue to grow and develop, and so teaching on campus is improved. Open conversation was the expressed priority of the deans, with one noting,

I think we need open and honest dialogue about it. I have not heard within the last “eons” an open, honest dialogue on the floor of the faculty meeting about how you do this. And there’s a lot of great minds in that room that can help inform practice. And it’s sort of this two-sided thing that I’ve seen here. We cut the faculty load, but then we increase the number of students. And then we say we want scholarship, but we want teaching. And I don’t think [it will happen] until we come to what [my colleague] says is an open, honest dialogue about resources,
and what [my other colleague] says is really looking at this in an honest, forthright way. It cannot be top-down. It has to be informative from both sides, and too often, it winds up being top-down. So I think it begs a really good open, honest dialogue about what it is.

And as another said, “[Faculty] may march in graduation together, but they never sit down and talk about things that might be really happening in their classrooms. So I think we need to do much, much more.” In all, the administrators expressed a strong desire that more discussion happens among the faculty, and that these discussions be intentional so that all sides are involved and so teaching is seen as highly valued at the university. They acknowledged areas where the university was making some strides, including in the orientation process, but clearly felt that more should be done.

While faculty and administrators thought the university should encourage the discussion of teaching through discussions, faculty development opportunities, and through the orientation process, participants were not sure whether their colleagues would recognize this need and be willing to engage in these experiences. The interviewees were identified earlier based on their perceived need for development in teaching in order to compare that level with their scores on the ATI-R. Nine of the 16 faculty reported a high level of need, including seven that actively or continually pursued teaching development opportunities and two that would if they had time. There were, however, seven others who reported a low or moderate level of need based on interview responses, and therefore spent less time participating in faculty development. The interviewees, as well as focus group participants, were also asked to identify their perceptions of their colleagues’ openness and willingness to engage in professional development, and the results were clear: some, not all, of their colleagues would be open to it. A couple interviewees, for
example, attributed the lack of willingness of some colleagues to time concerns. As one said, “honestly, I think a lot of folks would feel like it’s just one more thing on the list to do. While it’s a good idea, one more thing that they don’t have enough time to do.”

Another described it this way:

It’s about 50/50. That would be the feeling I have in my department. There are some who I think who would see it as just another meeting. And they’re sick and tired of meetings. And there are others who, I think, would be genuinely interested in having some conversations if time allowed. If they really felt like they could give some time and attention to it.

A third interview participant agreed, identifying that “you make time for what you think is important. When people say, “I don’t have time,” they really mean they don’t want to do it.” For this first group of faculty, there were some who were willing to be involved, but others who would simply say there was not enough time, which could, according to this last participant, show a lack of interest.

While time was a factor for some, others attributed the difference between those who would get involved and those who would not to be a difference in age or experience. One participant said,

There are a few people I would say that would be because they want to be better. And I think those tend to be the newer, or the younger, faculty… I think the younger and the newer faculty would take advantage of opportunity. I think some of these old guys are stuck in their ways… I’m sure there are some, and I think the trend is the younger and the newer faculty more than likely. Maybe part of that is, too, that everybody has their style, and figuring out “what’s my style of teaching?”

For this participant, and others, it is understandable why the newer faculty would be more inclined to engage in development opportunities, since older faculty have already figured out what works best for them. While some faculty identified the more experienced faculty as having a lower interest in development, however, others noticed a difference in
willingness even among newer faculty. After leading one of the new faculty orientation sessions last year, one participant observed,

I talked about some of the things I do in my courses, outside of instructional strategies, to give them an example of how you apply the knowledge, rather than just hanging on to these traditional assessments and so forth. And if body language means anything, I would say there were a handful that really caught on to what I was talking about and even offered to discuss some things that they were in the process of doing. While others, you could hear the crickets. “OK, what time is this over?” And, you know, very intelligent people. No question about it. But my sense was they just didn’t buy it. That what I’m doing has worked in the past. Even though they’re new, “this seemed to be working fine last semester, so I’ll just keep…”

This observation of a group of faculty in their first year of teaching at the university seems to point to a difference in people in general rather than a difference based on years of experience. There were a few, however, who believed that the younger faculty members they knew were more eager than more experienced faculty to be involved in professional development.

Two other participants provided interesting perspectives on this that did not fit with the issues of time or years of experience, but did speak to other factors. For one participant, the lack of engagement may be due to the isolation faculty feel, as well as concern for how other see them. As he described,

I think it’s safe to say there would be a lot of people at the university level who would not ask for help. Who would look around and, because of the nature of this environment where there’s just a lot of isolation going on, they would look around and say, “well, I’ve just got to figure this out.” And if they hear students complaining or they’re getting bad evaluations, I think some of them, particularly ones without any teaching experience, are lost. They would say, “I know what the complaints are. I just don’t know how to fix it.” And I think some of them would be very open in smaller sessions. I think if you try to approach this from a faculty-wide, if you use that type of approach, I think people would be much less willing to open up.
From this perspective, faculty may feel like they need to figure it out themselves because of isolation and the low interest in admitting classroom problems to others. While this may be true, one of the academic deans identified a more general perspective on the nature, and differences, of people in any field. He describes a conversation he had with a visiting accreditation representative this way:

I asked “As you’ve been here, you get a sense for our faculty. What is your sense for, relatively speaking, their ambition, their output, you know, that kind of stuff?” And she said something that I thought was, in some sense, predictable, but also interesting. She said “I think you have three types of people.” And this would be normal. She said, “You have the overachievers who are doing more with their content and their colleagues and their students then would ever be expected whether it’s written down or not: this is above the norm. You have the people who are doing what they should be doing, and then you have minimalists: people who are working by the letter of the law of the contract and dates on a calendar.”

The observations of this accreditation representative were that faculty generally fell into categories of willingness to be engaged. For some, going the extra mile is part of who they are. Others take the job seriously and do what they need to do, but do not feel pressured to go beyond that. A third group simply watch the clock and do what is most required. While her comments were not directly related to willingness to engage in development opportunities, they speak to the attitudes faculty may have about their work overall. No matter the reason, however, whether it be time, years of experience, isolation, or simply work attitude, it is clear from faculty and administrator perceptions that some, but not all, of their colleagues would be open to faculty development and would take steps to get involved.

*Rewards.* As one of the academic deans noted, “in any organization, or community, you’re going to tend to produce what you reward and require,” which speaks to the need to identify what is rewarded at a university in order to also see what is valued.
All of the interviewees and focus group members were asked during the study whether the university rewards teaching, and while many said “yes,” how they perceived those rewards varied immensely. Some recognized teaching as their job, and therefore viewed their paycheck as a reward for doing that job. As one department chair said, “obviously, teaching is what we get paid for. I mean that’s why we get our paycheck, primarily, but I’m not sure it’s really rewarded beyond that.” Others changed the meaning of the question a bit to talk about how “rewarding” teaching was. One faculty member responded to the question about rewards by saying “It’s rewarding.” Another said,

I think there are indirect rewards of good teaching from the university, and I think the indirect rewards are that if you and a number of other faculty members are really… investing in students’ lives, when they graduate and they go off to serve, that is the institution’s mission. Scholarship towards service. So I think there’s that unidentified, undefined, indirect knowledge that you’re a part of a team with a mission that is graduating kids who aren’t all about just making the money, but about serving God and the kingdom. That’s not direct, that’s not quantifiable, but I think that is a real sense that all of us have, I think. That we’re contributing towards students’ maturation and growth to really serve God…That’s the greatest reward of all: seeing lives grown, and stretched, and changed.

For this participant, and others, teaching is much more about supporting the process of transformation of students, which fits very clearly with the mission of the university.

They saw a bigger focus to their work beyond the typical outcomes of good teaching. As another participant described,

I think probably all the folks would point to students who, maybe they stay in your field, maybe they don’t. Maybe they go into graduate school in your area, maybe they don’t. But you think, “Boy, I’ve had a little tiny part in helping develop that person, grow that person, and see those transformations over the years.

For a few of the faculty, their first and only thoughts were on the rewarding nature of teaching at the university, and this was all they needed to be encouraged towards
excellence. All of these participants saw teaching as a reward in itself and did not express a need for much beyond that.

While there were some who saw teaching as the reward, a few argued that teaching was not rewarded on campus at all. For these faculty and administrators, there did not seem to be specific ways that the university rewarded effective teaching. As one faculty member noted,

I don’t think it’s…what’s primarily looked for. And the reason I say that is, I think, the university as a whole, whoever would speak for the university would say, “yeah, we do that.” But I’m not sure that that can be done without a real evaluation of teaching. So, for instance, my annual review that I fill out. It has questions about my teaching competency and stuff like that, but it really doesn’t evaluate whether I’m doing anything. So I can be standing in front of a classroom and giving notes and be considered a good teacher, but that doesn’t mean I’m necessarily teaching. And just because my class may be hard,… that doesn’t mean I’m a good teacher. It just means I have a hard class. In fact, if I was a good teacher, that hard class would have students who are more successful in it because I’ve really taught them. So I don’t know if there’s a mechanism in place that really evaluates teaching.

In his case, he recognizes that faculty are recognized and given awards, but he questions whether the rewards can really be about teaching effectiveness if teaching, itself, is not being evaluated. Others argued that good teaching is not rewarded, but poor teaching is negatively rewarded. For example, one participant, responding to the question of whether teaching is rewarded, said,

Is it really rewarded? I agree that if it was very poorly done, I think that would be a reason to let someone go. And I’ve been on that rank and service committee. I think so. But I’m not sure, on the other end, “oh, Jonathan, I want to reward you for your fantastic teaching.” I’m not sure there’s a mechanism for that.

The point, here, is that for faculty, there seemed to be clear recognition when teaching quality was poor, but a lack of recognition and reward for effective teaching.
The majority of faculty and administrators referred to specific annual awards given out to faculty as evidence of rewards, although there were some lingering doubts about whether the awards were entirely based on teaching criteria.

Table 23

*Participants’ Comments on Faculty/Teaching Awards at Midwest Teaching University*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interviewee</td>
<td>They do give awards at the end of the year at commencement for people who have seemed to have been influential educators. I don’t know that very many people know what the criteria is for receiving those awards. I mean, there’s the award for teaching excellence, there’s the award that students may vote on because this is their professor, things like that. But how do you determine what those are, what the criterion is for that. They have the faculty member of the year at the beginning of the year, although from my vantage point, that isn’t always rewarding people who are the best at their teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewee</td>
<td>I would never debate the people who’ve been selected. I think they’ve been excellent, but to me, that seems like a black box concept. I don’t know if it’s a political process. It may not be, but at least if you’re going to do it that way, I think there needs to be disclosure on what are the criteria, and I think that would help… I think they’ve made great selections, but is it, do you have to be here so many years, or do you have to have so many students? … One of my criticisms, frankly, as I look at since I’ve been here, there has maybe been one woman selected. Why is that? Is that because sometimes women teach in areas… If you’re teaching English, you’re not going to necessarily have a lot of happy campers. So, if the criteria is they get great evaluations, you might have somebody being the best teacher… So that’s my criticism of that. I don’t know that it’s being rewarded in a way… A lot of times, to make rewards effective, there have to be clear criteria for people to meet that.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewee</td>
<td>I don’t know if that’s a teaching award. I don’t know. You don’t apply for it. I don’t know what the qualifications are for it, but they say faculty member of the year, … so you do assume teaching is part of it.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The university awards both a Faculty Member of the Year at an annual dinner and a Teaching Excellence award at graduation every year. Faculty also mentioned a third award, the Second Mile award, which is voted on by students and, based on faculty comments, is given for work with students outside of teaching. Most of the faculty identified the two faculty awards as the primary way teaching is rewarded, but almost every person that mentioned these awards also expressed their concern that the lack of clear criteria for those awards meant that they were not positive teaching was the primary focus. A few of these comments are listed in Table 23 in order to demonstrate just how unclear these awards were for faculty.

Besides those listed in the table, many others affirmed those who have received the awards, but questioned the criteria for the awards and expressed interest in knowing more about it so that it could become an incentive. Even department chairs found it difficult to identify how the awards were actually decided upon, as seen in this exchange:

B: We do get the end of the year teaching award as granted, but no one seems to know what the criteria ever is for that. I’m just saying honestly… I’ve asked around, “were you on that committee?” I don’t know that there is a committee. You know, I’m not trying to burst anyone’s…

D: I’m assuming there is.

B: Yeah, but I’ve never heard in my 13 years, it’s a kind of a joke, at least in some of my circles, that no one knows. Somewhere over in the halls there it gets decided. I mean, it’s not student generated…

D: I thought it was.

S: I thought it was.

B: It’s not faculty generated.

J: The second mile…
C: Not faculty, but…

J: The second mile award is student generated.

B: The second mile… right, right, there’s a couple of them…

C: But I thought there [were] students that sit on that committee when they make that decision.

D: I thought so, too.

B: What’s the committee?

D: I don’t know.

C: I don’t know who the committee is. It’s not any of us.

D: It’s not on the list of committee at the beginning… it’s not an assigned committee.

B: Yeah, there’s no… it’s a mystery, it’s a mystery. We’re all assuming. It’s a mystery.

It was the academic deans who finally cleared the question up in a separate focus group when one admitted that “there’s no criteria for that award. It’s the vice-president and the president.” Overall, all involved recognized that there was a lack of criteria or understanding of the awards that were given, and while past recipients were validated by the faculty and administrators as worthy, more specific criteria would both clarify whether the awards specifically rewarded teaching, but also would help faculty to feel that they have something to strive for.

One of the awards handed out to faculty each year, as noted above, is the Faculty Member of the Year, given at an annual dinner, but a few of the faculty cited this dinner as another place where rewards occur. Each year, administrators ask faculty to identify
items to be included in the program for the dinner that highlight important work they are doing. As the annual evaluation document says,

In an effort to better discern items of importance for inclusion in the President’s Dinner program, we would appreciate it if you would highlight the material you believe is most relevant. As we prepare the program, we will look for highlighted items and include materials as space permits.

Faculty submissions are then placed into four categories: 1) Published Materials, 2) Participation in Professional/Scholarly Activities, Unpublished Papers, Recitals, Travel, 3) Advanced Degrees Earned, and 4) Personal Recognitions and Service to the Community. Faculty members are also recognized for their years of service in this program. A few of the participants cited the items included in the program as rewards for teaching. One faculty participant, for example, when asked about teaching rewards, said, “When we go to the President’s Dinner, little things have been selected from our annual review, and it’s published that way.” However, when asked whether those submissions were focused on teaching, she went on to say,

I’m not sure that I’ve noticed a trend one way or another. Some of it has to do with community service, some of it has to do with professional development, so they’re categorized. I’m not sure that one trend stands out over another.

Another faculty member, also responding to a question on teaching rewards, identified the President’s Dinner program as evidence, noting,

When we go to the President’s Dinner, for instance, there’s the folder, and I always like to read through and see who’s publishing, and who’s presenting at what conferences, and all this sort of thing. So I think, in those ways, research is, in fact, at least acknowledged and rewarded in some ways.

This participant focused in on research and publishing, not teaching, when asked about teaching rewards, and when he was asked to say how much of it is teaching-focused, he began discussing teaching awards, instead. None of the faculty who mentioned the
President’s Dinner could directly identify how much of the items were focused on teaching.

In order to identify whether the President’s Dinner program provided rewards for teaching, programs from 2003-2007 were collected and every item within the program was labeled either teaching or non-teaching related so that a number of teaching-related items could be reviewed for each year. In the Published Materials section, the bulk of items included related to books and articles published in the past year.

Table 24

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items Listed in President’s Dinner Programs by Year and Teaching/Non-Teaching</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Published Materials</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching-Related</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in Professional/Scholarly Activities, Unpublished Papers, Recitals, Travel</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching-Related</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Recognitions and Service to the Community</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching-Related</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Teaching-Related</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Teaching-Related Items</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
<td>14.5%</td>
<td>9.94%</td>
<td>6.90%</td>
<td>4.81%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Any item that was published on teaching, or published in a field’s teaching journal, was identified as teaching-related. In the Participation in Professional/Scholarly Activities, Unpublished Papers, Recitals, Travel section, most items were evidence of faculty
conference presentations, professional boards and committees they serve on, recitals performed, and other activities within their discipline. Any activity that was teaching-related, such as presentations at teaching conferences, foreign travel with students, community teaching workshops, and supervision of undergraduate research, were included. The Advanced Degrees Earned section only provided the type of degree earned (Ph.D., Ed.D., M.A., etc.) and did not provide enough information to be included in the analysis.

In the Personal Recognitions and Service to the Community, most of the items related to volunteering, consulting, and service in community organizations. Items that were labeled teaching-related included teaching in the community and at other universities/colleges, recognition for faculty member of the year, recognition for Teaching Excellence award, and others. The number of items listed under each section was tallied and items specifically related to teaching were tallied within each section. Table 24 shows that the amount of teaching-related items, as compared to all of the included items, was relatively small, with the highest percentage in a given year being 14.5%. It should be noted that the items included in the program are faculty-selected, and, therefore, may say more about what faculty members think are important rather than what administrators desire to recognize. It is not clear, however, who decides what is placed in the final program and whether certain types of submitted items are not included when there is no more room available. What is clear, however, is that the President’s Dinner program recognizes some teaching achievements for faculty, but it is mostly focused on other scholarship forms, including publishing, conference presentations, and service to the community. Based on the multiple foci of this document, along with the lack of
clarity about how items are chosen, the document was not considered a reward for teaching by most of the participants.

A final reward that was debated by the faculty and administrators was the promotion in rank for faculty. Of the full-time faculty who completed the survey, 65.5% said they agreed or strongly agreed that the primary criterion for promotion should be teaching, with only 16.7% disagreeing with that idea (Table 25). Based on their responses, faculty believe that teaching should be rewarded through promotion, but while all of the participants who spoke on this issue verified the role teaching plays in promotions, they questioned whether it was the primary focus. For example, one faculty participant said,

There were a variety of things that were a part of that process. You submit student evaluation documentation, peer evaluations had to be a part of that, but number of years of service and degrees were also a part of those sorts of things. And those don’t necessarily guarantee that you’re going to be an effective teacher. It just means that you’ve been here for a while. I don’t know that the rank and promotion process is just a rubber stamp. I don’t know that to be the case. But I’m not sure that it’s entirely linked specifically to how well you teach. I just don’t know. I don’t know that because there were a variety of components to that.

For this participant, the multiple components of the promotion requirements left him wondering how influential teaching, and effective teaching, was in his promotion process.

An academic dean, during a focus group, described his experience on the promotion committee this way:

You know, you’re not going to be promoted any quicker or get advanced any quicker or get any more recognition for being, for the most part. I sit on the rank and service committee here, and you know, the person who is just a dynamo teacher and the person who is a marginal teacher, they just move right along. There isn’t a distinction, and maybe there shouldn’t be there. But that there is no reward, and because of our assessment issues, it isn’t required… It’s very difficult to have an objective enough assessment that you could sit down with a professor and say, “We need to work on this.” Because it’s so vague and anecdotal, then it
becomes subjective, then it becomes very easy to be my opinion vs. their opinion, and then it’s personal and a difference of philosophy or something else. So I think the institution values teaching, but that’s a different thing from what you reward and what you require.

This participant cleared up the debate by noting that teaching was not the primary focus of the promotion process at the university, but also pointed to an issue raised earlier concerning the difficult task of evaluating effectiveness of teaching.

Table 25

9g. *Teaching effectiveness should be the primary criterion for promotion of faculty.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Interviewees</th>
<th>All Participants</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral (3)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree (4)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>48.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree (5)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall, the strong feeling that teaching should be a primary criterion was hindered in these responses by the other aspects of faculty life considered in rank and service decisions.

Overall, participants in the study, in identifying ways they thought the institution rewarded teaching, affirmed an idea a few specifically addressed that teaching at the institution may not be rewarded, but recognized. With the questions over the criteria of
teaching awards, the extent that teaching is the focus of promotions, and with some faculty and administrators not seeing teaching rewarded in any areas, it seemed to some to be indicative of a pattern of recognizing, not rewarding, teaching. As one faculty member noted, “I do think [this university] does at least try to make an attempt to recognize good and effective teaching.” Another agreed, sharing a specific way this happens:

In our College of Arts and Sciences meeting, our dean has, on occasion at the beginning, tried to celebrate some of the things that people have done in terms of the trips they’ve taken with students and the kinds of things they’ve done to encourage students to be involved in research and in applied scholarship, those sorts of things. Most of that seems to be a pat on the back. “Good job.” “Way to go.” Which is nice to hear. I’m not sure how to reward it.

These faculty members acknowledged that teaching is recognized, but was not always formally rewarded. In answering the question of whether teaching was rewarded, one of the deans made this point as well when he said,

Maybe the better word is recognized as I think about that. And what I mean by that is there’s an annual award to recognize teaching excellence, so it’s recognized there. I think even in informal ways. There are some, for example, in academic units that have their own recognition….So, “recognized.” I also think informally, as you mentioned, in our materials, “unapologetic teaching focus.” If you think about it, I’d bet there would be five times every year, if we really listened for it, in public settings where that…comes up in terms of reaffirming the mission, reaffirming our focus. But in terms of “rewarded,” I wouldn’t be as quick to use that word as “recognized” as much, and perhaps we should reward it more.

This dean identified the awards handed out as a recognition, not a reward, and further identified other ways teaching is recognized throughout the year. He admitted, however, that the university did not reward teaching in specific ways and could do better in that area. Overall, these participants affirmed that recognition of teaching does take place on
campus, including through some of the rewards that others identified, but that more could be done to reward teaching.

*Evaluation procedures.* As was identified by participants in this study, the effectiveness of teaching must be measured if rewards are truly going to reflect that accurately. As was already noted, teaching and student engagement are a part of the annual evaluation process of faculty, as well as a part of the promotions process.

Table 26

*9b. Student opinions should be used in evaluating the teaching effectiveness of faculty.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response Level</th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Interviewees</th>
<th>All Participants</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree (1)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree (2)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral (3)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree (4)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>56.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree (5)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Faculty and administrators alike, however, questioned whether the mechanisms that are in place effectively evaluate teaching. In order to further identify faculty perceptions of
evaluation, four specific questions were included in the survey administered to all full-time faculty members. The first two questions addressed how teaching effectiveness should be evaluated, asking specifically about the value of student opinions (Table 26) and peer review (Table 27). In terms of student opinions, 69.9% of the faculty agreed or strongly agreed that they should be used in evaluating teaching effectiveness. Comparatively, 89.2% believed peer review of teaching should be used, with only 4.8% disagreeing, showing a higher regard these faculty had for comments provided them on peer review forms versus end-of-course evaluations completed by students.

Table 27

9c. Peer review should be used in evaluating the teaching effectiveness of faculty.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Interviewees</th>
<th>All Participants</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree (2)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral (3)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree (4)</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>68.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree (5)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>System</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>84</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third question asked, in general, for faculty to identify whether teaching performance should be evaluated more effectively at the university, and 59.6% agreed
that better ways should be found (Table 27). Interestingly, a large group of faculty took a neutral position on this question compared to the few faculty members who remained neutral on the more specific questions of student opinion and peer review.

Table 28

9e. At this institution, we need better ways to evaluate teaching performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Interviewees</th>
<th>All Participants</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree (1)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree (2)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral (3)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree (4)</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>41.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree (5)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, in a question related to faculty perceptions of the evaluation of teaching, full-time faculty were asked whether the university should find better ways to evaluate scholarly performance besides publications (Table 28). 69.0% of the faculty agreed or strongly agreed that, at MTU, publications should not be the primary avenue for scholarship evaluation. Since the institution is a teaching institution, and due to the multiple forms of scholarship encouraged at the university, the faculty are, in part, addressing their desire that scholarship areas like the scholarship of teaching be included in evaluation procedures (Table 29). Overall, faculty perceive the evaluation of teaching
to be important, and believe that the institution should improve the ways that teaching
effectiveness and scholarship are evaluated.

Table 29

9f. At my institution, we need better ways, besides publications, to evaluate the scholarly performance of the faculty.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Interviewees</th>
<th>All Participants</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Disagree (2)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral (3)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree (4)</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>46.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree (5)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>22.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>0.93</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Another question asked of full-time faculty on the survey related to the weight that teaching, research, and service are given in faculty evaluation, and while it lined up with faculty responses from the previous section, some key responses from interviews and focus groups provided commentary on the value the institution places on these areas. 

In terms of the survey question itself, just over half of the faculty agreed or strongly agreed that these three traditional work areas were weighted appropriately (Table 30). This split was also evident in the conversations that occurred between faculty and in interviews about the value the university places on teaching, research, and service. Most
of the participants agreed that research was the least valued of the three at MTU based on
the institution’s lack of research support and publication expectations.

Table 30

9h. *At this institution, faculty evaluation gives appropriate weight to teaching, research, and service.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty Interviewees</th>
<th>All Participants</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree (1)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree (2)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral (3)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree (4)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree (5)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was disagreement, however, over whether teaching or service was more highly
valued by administrators. For example, many faculty were like this participant who, when
describing the institution’s commitment to teaching, said,

I’m really not sure overall how it’s looked at at this university, because I really
haven’t talked about it with other people, but I think it is viewed positively in the
fact that they try to keep the classroom sizes low, they speak with their actions
that teaching is important because they want the professors teaching the classes.
They don’t want TAs teaching the classes. So that tells me that they feel teaching
is important and the professor needs to be doing the teaching. And that’s an
important part of their role is teaching.
Faculty like this one clearly recognized that administrators value teaching based on specific perceived criteria, but many could not say that teaching was of primary value. As one example, this was seen in the discussion a group of faculty had on the primacy of “institutional fit” over teaching ability in the hiring process. It was also, as a faculty focus group participant noted, seen in the strong Christian mission of the university:

It is interesting to me how many of the faculty and staff go away on missions trips. And I think that is a very, very important part of our university community. So, when you ask me do we put more emphasis, on teaching, research, or service, research would be #3, but I would have to stop and think about the teaching and the service. We are very, very service-oriented to that extent… I probably would say teaching would be #1, but service would be a very close second.

Another faculty member, in responding to the same question, identified “service” as most valued, noted that her decision was based on who was recognized more:

The people that get highlighted, the people that get to speak in chapel, of the faculty, I think, would be more the religion or the music. That’s my initial gut instinct. And so probably in order: service, teaching, scholarship. Now, that’s probably a different response, but I’m just thinking, who gets the kudos?

Faculty members had a difficult time identifying whether teaching or service were more valued on the campus based on the strong Christian mission of the university and the expectations, whether self or administrator-imposed, that rose out of this mission. One of the department chairs also questioned whether service or teaching were more highly valued. When asked whether they believe teaching, research, or service were more important at MTU, a department chair began a full conversation on the topic when he said,

I think you could almost build a case that what’s valued here is service, more than scholarship. To be a churchman, and I’m not against that, obviously. But someone who’s in service, you get highlighted, whether it’s taking kids on mission trips or whether you’re doing this on the side, or whether you’re serving your community.
I would almost say there’s a certain kind of, at least, honor that goes… and I’m not saying that’s bad at all. I just never thought of it.

While many of the other department chairs disagreed that service was more important, they did acknowledge the strong focus of service at the university. Overall, however, despite the strength of service expectations, most all of the faculty did recognize that teaching was evaluated more strongly and valued most at MTU.

Conclusion. Throughout this section, faculty and administrators’ perceptions of the institution’s commitment to teaching has been reviewed through six key areas of university life. Multiple viewpoints and opinions were expressed in each of the areas, covering perceptions on institutional identity, hiring and orientation, faculty discussions, rewards, and evaluation. While there was agreement within these areas, some key differences exist, both between faculty members, as well as between faculty and administrators participants. Differences include both the level at which teaching is valued, as well as how the university and administrators express that value through practices, policies, and procedures. Despite the differences, however, there was a general sense that teaching is valued by each of the participants, but could become more highly valued with changes to institutional practices.

Is Teaching Supported?

General support for teachers. As some administrators made clear, it is not enough to value something in a university environment; those values must be translated into expectations and support for faculty to meet those expectations. While teaching may be valued highly, at the university, it was important to identify whether faculty felt supported by the university as it related to teaching. In order to do so, the interviewees
were first asked whether they felt that the university supported them as teachers. In response, a few very clearly said “yes,” but most of the faculty either said “no” or struggled with their choice. Those who said “yes” focused on specific areas where they had felt supported, including technology, conferences, sabbaticals, and financial assistance with advanced degrees. There was also a focus on the empowerment faculty feel because of the trust placed on them by administrators. For example, one participant responded this way:

Absolutely. I know this, that if I needed something to make my instruction better, I’m confident that this university would do anything in their power to get it done. So they really mean it when they say “we entrust these courses to you, to do them in a professional manner,” and they back it up with their actions. So I really do appreciate that. I really feel like I’m treated as a professional here. I didn’t always feel like that in the public school. And the university finds ways to show me they appreciate what I do. And I can’t tell you what that means to me personally… I get the message from [this university] that “we’ve got your back on whatever we can do to help you.”

This feeling of being a professional was addressed by many of the faculty in different ways, and was also affirmed by one of the academic deans, who described the work of the faculty by saying,

Some have described faculty work as the freest occupation in America, and so it really speaks to hiring real human beings with philosophies that you can sort of release and trust to do that work, rather than hiring a cog in a machine that we have an open spot, we have a list of courses, and so we stick them in there to fill it. And so, because there’s so much freedom around, it is to me an inherently philosophical engagement…with a faculty member because the institution would rely on human beings, people, to do the right thing, to be productive, to care about the right things, to not need to be micromanaged, all those things. So, because that’s true, then, there’s an awful lot of trust between administrations, institutions, and faculty members.

For both this faculty member and this administrator, support is given through the empowerment of faculty to do their job, do it well, and be a professional. While this
evidence was not as tangible as some of the other examples mentioned, there were clearly some who felt very supported as teachers.

It was also evident that many faculty members perceived the empowerment emphasis of administrators as a partially negative support mechanism. For these faculty, the empowerment meant, positively, that they were allowed to do their job and were supported when they asked for assistance, but they also felt that the university was not intentional about providing support overall. When one faculty participant was asked whether he felt supported as a teacher, he said,

I guess I would say yes, to a point. To where everything I need, that I’ve needed so far, was available to me... I’ve never had to fight for anything. In that way, they’ve been good. I think maybe if they, and maybe this is because I don’t know what’s out there as far as more training for teacher preparation. Because once again, and I don’t know how many of us are out there that are professors that never had formal training and formal teacher education, I never went through education... I think as far as what I’ve needed to teach, they’ve been very, very good, but as far as, maybe, educating how to teach better, I just never really see that.

For this participant, and others, the university is supportive when asked, but is not seen as doing a lot proactively to support faculty growth and development. There is a feeling that resources are available if they are pursued, but there is not much in the way of planned opportunities and resources for faculty to benefit from. Similarly, a focus group participant noted,

I think we are told “here’s your job. Do your job. And when you need something to help do your job outside the normal expectations, go off and find it yourself.” I have a lot of support within the department, ... and the university does support me when it comes to getting the technology I need, but in terms of just anything not what they think of as important in my department, it’s like, “Well, you’re on your own.” Our departments are on our own.
While this faculty member seems to disagree with the previous participant concerning the availability of resources when asked, both are pointing to the difference between departments that are supportive of their needs and a university that has not provided support overall. For these faculty members, the treatment as a professional is appreciated, but the low amount of support overall is a concern. One pattern also emerged from the comments of faculty: the desire for help becoming a better teacher. As one representative of this group said, “I think it would be interesting to find a way to more specifically encourage faculty members to be about the process of improving their pedagogy.” It seems that the faculty who desired more support as teachers pointed specifically to help they could use in becoming better teachers. It was not enough to feel empowered to become better; the faculty wanted opportunity and support to do so.

**Support to become better teachers.** While faculty generally said they felt supported by the university as teachers, faculty did not feel that the university supported them in becoming better teachers. Many faculty members directly said “no” when asked whether the university provided that type of support. A few addressed the sentiment that they expected more support from the university in the way of teaching; they came in feeling strong in their content area, but weak in teaching, and assumed the support would be there. As another participant, responding to the question of whether the university supported faculty to become better teachers, said, If they do, I’m not aware of it… I’m in a little different situation because my area is instructional methodology. That’s what I do, so I’m very aware of it. I think [this university] is pretty typical of a lot of universities in that we hire people for what they know, not whether they can teach effectively or not. So could the university do more, particularly in those areas that would be considered [general education] that are, for the most part, lecture-oriented? Absolutely.
In this case, the participant recognized the trend of hiring people who are content experts and not providing support for those experts to become good teachers, although it is also clear that participants like this recognized that the university did provide some support.

Another participant addressed this by responding to the question this way:

> On a scale from one to ten, maybe a four. Particularly, they do tend to help people with advanced degrees and so forth, but I’m thinking about people who are out here who are done. I don’t see much tangible help. They allow us to go to conferences and so forth, but in terms of saying “Here are various teaching skills. We’re going to run seminars over a period of years.” I don’t think there’s intent not to, but I don’t think it’s been given much thought to do that.

For those who clearly said “no,” the university has provided “minimal” to no support to help faculty become better teachers.

There were also faculty members who recognized that the university provided some support for developing teachers, but felt the financial support behind it was not sufficient. According to the Faculty Handbook (2004), the institution has committed to providing support for faculty to register for professional organizations and attend conferences in their field, which some faculty use to attend teaching-related conferences.

As the relevant professional development policy in the handbook identify,

> Continued professional development is an obligation of every faculty member. In order to support the pursuit of scholarship and professional development, the University provides the following benefits.

- The University pays for membership in learned societies up to a maximum of $75, but not to cover more than two memberships per year.

- Payment for registration, room, and meals at professional conferences (limited to a reasonable registration fee, two nights lodging, and three days of reasonably priced meals). If a faculty member is invited to present a paper at a conference, every attempt will be made to assist with transportation costs as well. (pp. 36-37)
A few of the faculty see this as a positive sign of support, but do note that the amount of support has not changed over the years, and also identify a change since the 2004 handbook that provides more support for those who present at conferences. As one younger faculty member noted,

I also think on the side of professional development, we’re a little lacking in support financially from the university. You get your conference and two days, two nights of a stay. That’s not even enough for me to go to my national convention, let alone going to something that’s going to help me be a better teacher. So now I have to choose between the two... So, financially, I don’t think the university really helps that much…I don’t want to complain about it, because they do care of some aspects, but I think they could be better.

Another more experienced faculty member shared his empathy for younger faculty trying to develop and grow, acknowledging that the financial support was not strong enough. Both of these participants expressed their feeling that the financial support offered did not allow them to do what they felt they needed to do to develop as faculty and as teachers. This was also an issue with the amount of money provided for professional organization memberships. As the more experienced faculty member made clear,

I feel to a great extent the lack of support in the funds the school provides in terms of memberships and meetings. When I started here 20 years ago, they provided $60 for a membership. It’s now $75. That covers about half of one membership, and if you want your faculty to be active, then that’s not a sufficient covering, not a sufficient amount.

The financial support for professional development has, for some faculty, required that they either pay out of their own pockets or simply limit the avenues they would like to use to pursue that development, and while they recognized that support was there, they would like to see that support improve.

Other faculty agreed that the university does not provide support, but coupled that with the idea expressed earlier that it does allow faculty to become better teachers.
Faculty expressed their perception that it is up to them to take initiative in those areas if they are interested, but there did not seem to be any accountability to make sure faculty were developing. This was very clearly expressed in the following dialogue that occurred during a faculty focus group:

M: It allows them…If I want to become a better teacher, and I want to attend these conferences because they help me become a better teacher, and I want to engage in this, and that, and that, it does not discourage me by forcing me to do other things…But does it actively encourage me to do that? The university as a whole? I don’t think a whole lot…

A: I like what Melissa said in that they allow it to happen, but I don’t see a lot of emphasis in faculty professional development, faculty meetings, on improving pedagogy, talking about small group ideas, how people learn, how… and the generation we’re dealing with. We hear anecdotal stuff, and that’s about it, and that’s just hearsay, frankly.

For these participants, the university does not seem to be actively working to help faculty develop, and it does not help faculty be accountable to improvement. The term “actively” was used by another participant, as well, who noted that becoming better has been less about university influence and more about the influence of her colleagues. Most of the faculty who discussed the feeling that they were allowed to develop, however, focused on the openness and willingness of the university to help when asked, but not to help proactively. A third participant described the support he has received this way:

If you’re wanting something, the library staff and other kinds of people tend to be very helpful when you’re doing research, or they know you’re doing something. It seems to me like there’s a community sense that we want to encourage you. But that’s more your initiation. I still think we could be more proactive and do a better job.

There is, according to this participant and others, support in some important areas, and there is a willing spirit demonstrated by university staff, but there has not been direct, proactive support given by the university to help faculty become effective teachers.
In discussing the support given to faculty to become better teachers, the administrators provided a more optimistic tone, both in terms of the specific ways the university is providing support, but also through their descriptions of what universities should be doing. The department chairs spent time talking about ways the university supports faculty development through the Faculty Development Committee and the money it receives. As one chair noted,

There have been some formal, several over the years, formal beginning of the year, or even during the year, faculty development meetings focused on quality teaching. The techniques, the nuts and bolts, but also discussion opportunities for faculty to share what works, what doesn’t work. So I think the dean’s office, through those settings, those formal settings, has at least made an effort and an attempt to support the improvement and quality teaching.

Here, the department chairs were acknowledging the active steps the university has taken, while also acknowledging that more could be done. Later, a department chair said,

I think we are supported in those kinds of conferences that we might want to attend. I don’t think anyone’s requiring that we attend, but if we want to attend the conferences, professional or otherwise that are related to pedagogy, I think it’s supported by the fact that we get the one conference a year.

Although the conference allowance is targeted toward scholarship as well, this affirms the perception of faculty that the university allows for, and does provide some money towards, teaching development.

While the department chairs spoke specifically of ways that support is provided, most of the administrators focused on the role universities should play in faculty teaching development. These administrators argued for the need to support faculty in their development without necessarily identifying ways that support was occurring on campus at the time. As one dean described,
We have this great paradox of an education system that, on one hand, values, and in most cases even requires, a terminal degree, a content specialization. Then the worst kept secret is no one is every taught how to teach that. So, because that’s the system of higher [education], it’s completely incumbent on universities to have sort of that second wave, then, of education, which is “Now that I know this, how do I teach it well? How do I know that they’ll get it? How can I evaluate that and connect with them?” I think it’s incumbent on us to think of it that way.

This dean clearly saw the need for a “second wave” of support that helped faculty develop and think as a teacher. Multiple administrators referred to standard business principles here, highlighting the way businesses provide education and training to “improve the work and quality of their employees,” noting that it ought to be the same in higher education. In responding to a concern of a colleague that evaluation of faculty based on merit could be dangerous, one dean said,

But I do think it’s possible to require and reward a process. I think the principles of continuous quality improvement in business are helpful, in that rather than measuring and rewarding the outcome, you measure and reward the process. When some professors walk in, without ever, just by virtue of their personality and charisma, they’re going to be more dynamic teachers than anybody else, no matter how many courses you take and help you get. That’s just how they’re wired. But you can affirm folks’ participation in processes of development. And so while it is subjective to say, “well you’re a better teacher and you’re not quite as good a teacher,” it’s more objective to say, “well, OK, you have done two teacher improvement activities this year, you’ve gone to a workshop, you’ve submitted to this kind of coaching, so that credits in a certain way.” And I think that’s valuable, too…Even if it’s the poorer teacher who does that, they still are not a great teacher, but they are a better teacher than they would have been without those kinds of participating process. So I think there are ways you can affirm development by affirming processes that develop quality, and that may not be the total answer, but it would help me if I could say to professors, “you’re committed to teaching, that’s good. Now, let’s put together a part of our scholarship plan, and the university has… a mentor program, they have a training week, they have these sort of substantive resources that can help you be a better teacher. Even a better teacher than you are now. So when are you going to sign up for it?” And you can do that without making judgments about whether they’re good or bad.
Although this participant is not describing what is happening at the institution, he is optimistic that support for faculty is possible and is necessary. Overall, administrators recognized that more can and should be done to support faculty in becoming better teachers, and an interest in doing so in the future.

Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to present data findings related to the overall research question and each of the secondary questions. Through the survey, faculty demographic information, perceptions on the university as a whole, and their conceptions of teaching were identified. The 16 interview participants’ revised Approaches to Teaching Inventory scale scores were reported, and these were compared with interview responses to identify faculty need for development and their perceptions of the scholarship of teaching and learning. General perceptions of teaching and scholarship were derived from interview responses, along with focus group data and document analysis, to provide a comparison between faculty and administrators. Finally, more specific data collection was done through these methods to identify the institution’s commitment to teaching and scholarship through the eyes of its faculty and administrators. In all, the collected data discussed in each of these areas provide a picture of teaching, the scholarship of teaching and learning, and institutional culture, and commitment to, teaching and scholarship at one Midwest teaching institution.
CHAPTER 5. RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary and Discussion of Results

Overview of the Study

The focus of this study has been on the perceptions of faculty and administrators related to the status of teaching and learning at a primarily teaching institution. As the research question asked, “What are the perceptions of teaching, the scholarship of teaching and learning, and the culture of teaching and scholarship held by faculty and administrators in one Midwest teaching university?” This research question, along with specific calls in the literature for exploratory research on this subject, led to a case study methodology (Creswell, 2007; Lea & Callaghan, 2008; Lueddeke, 2003; Menon, 2003; Quinlan, 2002; Yin, 1984). In order to address the primary research question, as well as four secondary ones, Midwest Teaching University was studied within a case study framework, with interviews, focus groups, and document analysis as the primary methods of data collection to elicit the perceptions of the full-time faculty and administrators at the university. Some quantitative data was collected through the administration of a short faculty survey and Trigwell and Prosser’s (2005a) revised Approaches to Teaching Inventory, an instrument that measures faculty conceptions of teaching, whether teacher or student-focused. The primary goal, however, was to provide a thick, rich description of the university through mostly qualitative measures. The discussion of findings in this chapter, therefore, focus on the case itself, Midwest Teaching University, as well as the
placement of the data findings within the literature for each of the four secondary research questions.

Discussion of Results

While institutional documents are helpful in identifying the status of teaching and scholarship at a university, the perceptions of faculty and administrators of the policies represented in these documents are also significant, since perception is often reality to members within an organization or culture. The case for this study, Midwest Teaching University, cannot be fully understood, then, without a description that goes beyond the facts to how faculty and administrators feel and interpret the facts. Through a discussion of the perceptions shared with the researcher by faculty and administrators related to each of the four secondary research questions, as well as through the ties these perceptions have to the literature, a full description of Midwest Teaching University was developed and is described below.

Conception of teaching and perceived need for development. The first sub-question addressed in this study related to the connection between faculty members’ conceptions of teaching and their perceived need to develop themselves into better teachers. Hutchings and Shulman (1999) identified the need for faculty to view teaching as a scholarly act that involved reflection, inquiry, and shared knowledge, which speaks to the need for development and focus on improvement. Studies have linked faculty conceptions of teaching to their approach to teaching in the classroom (Lindblom-Ylanne et al., 2006; Prosser & Trigwell, 2006; Trigwell et al., 2005b), but also to their perceptions of the scholarship of teaching, or the time they spend reflecting on teaching
and pursuing teaching as a scholarly act (Kreber, 2005; Lueddeke, 2003). These studies did find a link, but did not describe this link within the context of a teaching institution.

At Midwest Teaching University, a potential relationship between teaching conception and need for development was evident in the final two categories faculty members were placed in: High Need/Active Development and Moderate Need/Continual Development. These faculty members approached teaching with a student focus and a desire to help students to engage in conceptual change and reported a higher level of need for development in teaching. They were also much more likely to engage in development activities than faculty in other categories. In all but one case, the faculty who described themselves as actively or continually involved in teaching development scored higher in the conceptual change/student-focused (CCSF) scale of the ATI-R, and five of these seven scored more than a point higher on this scale. Even those faculty members who reported a low level of development but expressed a strong need for it scored high on the CCSF scale. This confirmed Lueddeke’s (2003) finding that a strong relationship exists between those with a CCSF orientation and “interest in seminars and workshops” (p. 220). Most of the faculty with higher information transfer/teaching-focus (ITTF) scores, on the other hand, reported a moderate level of need. These faculty reported low participation in development activities and a lack of strong feeling of need for those activities. This, in part, confirms Kreber’s (2002a) suggestion that “an academic staff member working from a transmission perspective will see little relevance in staff development initiatives aimed at gaining a better understanding of how students learn” (p. 165). It was clear, however, that these participants did spend some time in teaching improvement activities, but not through outside development activities or seeking help
from others. Instead, they chose to develop through reflection on their individual experiences. In their cases, it was not that they failed to recognize a need for improvement; they simply believed that development could come through their own reflection and classroom experiences. The presence of these faculty affirmed Kreber’s (2005, p. 342) later findings, which indicated that all of the levels of reflection described by faculty in the study were “oriented primarily towards personal experience rather than formal knowledge about teaching as gained through participation in workshops, readings, or research” (p. 342). Clearly, development was occurring, but the focus of the faculty with an ITTF orientation was less on formal development activities and more on their own ability to improve teaching in their classrooms.

Despite the relationship identified between a CCSF orientation and the perception of need for development, not all faculty members with a CCSF orientation described such a strong connection. Three, for example, had high CCSF scores, yet fell into the Low Need/Low Development category due to their primary focus on content and staying current in their field. These faculty certainly spent time developing, but their development work involved active reading and research in their field to help them remain current, not to help them teach better. Their focus in the classroom, based on the ATI-R scores, however, is student-focused, which may indicate that there is not a direct correlation between conceptions of teaching and perceived need for development. Another faculty member expressed higher need and continual development, yet had a stronger ITTF score. And while this participant does not fit within the trend, other factors, including his years of experience and his discipline, may have had an effect. Each of these participants’ ATI-R scores failed to match the trend line, but this could be due to
a variety of factors. First, the ATI-R was based on the participant’s choice of a course to answer questions about, which leaves open the possibility that the course they have chosen may have a strong influence on their approach to teaching. Secondly, participants addressed multiple factors that had an influence on their approach to teaching, highlighting the possibility that their individual conception of teaching is not the sole determining factor in approach to development. Lueddeke (2003) studied the factors in academic life that may relate to faculty willingness to engage in professional development and approach teaching in a scholarly way, and like the current study, he found that there were multiple factors that had an influence, including discipline, teaching qualifications, and years of teaching. The participants in the current study both agreed with these influences and offered others, including past professors, learning styles, the course, class size, the department, and university policies and procedures. These factors could have played a part in the discrepancy seen in the four faculty members who did not fit the overall trend toward high development interest for faculty with CCSF orientation.

While a few of the faculty described and displayed a weak connection between their conception of teaching and their perception of the need for teaching development, the overall results indicated that the more student-focused the faculty were, the more likely it was that they recognized their need for development and actively pursued both internal and external development activities. Faculty with a strong CCSF orientation generally demonstrated a high need for development, while faculty with a stronger ITTF orientation reported a more moderate need. All of the participants, except for the two who reported a lack of time, described a pursuit of some kind of development. The majority of faculty with a CCSF orientation actively pursued teaching improvement through
development opportunities, and the majority of faculty with an ITTF orientation described a more inward, reflective approach to development. This was in contrast with Kreber’s (2005) findings that most of the faculty in her study pursued development through individual reflection on experience and may be due to a different focus for faculty at a teaching institution. Even those who reported a low need for development in teaching recognized the need for strong content knowledge and worked hard to remain current in their field. Not every faculty member fit neatly within the overall trend toward strong activity and desire for faculty with CCSF orientations, which points to the possibility, affirmed in the literature, that other factors such as discipline and experience influence both of these areas, as is discussed later in this chapter. Despite a few outliers, however, the results show a relationship between the conceptions faculty have of teaching and their interest and willingness to engage in professional development activities.

Conception of teaching and the scholarship of teaching. Faculty perceptions of their own needs to develop as teachers play a large role in their perceptions of the scholarship of teaching, since this form of scholarship involves not only the study of teaching, but also the improvement of teaching. Most definitions of the scholarship of teaching, however, go beyond simply studying and improving student learning to focus on doing so within discipline-specific literature and with an eye toward sharing the work with others in the field (Boyer, 1990; Hatch, 2006; Hutchings & Shulman, 1999; Kreber, 2001). A few studies have tied faculty conceptions of teaching with the scholarship of teaching, highlighting that faculty with a stronger ITTF orientation, for example, are less likely to think that teaching is something they need to study or develop (Kreber, 2005;
Lueddeke, 2003; Quinlan, 2002). Others have cited confusion among faculty concerning the definition of the scholarship of teaching and learning and have called for teaching faculty about SOTL so that they might be more involved in it (Kreber, 2002b; McKinney, 2007; Reed, 2003; Trigwell & Shale, 2004). Kreber (2002a), however, cautioned that this focus on development should not occur until faculty conceptions of teaching and of the scholarship of teaching and learning were identified. To identify how faculty at MTU approach, and therefore understand, the scholarship of teaching, the interviewees were asked a series of questions related to scholarship, the scholarship of teaching, and the changes made recently to identify this as the scholarship of teaching and learning.

Table 31

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<th>Conception</th>
<th>Trigwell et al.’s Approach</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conception 1</td>
<td>A. The scholarship of teaching is about knowing the literature on teaching by collecting and reading that literature.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conception 2</td>
<td>B. Scholarship of teaching is about improving teaching by collecting and reading the literature on teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conception 3</td>
<td>C. Scholarship of teaching is about improving student learning by investigating the learning of one’s own students and one’s own teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conception 4</td>
<td>D. Scholarship of teaching is about improving one’s own students’ learning by knowing and relating the literature on teaching and learning to discipline-specific literature and knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conception 5</td>
<td>E. The scholarship of teaching is about improving student learning within the discipline generally, by collecting and communicating results of one’s own work on teaching and learning within the discipline.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conception 6</td>
<td>Unable to align.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Faculty responses were then used to identify six conceptions of the scholarship of teaching that purposefully aligned (Table 31) with Trigwell et al.’s (2000) approaches to the scholarship of teaching. Conceptions 1 through 5 of this study align with Approaches A through E of Trigwell et al.’s study. These approaches move from a basic, teacher-focused understanding of the scholarship of teaching to an advanced, student-focused one, and the categorization of faculty into these approaches allowed for comparisons between faculty approach to teaching scholarship and conceptions of teaching.

Based on the categorization of interviewed faculty into Trigwell et al.’s (2000) five approaches to the scholarship of teaching, their conceptions of teaching were compared between groups and a few key relationships were identified (Table 32). First, the five approaches, in most places, were in line with the categories developed to describe faculty perceived need for teaching development. For example, three of the faculty members, all with stronger ITTF orientations, were placed in both the Moderate Need/Moderate Development category and the third approach to the scholarship of teaching. Both of these categories highlighted the individual investigation of teaching through primarily internal means. Also, seven of the eight faculty members placed in the most advanced, student-focused approach to the scholarship of teaching were categorized as having moderate to high need and active to continual development, and six of the eight had stronger CCSF scores. A few members with higher CCSF scores were placed in the lower, more teacher-focused approaches, but most of the faculty fell right in line when compared. Based on these comparisons, the more advanced understandings of the scholarship of teaching were held by faculty with CCSF orientations, while less advanced, more teacher-centered approaches were held by faculty with ITTF orientations.
Table 32

*ATI-R Scores by Approach to the Scholarship of Teaching and Level of Need/Development*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approach to the Scholarship of Teaching</th>
<th>Interview Participant</th>
<th>Need/Develop.</th>
<th>ATI-R Scores (ITTF, SD, CCSF, SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. The scholarship of teaching is about knowing the literature on teaching by collecting and reading that literature.</td>
<td>Harry</td>
<td>High/Low</td>
<td>2.73 (0.79), 4.45 (0.52)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Scholarship of teaching is about improving teaching by collecting and reading the literature on teaching.</td>
<td>Emma</td>
<td>Low/Low</td>
<td>4.09 (0.70), 4.55 (0.69)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Scholarship of teaching is about improving student learning by investigating the learning of one’s own students and one’s own teaching.</td>
<td>Chris</td>
<td>Moderate/Moderate</td>
<td>3.64 (0.92), 3.64 (1.36)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>James</td>
<td>Moderate/Moderate</td>
<td>4.18 (0.98), 2.64 (1.12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>John</td>
<td>Moderate/Moderate</td>
<td>3.73 (1.01), 3.45 (0.93)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Scholarship of teaching is about improving one’s own students’ learning by knowing and relating the literature on teaching and learning to discipline-specific literature and knowledge.</td>
<td>George</td>
<td>High/Active</td>
<td>2.82 (0.98), 4.00 (0.45)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jack</td>
<td>Moderate/Moderate</td>
<td>3.18 (0.87), 3.09 (1.14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sarah</td>
<td>High/Active</td>
<td>2.45 (1.04), 3.91 (0.54)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. The scholarship of teaching is about improving student learning within the discipline generally, by collecting and communicating results of one’s own work on teaching and learning within the discipline.</td>
<td>Fred</td>
<td>Moderate/Continual</td>
<td>3.82 (0.40), 3.18 (1.40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stephen</td>
<td>Moderate/Continual</td>
<td>2.18 (1.33), 4.91 (0.30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jessica</td>
<td>High/Active</td>
<td>3.45 (0.69), 3.73 (1.19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Molly</td>
<td>High/Active</td>
<td>2.64 (1.12), 4.45 (0.82)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Genevieve</td>
<td>High/Active</td>
<td>3.45 (1.2), 4.55 (0.52)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Unaligned</td>
<td>Joshua</td>
<td>Low/Low</td>
<td>2.82 (0.60), 3.73 (0.65)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Martin</td>
<td>Low/Low</td>
<td>3.82 (1.40), 4.09 (1.22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pamela</td>
<td>High/Low</td>
<td>4.00 (0.45), 4.00 (1.00)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Looking at the similar divisions within the categories of perceived need and the approach to the scholarship of teaching, it is clear that these two areas are related to one another.

Many of the same activities faculty members described as evidence of teaching development were found to be important in the approaches to the scholarship of teaching. Evidence of individual need for teaching development and the activities faculty choose based on that need, therefore, play a large role in both their understanding of the scholarship of teaching and their willingness to engage in it.

While many of the faculty members were easily identified within the five approaches to teaching, three were not, and their responses highlighted one approach that should be included in Trigwell et al.’s (2000) list: “The scholarship of teaching equals actively working to remain current in the discipline.” For these three participants, the scholarship of teaching was primarily concerned with staying current in the field. Teaching and teaching improvement were discussed tangentially, but their primary concern in becoming better teachers was the increased content knowledge they could offer students from remaining current. This seems to be a highly teacher-focused approach to the scholarship of teaching that fails to incorporate aspects of even the most basic approach offered by Trigwell et al. Each of them, in fact, described traditional activities such as research and keeping current as the scholarship of teaching, and one of them even questioned whether the scholarship of teaching was a valid pursuit compared with more traditional forms of scholarship. Interestingly, all three had strong CCSF orientations, which is surprising based on their interview responses, and, again, may point to other influences on conceptions and approaches to teaching. Overall, these participants pointed to a sixth view of the scholarship of teaching: a teacher-centered approach that
places content knowledge and remaining current as the most important teaching scholarship activity. This approach is separate from the five Trigwell et al. identified, but highlights a potential group of faculty members who do not view teaching improvement as a priority and may question the validity of the scholarship of teaching in general.

The fact that six of the sixteen faculty were placed in scholarship of teaching categories that do not reflect their conception of teaching orientation demonstrates the tentative nature of this relationship, and further discrepancies were found when the faculty were compared with Trigwell et al.’s (2000, p. 163) *Multi-dimensional model of scholarship of teaching*. Based on the five approaches to teaching and the study they conducted, Trigwell et al. identified four dimensions of the scholarship of teaching and descriptions for each dimension that move from teacher-focused to student-focused. Based on the interview responses, faculty were compared with the descriptions under each dimension in order to identify whether they evidenced consistency throughout all of the dimensions. Consistency would require that faculty remain either teacher or student-focused throughout the dimensions, but only a few faculty did so. The rest of the faculty shifted between teacher-focused and student-focused areas depending on the dimension, with some who were identified as teacher-focused, for example, still falling in the student-focused end of some dimensions. The fact that there was not consistency overall in the dimensions highlights a few important findings of this section of the study. First, while the overall trends indicate a more advanced approach to teaching for those faculty with a CCSF orientation, when dimensions of the scholarship of teaching are considered, this trend is not quite so clear. Secondly, there is a clear need to understand what outside factors influence both conception of teaching and approach to the scholarship of teaching.
since so many of the faculty were not consistent overall between these two areas. Finally, these findings confirm that a multi-dimensional model is needed due to the inconsistencies present when faculty are not simply identified by their approach to the scholarship of teaching, but are identified within each scholarship of teaching dimension.

*Faculty and administrator perceptions of teaching and scholarship.* While participants demonstrated that the conceptions they have of teaching do have an influence on faculty approach to teaching, their need for teaching development, and their approach to the scholarship of teaching, the responses of participants in these areas, along with the challenge to fit participants within appropriate categories, speak to the need to take a broader look at the overall perceptions that faculty have of teaching and scholarship. Midwest Teaching University (MTU) is an “unapologetically teaching-focused” (Mallard & Atkins, 2004, p. 373) institution, but it is clear that not all faculty value teaching and scholarship at the same levels. Recent studies done with faculty at teaching-focused institutions have declared that faculty do not believe teaching is held with high regard at their institution, although most expressed a positive regard for teaching themselves (Asmar, 2002; Ballantyne et al., 1999; Hardy & Smith, 2006; Nicholls, 2005; Young, 2006). This points to a disparity between what faculty and administrators believe about teaching and scholarship, since university policies and procedures are usually set by the administrators. Where studies have compared faculty and administrator perceptions of these areas, clear differences have been reported (Brawer et al., 2006; McAlpine & Harris, 2002; Padovan & Whittington, 1998; Ramsden, 2004; Tang & Chamberlain, 1997). However, there have not, been many studies that compare the two, and even fewer studies that do so within the context of a teaching institution.
Concerning the overall perceptions of teaching, faculty and administrators were in general agreement about the aspects of effective teaching at the university level. Both groups cited subject-matter competence, communication, student engagement, relationships, and passion as the key attributes that are both looked for and evaluated at the university. In line with the “teaching institution” status of MTU, relatively few faculty members mentioned that scholarship was an attribute of an effective university teacher, but this was one of the areas where faculty and administrators disagreed. To the list of effective attributes, administrators added both scholarly activity and the continued development of teaching skills, both of which affirmed Tang and Chamberlain’s (1997, p. 223) findings that administrators in general believe research and teaching are “mutually supportive,” and they can and should be addressed continuously. Neither of these areas was addressed by faculty. The overall list of attributes of effective faculty developed by faculty and administrators closely mirrors McAlpine and Harris’ (2002) categories of effective faculty. Of their seven categories, faculty and administrators at MTU agreed on subject matter expertise, delivery skills, and mentoring/supervision, only administrators added personal and professional development and departmental development, and while design skills and management skills were discussed by faculty, they did not receive strong attention. Faculty and administrators at MTU were more strongly focused on student engagement and relationships with students than were McAlpine and Harris, and this may have to do with the university’s status as a teaching institution. It is important to note that administrators demonstrated their interest in almost all of these areas through evaluation procedures and academic documents such as the Faculty Handbook (2004) and the annual evaluation form. The only area not used in the evaluation process or
supported in the Faculty Handbook was the administrator’s idea of continued teaching development. Faculty did not address this area at all, and although administrators did, there was no evidence that it was a part of the evaluation process or support structure of the university. This lack of support and evidence for teaching improvement, along with administrator focus on scholarly activity not seen in the faculty, is indicative of the perceptions faculty at many universities have of the institution’s support for, and value of, teaching.

In comparing faculty and administrator perceptions of the areas of academic life that influenced approaches to teaching in the classroom, nine primary influences, divided along three categories, were agreed upon (see Figure 5). The three categories, including Personal Influences, University Influences, and External Influences, represent nine variables that faculty and administrators felt impacted teaching at the university. Under Personal Influences, participants recognized the influence of a faculty member’s conception of teaching, learning style, and past learning experiences/teachers on approach to teaching. There is clear evidence that faculty members’ conceptions of teaching influence their teaching approach, and this was affirmed throughout the current study (Lindblom-Ylanne et al., 2006; Prosser & Trigwell, 1997; Trigwell & Prosser, 2004; Trigwell et al., 2005b). The influence of faculty learning style and personal experience/past professors have not been studied in the same depth, although anecdotally, they are often cited by faculty as they describe what has influenced their teaching (Ballantyne et al., 1999). Participants generally acknowledged the influence that their own learning styles played in how they taught, although some recognized the problems inherent in doing so and described their efforts to reach all students. They also addressed
teaching of past professors, highlighting the positive and negative examples they experienced and how those experiences shaped their current work.

Figure 5. Influences on Faculty Approach to Teaching Identified by Faculty and Administrators

These personal influences play a significant part in how faculty approach teaching in the classroom due to the fact that few faculty members receive formal teacher training and are reliant on personal preferences and experiences in teaching development (Ballantyne
While participants acknowledged personal influences on faculty approaches to teaching, they also identified four university influences, including the environment of the department, evaluation procedures, support for teaching improvement, and class size. Prosser and Trigwell (1997) first studied the correlation between environmental factors and faculty approaches to teaching, identifying three that were related to a CCSF approach to teaching: Control of Teaching, Appropriate Class Size, and Departmental Support for Teaching. Since then, the factor that has been most clearly linked to teaching approach is the department and its support for teaching (Ballantyne et al., 1999; Knight & Trowler, 2000; Lindblom-Ylanne et al., 2006; Quinlan, 2002; Ramsden et al., 2007).

Surprisingly, participants in the current study acknowledged a limited influence the department they work in had on their teaching approach, citing the discipline as a more influential factor. Many did, however, acknowledge the fact that departmental colleagues challenged them to teach better. Ballantyne et al. and others (Prosser & Trigwell, 1997; Ramsden, 2003, 2004; Weston & McAlpine, 2001) have addressed the importance of this kind of departmental environment related to the need faculty have for support from colleagues, discussion of teaching issues with fellow faculty, and general support for teaching and learning. These were clearly important to participants in the current study, with many citing the lack of purposeful discussion among colleagues about teaching as a potentially negative influence on their own teaching practice. The department and the general perception of support clearly did have an influence, even if unintended, on faculty approach to teaching.
The other two university influences, class size and evaluation procedures, were identified by study participants, but these factors have not been as well-identified in the literature. First, faculty and administrators argued that larger class sizes limited the amount of discussion, group work, and other conceptual change activities they could use in the classroom. Prosser and Trigwell (1997) found a strong correlation between approach to teaching and class size in their study, affirming the very strong feelings this study’s participants had about the difficulty they faced teaching the way they desired to when they were given large classes to work with. While many of the more recent studies related to approach to teaching have not focused on class size as an influence, it is commonly acknowledged that the size of the class poses specific challenges for faculty and does influence the approach faculty can take (Fink, 2003; McKeachie & Svinicki, 2006; Prosser & Trigwell, 1997). The final university influences faculty members identified were the evaluation procedures used by administrators, and while studies on approach to teaching have not dealt with this type of influence directly, some have highlighted the influence of institutional context on approach to teaching, calling for more studies in this area (Lam & Kember, 2006; Lea & Callaghan, 2008; Quinlan, 2002). Both faculty and administrators identified evaluation procedures as influential because they guide the faculty toward behaviors that are expected or required. This includes reward structures for the university, which have been directly acknowledged as driving faculty activity and behavior (Brookfield, 2000; C. L. Colbeck & Wharton-Michael, 2006a). Overall, the four external factors faculty and administrators identified provide a picture of the influence the university has on the individual faculty member’s approach to teaching.
Finally, under External Influences, participants highlighted the influence of the discipline and the course level. Many studies on faculty approach to teaching have identified the discipline as a major factor (Lam & Kember, 2006; Lea & Callaghan, 2008; Lindblom-Ylanne et al., 2006; Lueddeke, 2003). Both faculty and administrators affirmed discipline as an influence because the nature of knowledge is different in each area. For Computer Science, for example, faculty noted that much of the knowledge students need is factual and does not require much discussion, while areas such as political science lend themselves to a more conceptual focus. Clear divisions were seen between the hard sciences, which were more ITTF-focused, and soft sciences, which were more CCSF-oriented, affirming past studies of this kind (Lindblom-Ylanne et al.; Lueddeke). One of the strongest influences described by faculty, however, was the course, including class size and course level. Faculty saw the class size as a university influence, but recognized the course level as an important external influence. McAlpine et al. (2006) highlighted the different ways faculty think about teaching depending on the level of the course, and the current study’s participants made the logical argument that the development of students from freshman to senior, in their departments, is purposeful. In lower level courses, they argued, students needed to gain knowledge and facts that they would be able to then apply conceptually in upper level courses. A 100 level course, therefore, would be designed with this in mind, and would be different from a 300 or 400 level course due to the nature of knowledge and interaction required. The influence of the course level, like discipline, was seen as external from a faculty member’s personal preferences or the university’s impact on teaching.
While other influences were addressed by faculty, these nine were strongly agreed upon by both faculty and administrators. It should be noted, however, that some disagreement was evident regarding certain influences on faculty approach to teaching. Administrators, for example, were more likely to focus on faculty preferences as a primary influence than their faculty counterparts did. Within the faculty focus groups and the department chair focus group, for example, most of the discussion centered on external and university factors such as discipline and class size. One of the groups did emphasize the difficult work of teaching within the conceptual change model, highlighting the temptation to simply transfer information, but this was only a minor conversation compared to the extensive time spent discussing outside factors. The academic deans, on the other hand, acknowledged the external factors, but focused strongly on the individual work and preferences of the faculty, arguing that the faculty, themselves, had a strong influence on teaching approach due to their preference for teaching style and the lower difficulty of teaching in an information-driven classroom. The faculty and academic deans who discussed this pointed to the possibility that faculty may gravitate toward specific conceptions and preferences, while most of the faculty argued that external and university factors were the greater concern. This may be due to a limited amount of time spent on teaching reflection and discussion, forcing faculty to identify only external factors, or it could be due to the public setting of a focus group and the concern faculty could have had in addressing flaws in themselves or others. Overall, despite the differences, faculty and administrators were able to agree on key factors that influenced the approach to teaching faculty at Midwest Teaching University took.
Another area where the perceptions of faculty and administrators were found to be in general agreement was scholarship at the university, with both groups recognizing the importance of scholarship in the life of a faculty member. There was, however, a clear difference between the stated perceptions and actual practice. Relatively few interviewed faculty identified the improvement of teaching as an outcome of the link between research and teaching, or scholarship, with a majority focusing more on the importance of keeping current in the field, remaining credible in front of students, or keeping the mind sharp. Less than half believed scholarship involved teaching when asked directly about it, although more acknowledge it when asked about the scholarship of teaching. Even then, however, some of the interviewed faculty viewed the scholarship of teaching as keeping current and credible. A strong percentage of faculty members, however, identified themselves as teachers, not researchers, as well as expressed strong interest in teaching over research in the survey responses. This discrepancy is seen in the literature as well (Braxton, 2006; Braxton et al., 2002; Marchant & Newman, 1994; Menon, 2003; Peters & Mayfield, 1982), and it may have to do with a number of potential influences, including the overall focus on traditional modes of scholarship at the university level, unexamined definitions of scholarship, and confusion over what the scholarship of teaching is.

There was also a discrepancy evident between the stated values of administrators regarding scholarship and the evaluation and practice of scholarship as identified through document analysis, and this may, in part, be due to a continued emphasis on research and publishing even at teaching institutions (Braxton et al., 2002; C. L. Colbeck & Wharton-Michael, 2006b; Young, 2006). While increased accountability in higher education has
forced administrators to place stronger emphasis on quality teaching in higher education (Barrington, 2004; Cross, 2001; Gordon, 2002; Kezar, 2001; Nicholls, 2001; A. Palmer & Collins, 2006; Stage et al., 1998; Travis, 1996), competition has increased due to mass higher education, which may continue to push administrators to increase faculty output in publishing. The administrators clearly value scholarship and keeping current in the field, and did so by tying those activities to the work of effective faculty members.

Administrators also described a desire to see all forms of scholarship relate back to teaching and teaching improvement, calling for the scholarship of teaching to have a prominent place at the university. Documents on scholarship and professional development, however, addressed only subject matter competence and content knowledge currency, and while teaching was considered important in the evaluation process, support and resources were only given to the areas related to subject matter competence. Overall, there were key differences both between the faculty and administrators, as well as within these groups, in terms of perceptions on scholarship and the scholarship of teaching.

*Faculty and administrator perceptions of university culture and commitment to teaching.* To begin identifying the perceptions faculty and administrators had of the university’s commitment to teaching, all of the focus group members and a few interview participants were asked to describe what the university meant when it said it was a teaching institution. The phrase “unapologetically teaching-focused” has been used by administrators over the past few years, as many faculty noted, and is a phrase used by Mallard and Atkins (2004) to describe universities that are similar to MTU in size and
mission. Brookfield (2000), in describing the research institution as compared with the teaching institution, noted the following:

If we log the ways in which lecturers spend their days on campus where the “publish or perish” syndrome reigns, the greater part of their energy is devoted to scholarly research and writing. If we compile a similar record of teachers’ behaviors in colleges that prize good teaching, we find, not surprisingly, much more emphasis on teachers participating in faculty development, in their designing new materials and in their experimenting with different pedagogical approaches. We also find that students’ evaluations of teachers’ abilities are taken very seriously when promotion and re-appointment decisions are being made. (p. 131)

While faculty and administrators at MTU would agree with Brookfield that the faculty do spend much more time on teaching-related activities than they do in research, and would agree that student evaluations are sometimes overused in the annual evaluation and promotion process, both groups would disagree with the amount of faculty development and pedagogical experimentation he described. Many of the faculty noted the discrepancy between the university calling itself a “teaching institution” and the actual support of faculty in teaching development. For many, including administrators, the university does not take an active role in supporting teachers. Instead, they are simply allowed to develop their teaching skills if they desire to. There was also strong sentiment from faculty and administrators that the “teaching institution” label said more about the lack of research focus than it does about the support for teaching. Most participants felt that the university had a negative identity: it was a teaching institution because it did not support or require research, not because it fully supported and valued teaching. Certainly, participants agreed that the lack of research presence provided more time for higher teaching loads and accessibility to students, but they did not view the university as proactively or intentionally supporting faculty to be the best teachers they could be. And while many
were grateful for the lack of research requirements, a number of participants lamented the lack of overall support for those who choose to invest their time in research. Overall, faculty and administrators agreed that while the time faculty spent on teaching was significant, the university’s status as a teaching institution would be stronger if administrators were more intentional about teaching development, accountability, resource provision for teaching and teaching improvement.

The concerns faculty members had over the intentionality of university administrators to provide support for teaching were evidenced in many academic areas, including in hiring and orientation practices. Institutional documents such as the Faculty Handbook (2004), along with administrator descriptions, clearly showed a focus on teaching in the process of hiring faculty, although some inconsistencies were present as it related to how each department handled the hiring of faculty. Despite the focus on teaching in the handbook and described by administrators, however, many faculty questioned whether teaching was a priority in the process. For some faculty, it seemed that “institutional fit,” or the ability of the prospect to align with the philosophical and theological tenets of the university, were more important, and this was acknowledged even by administrators when describing the hiring process. Other faculty shared personal or anecdotal evidence where they or others were simply not asked about teaching experience or ability. It is well documented, of course, that universities hire faculty because of their expertise and experience in a field, and not solely because of their teaching ability (Brew, 1999; Morrill & Steffy, 1980; Ramsden, 2003; Wise, 1967). Many faculty and administrators, however, expected to see a difference at a teaching institution, and this difference was not as strong as expected. Faculty and administrators
also described a lack of intentional focus on teaching in the orientation faculty went through once they were hired. Many of the more experienced faculty described minimal to no support from the university when they were first hired. Younger faculty provided evidence that the institution’s orientation program has strengthened in recent years, but made clear that teaching was not a primary focus. Faculty members were oriented to the university as a whole, but little to no attempt was made to help faculty transition into their role as a teacher. The university had no provision for formal mentoring, teacher training, or other avenues for helping faculty develop into effective teachers, and this fact was frustrating to those who described feeling on their own in this critical area. For both faculty and administrators, a stronger, more teaching-focused hiring and orientation process was needed in order to demonstrate commitment to teaching at MTU.

Many faculty and administrators also felt that the institution’s commitment to teaching could be evidenced in the amount of discussion of teaching that occurred among faculty at the department and university level. This confirms the work of others in the literature who describe the importance of communities of practice: timely, intentional groups, including mentoring relationships, that discuss teaching and individual reflections on teaching for the purpose of learning from each other about teaching improvement (Ballantyne et al., 1999; Boyer, 1990; Brookfield, 1995; Daly et al., 2004; Hutchings, 2000; Weston & McAlpine, 2001). Most of the participants were able to respond positively when asked whether teaching was discussed among faculty at the department level, and this was primarily due to the informal discussions that happened around the copy machine and the water cooler, not because of formal discussions in department meetings. Participants did describe one formal time at the end of each year when
department chairs met with them individually to discuss the annual evaluation they filled out, and some faculty in areas where general education courses were offered talked about formal conversations about common courses. The university also requires peer review of teaching as a part of the annual evaluation, which can be an important part of faculty discourse on teaching if used correctly (Danielson & McGreal, 2000; Ives et al., 2005). The vast majority of participants, however, who said that discussions about teaching and teaching improvement happened in their department referred to informal conversations between colleagues that were centered on problems that were occurring in the classroom. Many participants agreed that these conversations were problem-oriented and wondered whether the university ought to be doing more to provide intentional time for conversations about teaching through faculty development and department agendas. It was clear, however, that conversations were happening at the department level in informal ways among colleagues.

The same could not be said, however, for discussions of teaching at the university level. Some anecdotal evidence from faculty in one of the four undergraduate schools and colleges suggested that their college spent time during formal meeting times to discuss teaching, but the overwhelming majority of participants answered “no” to this question. Many expressed frustration with the way faculty meetings were handled, arguing that much of what took place in university-wide meetings were informational and not developmental. Some attempts have been made by the university through a Faculty Development Committee, but participants did not feel that the opportunities offered dealt with teaching or were heavily resourced, which has also been found in other studies (e.g. Ballantyne et al., 1999). They also described informational and “how to” sessions that
were largely teacher-centered and rarely addressed student learning, a typical approach professional developers have taken in attempting to improve teaching in higher education (Cranton & Carusetta, 2004; Eisen, 2001; Sokol & Cranton, 1998). Zhang (2001) identified the relationship between faculty approaching teaching with a student-focused orientation and their belief in the adequacy of their training to be teachers, noting that the more faculty feel supported through training, the more student-focused those faculty are. Overall, participants expressed frustration concerning this support and interest in seeing the university demonstrate the value of teaching by providing time and support for discussions, faculty development, and teacher training.

In contrast to the desire faculty and administrators expressed for more discussions and faculty development related to teaching, it was clear that participants were not confident in their own, or their fellow faculty members’, willingness to engage in these activities, and this lack of confidence has been documented in other studies as well (C. L. Colbeck & Wharton-Michael; De Simone, 2001; A. Palmer & Collins, 2006). Many of the interviewed faculty expressed high need and interest in engaging in these activities, but over half of them were more hesitant in their own thoughts in this area. When faculty and administrators were asked whether other faculty in their area would engage in discussions and development opportunities, the overwhelming majority of participants said that some, but not all, of their colleagues would get involved. This would not be surprising if most of the university faculty identified themselves as subject matter specialists rather than teachers. As Fleming, Shire, Jones, Pill, and McNamee (2004) noted, “if academics feel that their professional identity is located wholly within their discipline they may be unlikely to explore with colleagues (within and beyond their
discipline) the shared aims and values of teachers and teaching in [higher education]” (p. 166).

Since most faculty members, including those at Midwest Teaching University, primarily identify themselves as teachers (Boyer, 1990; De Simone, 2001; Light & Cox, 2001; Marchant & Newman, 1994; Menon, 2003; Peters & Mayfield, 1982), it would be expected that they would be more willing to explore teaching with their colleagues. Participants provided many reasons why faculty would not get involved, however, including time, level of experience, isolation, and work attitudes. Some thought their colleagues would not get involved due to the lack of time they feel they have, while others seemed to notice a difference in willingness among new faculty that was not present in more experienced faculty. The isolation faculty feel, which is a documented feeling at many institutions of higher education (Brookfield, 1995; Cranton & Carusetta, 2002; P. Palmer, 1998), as well as the initial feeling MTU faculty had when they were hired that they were on their own, set some up to believe that teaching problems are individual and should be addressed individually. Bass (1999) described this well when he noted that unlike problems in research that are both important and worth studying, faculty view problems in teaching as issues to be fixed, not embraced as a place for reflection and study. Finally, some simply felt that certain colleagues are more inclined to engage in activities that are above their daily responsibilities, where others only gave time to those things that were required. Participants, in general, were clear that some faculty simply would not willingly be involved, but expressed a strong desire that more discussions and development activities were needed and should be a part of the university’s commitment to teaching.
As has been discussed, the value universities place on teaching is only as strong as the evidence of that value in the important aspects of academic life. In a recent study, Colbeck and Wharton-Michael (2006a) described the need faculty had for university support through the use of Ford’s Motivational Systems Theory (MST). According to Ford’s (1992) theory, the motivation of an individual is directly related to their own personal goals, capability beliefs, context beliefs, and emotions. Colbeck and Wharton-Michael emphasized that while personal goals and emotions were important, motivation relied heavily on whether faculty feel they can be successful, and whether faculty feel that their institution supports them in their work. They go on to discuss the strong influence institutions have on faculty members’ motivation to be successful, both through general support and by encouraging faculty capability and context beliefs. In the current study, participants were asked to provide comments on specific areas of academic life as they related to the university’s commitment to teaching, but they were also asked to more generally address both the support they felt from the university as teachers, as well as the support the university offered to help them become better teachers. When participants were asked whether they felt supported as teachers at the university, most of them responded negatively. Some recognized the value of financial support for technology, conferences, and advanced degrees, but most identified a lack of general support for teachers at the university. It should be noted that, for some, the university’s lack of general support highlighted the trust administrators have in faculty to be professionals and to do their jobs well. These faculty members noted that when they, as professionals, recognized the need for support and asked for it, the university was more than willing to accommodate those requests. They felt, therefore, that the university provided the support
they needed at the time they needed it. Others took a more negative stance on this, however, pointing out that while the university did support when asked, it did relatively little to intentionally let them know they were supported. These faculty spoke primarily about the lack of support in teaching development and the feeling that if they wanted to become better teachers, the university would allow them to, not intentionally support them to. Both groups of faculty, overall, recognized a lack of proactive support for faculty as teachers despite differing views on the topic.

As a follow up to the question on general support for faculty, in which some faculty addressed the lack of support for teaching development, the interview and focus group participants were asked whether the university supported faculty in becoming better teachers, and most expressed “context beliefs” (Ford, 1992) that the university allowed, but did not support, this development. Participants continued the discussion regarding the lack of “active” support for faculty to do so. Faculty did perceive the university to be open to providing support when asked, and believed the university was intentional in terms of evaluation criteria used to recognize good teachers, but was not sufficiently addressing the need for active support in developing content experts into good teachers. Some highlighted orientation and faculty development opportunities as lacking clear help in this area, and others noted that while some financial support was available, it was not necessarily related to teaching, and was not enough to keep up with development even in these non-teaching areas. Administrators similarly expressed a lack of support and frequently discussed what should take place in the future to better provide this support. A few administrators noted that some work had been done in this area, but all acknowledged that the university has not been intentional enough in providing a
“second wave” of support for faculty who are hired. Almost all of the faculty and administrators expressed an interest in seeing the university improve in this area, with the primary need being active work to provide opportunities and resources for growth in teaching so that faculty would both feel supported and feel that they can be successful (C. L. Colbeck & Wharton-Michael, 2006a).

Two of the strongest areas within the academic culture of a university that demonstrates commitment to teaching are the evaluation procedures and the rewards for academic work. Faculty, in general, spend time on the aspects of academic life that are evaluated and rewarded (Brookfield, 2000; C. L. Colbeck & Wharton-Michael, 2006a). In terms of evaluation, the university has implemented policies and procedures to evaluate the work of the faculty, including through course evaluations, peer reviews of teaching, an annual evaluation that addresses teaching, student engagement, scholarship, and research, and a similar evaluation done during rank and promotion reviews. Faculty were supportive of the use of student and peer reviews of teaching, and were mostly satisfied with the annual and promotion reviews, although some were unsure of the ability of this process to keep faculty accountable for teaching improvement. The evaluation documents used clearly emphasized teaching, as well as other teaching-related areas such as student relationships and subject matter competence. Over half of the surveyed faculty, however, believed that the university needed better ways to evaluate teaching. There were also clear differences of opinion related to the amount that teaching was used as a primary criterion in the university’s evaluation process as compared to other aspects of academic life. There was strong agreement, for example, that teaching was more valued and more strongly evaluated than research, but many questioned
whether the third element of traditional academic life, service, was valued even more. Based on the amount of evaluation instruments used, teaching is clearly more evaluated, but faculty at this Christian teaching institution felt that service was strongly, and in some cases more strongly, valued and used as a part of the evaluation process, especially at times of promotion in rank. Further study would be needed to identify whether this was merely perception or whether institutions like this one hold service above teaching in the evaluation of faculty. Clearly, the university evaluates teaching and highlights specific criteria it is looking for from faculty through evaluation documents, but the perception of some faculty and administrators was that the evaluation process should be improved so that teaching was weighted more heavily.

Another area where faculty and administrators questioned the quality of teaching evaluation at MTU was in the university’s rewards for teaching and teaching ability. It is clear in the literature that administrators drive the behavior of faculty when they set reward structures for faculty (Brenner, 2006; Brookfield; De Simone, 2001; Nicholls, 2005; Young, 2006). When asked whether the university rewards teaching, most participants said “yes,” but their responses for how this was done ranged from the reward of being a teacher to specific teaching awards that are given out each year. A few of the faculty did not believe teaching was rewarded, but was recognized at the university, and this fit with the majority of responses that indicated that teaching awards were the primary way that good teaching was recognized. Even these awards, however, were called into question by both faculty and administrators due to the lack of clarity on the criteria used to choose faculty for these awards. Brawer et al. (2006) studied the perceptions of faculty and administrators concerning teaching awards at one university,
and while administrators viewed these awards as prestigious and supportive of effective teaching, faculty who received the awards reported less confidence in the award’s ability provide value to them beyond the personal recognition. The authors did not, however, study the perceptions of faculty who were not recipients of the award. In the case of MTU, the university does not provide evidence for why faculty are chosen, and while participants were sure to acknowledge how deserving each recipient was, they questioned whether the awards were based on good teaching.

Some faculty, in questioning the criteria for these awards, also questioned the ability of evaluation procedures to truly evaluate effective teaching that could be rewarded, noting like others in the literature have, that it is not as easy to do so with teaching as it is with research (A. Palmer & Collins, 2006; Ramsden & Martin, 1996), since “80/90% of what produces effective student learning is unseen” (A. Palmer & Collins, p. 198). A few faculty noted that scholarly accomplishments, including teaching, were recognized each year in an annual dinner program, but a review of the items included in this publication found that relatively few (an average of less than 10% over the last five years) are teaching-related, with the bulk being service and research/scholarship related. Of the other rewards mentioned, certainly promotions were considered rewards, and although teaching was not the only criteria for these, faculty did not believe, as many in other institutions do, that the only criteria considered were research and publishing (Asmar, 2002). And a few faculty members believed that since teaching was their primary job responsibility at a teaching institution, their paycheck was the reward. Overall, faculty and administrators agreed that teaching at MTU was recognized, and while some rewarding of teaching occurred, the criteria for these rewards
needed to be more well-established to provide the confidence that teaching was the primary criteria.

Through all of these important areas of academic life, it is clear that Midwest Teaching University does value teaching and the work that faculty are doing, but the perceptions of faculty and administrators are that the overall commitment to teaching at this teaching institution could be more strongly evidenced. The overwhelming theme addressed by both faculty and administrators was the negative identity the university had as a teaching institution. In their eyes, the institution was minimally intentional about supporting teaching and acting as a teaching institution. Instead, the university, they felt, could be more likely labeled a “non-research institution” that allowed, but did not support, effective teaching and teaching development to occur. While this was clearly not the perception of all participants, it was clear to all participants that more needed to be done to positively define the university as a teaching institution, showing support and rewards for teaching in ways that research institutions support and reward faculty researchers. Without this intentional support, some faculty may feel valued as professionals, but many will question whether the administrators at teaching institutions truly value teaching.

Conclusions

Many studies in recent years have confirmed the clear connection between faculty members’ conceptions of teaching, whether teacher or student-focused, and other teaching-related aspects, including approach to teaching (Kember, 1997; Kember & Kwan, 2000; Prosser & Trigwell, 1999, 2006), the scholarship of teaching (Lueddeke,
2003), and the quality of student learning (Trigwell & Prosser, 2004). Trigwell and Prosser’s work in this area, through the creation and use of the Approaches to Teaching Inventory, have highlighted one key stipulation in this work: approaches to teaching are contextual, and although faculty may hold a specific conception of teaching, their approach to teaching within courses may vary. Context is an important aspect, then, of the literature on teaching approach, and studies have addressed these approaches within courses, departments, and also disciplines (Knight & Trowler, 2000; Lindblom-Ylanne et al., 2006; Prosser & Trigwell; Ramsden et al., 2007; Trigwell et al., 2005a). Until recently, however, no study has addressed the influence the larger institutional context, or culture, has on how faculty approach their teaching. There have been authors that have issued a call for this work to be done (Knight & Trowler; Lea & Callaghan, 2008; Lueddeke; Menon, 2003; Quinlan, 2002), but it was not until recently that the first study of its kind was published. Lea and Callaghan, in their study on the higher education institution’s influence on faculty conceptions of teaching, called for exploratory studies that connected these two, and based this call on their qualitative study of faculty perceptions of teaching and institutional influences on teaching. The faculty in their study addressed a host of institutional factors that affected teaching, including the pressure to publish and a low value given to teaching in institutional policies and procedures. The authors then criticized Prosser & Trigwell’s work because they limited their study and the ATI to the course context, calling instead for future studies on the broader institutional context. The current study has done this by identifying faculty perceptions of the institutional context in a similar qualitative structure used by Lea and Callaghan, but with the added measure of faculty conceptions of teaching from the Approaches to Teaching
Inventory. Through this study, multiple aspects of the institutional context were identified that do have an influence on the approach faculty have to teaching, and therefore, the overall quality of student learning.

One of the primary evidences of institutional influence on faculty approach to teaching, and therefore on student learning, was the finding that the more student-centered faculty members’ approaches to teaching were, the more likely those faculty recognized their need for improvement in teaching, pursued development opportunities, and engaged in the scholarship of teaching. Faculty with a strong conceptual change/student-focused (CCSF) orientation based on the revised Approaches to Teaching Inventory (ATI-R) were found to be the strongest in these areas, while faculty with information-transfer/teaching-focused (ITTF) orientations were less likely to recognize their own need, engage in opportunities to develop themselves as teachers, and took more teacher-centered approaches to scholarship in teaching. While these findings do not overtly address the institutional context, when coupled with the results of interview and focus group data that highlighted a lack of support for teaching, including through financial means, professional development opportunities, and rewards and recognition for teaching, it is evident that the university, in the absence of this support, influences the quality of teaching and learning on campus. Gibbs and Coffey (2004), in a study on the effectiveness of training for university teachers, found that training increased the focus faculty had on student-centered learning, and improved student learning, but also found that “without the support of training no such positive change in student learning [was] evident” (p. 98). There is a clear indication that the lack of training and support for
teaching improvement, at best, leaves faculty where they are, but may actually cause them to move away from student-centered teaching (Gibbs & Coffey).

Most of the faculty members in the current study recognized the fact that while the university allowed teaching development to occur, there were few intentional instances where this was encouraged and supported. This did not matter for faculty with strong CCSF orientations, since they reported active and/or continual involvement in teaching development despite a lack of direct support from the university. Most of the faculty with a strong ITTF orientation, on the other hand, reported low to moderate activity and a moderate recognition of their need for these activities, preferring to learn from their own classroom experiences rather than through external means. These faculty were not exposed to, or required to be involved in, teaching development, and while the study did not attempt to directly correlate their teacher-centered approach to teaching with the quality of student learning in their classroom, other studies have clearly shown that surface, not deep, learning is the standard outcome of the ITTF orientation (Trigwell & Prosser, 2004). These participants were less likely to engage in development, but it was also clear that the university’s level of support was detrimental to any interest they did have. This highlights the potential effect support levels have on faculty who are actively pursuing teaching development, since all share these limitations. The university’s level of commitment and support for teaching, therefore, plays a prominent role in the potential faculty have to develop and grow into effective teachers.

Besides the level of support the university provided for teaching, many other influences on faculty approach to teaching within the classroom were identified, including ones not related to institutional context. Faculty and administrators addressed a
strong list of influences on teaching approach, including areas identified in previous studies such as discipline, the department, and the course. In terms of discipline, faculty acknowledged that the nature of knowledge within different disciplines affected how they were able to approach teaching. Those who saw the department as having an influence addressed the influence their colleagues had on their teaching approach and development. And the course was identified as a strong influence, both in terms of the amount of students in the course, which participants felt affected what approaches were possible in the classroom, as well as the course level, since there was a clear recognition that students needed to move from more information-driven courses to more conceptual change-related courses throughout their programs. In addition to these influences, other more personal or individual influences were addressed. Participants highlighted the influence past teachers had on their conception of teaching, as well as the way their own learning styles and beliefs about the role of faculty and student in the classroom impacted their understanding of how teaching should be approached. All in all, participants confirmed prior studies by describing individual, course, department, and discipline-related influences on their conception of teaching and approach within their classroom (Kreber, 2005; Lea & Callaghan, 2008; Lindblom-Ylanne et al., 2006; Lueddeke, 2003; Prosser & Trigwell, 1999; Ramsden et al., 2007; Trigwell & Prosser, 2004; Trigwell et al., 2005a; Trigwell et al., 2005b).

A second finding of this study is that despite the promise of the scholarship of teaching and learning to legitimize the study of teaching for teaching institutions, it is not standard practice at MTU. The multiple forms of scholarship Boyer (1990) introduced were developed in order to end the teacher versus research debate, and since its focus is
on the inquiry-based study of teaching and knowledge creation, the scholarship of teaching and learning would seem a perfect fit at teaching institutions (Hutchings & Shulman, 1999; Trigwell & Shale, 2004). Hutchings & Shulman provided a helpful description of the scholarship of teaching (and learning), saying that it involves investigation of student learning and the advancement of teaching practice. As Brookfield (2000) described, faculty at teaching institutions tend to be more involved in teaching development activities, in curriculum development, and in pedagogical experimentation, and the pursuit of these activities in a “systematic” fashion with a goal of “advancing practice” beyond their classroom would provide a clear marriage between research and teaching for teaching institution faculty who feel pressure to do both (Hutchings & Shulman, p. 12). Despite the potential benefits from this marriage for faculty at teaching institutions, however, the scholarship of teaching and learning remains a misunderstood and intermittently used form at MTU, shown largely through the definitions faculty provided for this form of scholarship, through the activities faculty were involved in, and through the limited support for teaching improvement at the university.

One of the reasons why the scholarship of teaching and learning was not found to be a strong part of the work of the faculty at MTU was because of the multiple understandings of this form of scholarship present among its faculty. The scholarship of teaching and learning has not been embraced at institutions, in part, because of the confusion over what it actually is (Kreber, 2002b; McKinney, 2006, 2007; Reed, 2003). Kreber (2002a), in a Delphi study, noted that experts in the field agreed that faculty needed to be “educated in how to think of teaching as scholarship” (p. 163), and Trigwell et al. (2000) were able to identify five different approaches faculty took to the scholarship
of teaching based on their definitions. This uncertainty over what the scholarship of teaching and learning is was certainly present at MTU. Many of the faculty were uncomfortable with providing a definition, and only did so after being asked the question “what do you think it means?” Multiple definitions were given by faculty, ranging from a focus on keeping current in the field, to thinking about pedagogy, and to the study of teaching for the improvement of classroom practice. Only a few of the faculty directly identified the scholarship of teaching as including the sharing of discovered knowledge with the professional community, and two of those only did so after being asked whether a presentation they described at a conference on teaching was an outcome of the scholarship of teaching. Although faculty held differing perceptions of what the scholarship of teaching was, their definitions did become more clearly focused on students when asked what adding the words “and learning” did to change their definitions. It is also interesting to note that despite the fact that only a few could describe the scholarship of teaching in an advanced way, their actual practice told a different story. Faculty were ultimately identified as engaging in the scholarship of teaching based on their descriptions of scholarly and teaching activities, not because their definitions of the scholarship of teaching reflected Trigwell et al.’s approaches. Each one of the multiple definitions that Trigwell et al. introduced was represented by at least one interviewed faculty member. Although relatively few reported work in the scholarship of teaching and learning at the basic level, three participants could not even be associated within the most basic focus on knowing the literature on teaching, which speaks to the need for an expanded model of the scholarship of teaching that takes faculty like these into consideration. Also, only half of the interviewed faculty members were engaged in the
scholarship of teaching in one of the advanced levels. Of the eight identified in these advanced forms, only five were involved in this form of scholarship in a way that addressed the primary focus of the scholarship of teaching and learning: making teaching public (Hatch, 2006; Hatch et al., 2004; Kreber, 2001; R. E. Rice, 1996; Shulman, 2000; Weston & McAlpine, 2001). Overall, more faculty were engaged in the scholarship of teaching and learning than could define it clearly, supporting the literature findings that in order for this form of scholarship to grow, faculty need to be educated in it.

Despite the confusion evident among faculty about what the scholarship of teaching was and whether they were engaged in it, one thing was clear: those who were engaged in it held more student-centered conceptions of teaching. This was identified by Lueddeke (2003) and confirmed in the current study. The majority of the faculty that held a student-centered (CCSF) orientation based on the Approaches to Teaching Inventory engaged in scholarly activities related to the more advanced approaches Trigwell et al. (2000) described, including working toward teaching improvement through an understanding of pedagogical content knowledge within the discipline, or in sharing their findings with the broader community. Most of the faculty members with teacher-centered (ITTF) orientations were engaged in teaching improvement within their own classrooms, but not in these more advanced forms. There was a clear tie, then, between faculty members’ conceptions of teaching and the level of the scholarship of teaching they pursued.

While those with CCSF orientation at MTU were more likely to get involved in scholarship of teaching activities, however, it is also clear that the faculty felt inhibited from doing so by the lack of support for teaching-related professional development and
scholarship activities. Faculty felt that the university was supportive of the scholarship of teaching and learning and would accept it as a legitimate form of scholarship, acknowledging the focus they felt administrators had on teaching and the lack of requirements for research and publishing. They did not feel, however, that the university provided support for this form of scholarship. As has been noted, where support was provided, it primarily focused on remaining current in the field through participation in disciplinary conferences and professional organizations. Therefore, while many faculty members chose to be involved without this support, some saw the lack of support as a key barrier to them getting involved in the development and investigation of their teaching.

A third outcome of this study was the rich, thick description of the perceptions of faculty and administrators at a teaching institution, including a description of the culture of teaching and scholarship at a university that is unapologetically teaching-focused, and a few key conclusions have arisen from this description. First, a teaching focus does not necessarily equal active, intentional focus on quality teaching and teaching improvement. The perceptions of both faculty and administrators were that good teaching was allowed to happen on campus, and was, at times, recognized as good teaching, but there was not an intentional focus on supporting faculty in teaching improvement, in scholarship of teaching investigations, or in clear rewards for effective teaching. It should also be noted that increasing the amount of training the university offers to faculty for teaching improvement does not necessarily mean that the university is effectively supporting faculty to become better teachers. Faculty in this study highlighted that when professional development was offered, much of it was informational, provided to them without a real
chance to reflect, participate, and interact with others. This is a teaching-focused trap that many who offer training in higher education fall into; it does little to aid faculty in becoming better teachers, and does nothing to help them move from teacher-focused conceptions of teaching to those that are student-focused (Brookfield, 2000; Cranton & Carussetta, 2004; Kreber, 1999; Magro, 2002; Sokol & Cranton, 1998). Faculty must be made aware, first of all, that it is important to move from teacher-centered to student-centered teaching due to studies that indicate that true, deep learning occurs when students are at the center of instruction (Trigwell & Prosser, 2004). Without this understanding, faculty may not see the need for teaching development or improvement, and, as Trigwell & Prosser noted, will leave their students with only shallow, or surface, understandings of the subject. Moving from a teacher-centered orientation to a student, or conceptual change, focus, however, will not happen through informational sessions on teaching best practices (Nicholls, 2005). Instead, as Nicholls noted, faculty must learn to “construct their pedagogic knowledge and develop their own theories of teaching, learning and research (p. 613). Teaching is a communicative profession (Cranton & Carussetta; Eisen, 2001; Mezirow, 1995; Sokol & Cranton), and “we learn about teaching through experience, reflection on experience, and dialogue with others” (Cranton & Carussetta, p. 6). Institutions interested in supporting faculty in teaching improvement will need to go beyond simple training sessions to supporting reflection and dialogue, and creating an environment where faculty “feel that they have control over their teaching, that teaching is valued and they have room to take chances,” assisting them “in the move towards a student-focused approach which leads them towards deep learning and significant conceptual change” (Knight & Trowler, 2000, p. 79).
Secondly, despite literature that points to discrepancies between faculty and administrator perceptions of teaching and scholarship, little differences were found between the perceptions of these two groups at Midwest Teaching University. A definite gap exists between faculty and administrators related to the perceptions these groups have of teaching, scholarship, and of each other (Brawer et al., 2006; McAlpine & Harris, 2002; Ramsden, 2004; Tang & Chamberlain, 1997). Studies have highlighted, for example, the pull faculty feel between their desire to be teachers and the demands for research (Brown & McCartney, 1998; Buzza, 1990; De Simone, 2001). Even within teaching institutions, faculty have acknowledged that research is more valued than teaching (Hardy & Smith, 2006; McCaughey, 1994; Peters & Mayfield, 1982; Young, 2006). At MTU, administrators were in general agreement with faculty related to the status of teaching and scholarship at the university, the support for teaching and teaching improvement, and the rewarding of these activities. Some differences were highlighted as it related to the influence faculty themselves have on individual approach to teaching in the classroom, and like other studies, administrators did have a stronger focus on scholarship than did faculty within the context of effective teaching (Boyer, 1990; C. L. Colbeck & Wharton-Michael, 2006a; Hardy & Smith; Menon, 2003; Young).

What is interesting to note is that despite the general agreement between these groups concerning teaching and scholarship, the policies and procedures that govern the work of the faculty did not reflect the perceptions administrators held. While teaching was held in high esteem and administrators felt that it should be supported and rewarded more, changes had not been made to the structure of academic work to facilitate this. Despite the recognition that the university should be more intentional about orienting
faculty to the teaching role, and aiding in the development of faculty throughout their careers, this focus and intended support for faculty was not reflected in the Faculty Handbook (2004) or other key documents, and it was not reflected in the actual approach administrators took to faculty meetings, professional development, and the provision for academic resources. Ultimately, administrator perceptions were not aligned with institutional policy, which may have had an influence on faculty perceptions of the institution’s commitment to teaching. This lack of alignment may have been due to the recent departure of a senior academic administrator whose perceptions, though not represented in this study, had a clear influence on current practice. Administrators may have felt more free to express their perceptions because of this departure, and it was clear from the conversations that both deans and department chairs had that they desired to see change in how the institution practiced, or lived out, its teaching focus. Changes, then, may be ahead for the institution, but one thing was clear: the current practices, policies, and procedures did not reflect the perceptions and values of administrators at the university, who ultimately agreed with the values and perceptions of full-time faculty at MTU.

Recommendations

The results of this study highlight the need for changes in the culture of teaching and scholarship in higher education, and also point to other studies that should be done to further understanding of the perceptions faculty and administrators have of teaching and the institutional influence on teaching. In terms of recommendations for higher education institutions, the data clearly shows a need for institutions who are teaching-focused to
make sure they intentionally support and reward teaching and teaching development. Both faculty and administrators in this study expressed frustration that the institution was more defined by what it was not (a research institution) than what it was (a teaching institution). The defining aspects of a teaching institution, according to the participants, should not just be high course loads and a low student-faculty ratio. Instead, a teaching institution should be intentional about faculty development, teaching improvement, and financial support for teaching. The orientation program and continuing faculty development should focus on how faculty can best improve as teachers, and faculty ought to be engaged with one another in discussion on teaching at multiple levels. Mentoring at the individual level, small group discussions among colleagues and department members, and strong discussion of teaching best practice at the university level should all be common practice for the teaching institution. Faculty agreed with Brookfield (2000) that faculty at teaching institutions should place “much more emphasis on teachers participating in faculty development, in their designing new materials and in their experimenting with different pedagogical approaches” (p. 131). The data, however, supported, the fact that not all faculty will engage in these types of activities without institutional influence, whether through incentives or required policies, reward structures, and agenda items. Overall, there was a clear sense from participants that if the institution is focused on teaching, then excellent and effective teaching should be encouraged, developed, supported, and rewarded, and this should be an important emphasis for all teaching institutions. Without a focus on teaching that is regarded as the cornerstone of all that faculty and administrators do at institutions like this, institutions may find that
faculty are as unclear as the participants of this study about what is valued, and will struggle to improve teaching and learning on their campus.

Administrators also need to have a full understanding of the perceptions that faculty and administrators have of teaching, scholarship, and institutional commitment to teaching if policies and procedures are going to be put in place that align with institutional values and move the institution forward academically. Certainly, it is important that administrators understand how faculty perceive the work they do, but it is even more important that institutional policy reflect the values of the institution and of the members of that institution. Faculty expressed frustration with institutional policies that most of the administrators disagreed with or felt were not reflective of the intentions they had for the institution. The results of this study provide a clear picture for administrators at Midwest Teaching University to base decisions on concerning faculty work and faculty life; decisions that place higher value on teaching and the scholarship of teaching to reflect both faculty and administrator beliefs. Institutions, therefore, that desire to engage faculty in the scholarship of teaching, raise the value of teaching across campus, and express support for teaching as a core part of its mission, will also benefit from a similar study of the perceptions of faculty and administrators.

Going further, it is also clear from the data that administrator decisions and institutional culture directly affect the status of teaching and scholarship on campus, and it will need to be clear at each institution what effect current practices and policies are having on the work of the faculty. Administrators, however, will not be able to bring about critical changes they identify without recognizing the impact institutional culture has on the work being done at their institutions. Culture, or ethos, has a strong, and often
underestimated, influence on the behaviors of all members of an organization (Ballet et al., 2006; B. R. Clark, 1983; Levin, 2006; Nicholls, 2005; Wisniewski, 1984). The university culture is, of course, defined in part by the policies, the procedures, and the practices of faculty and administrators, but it is also defined by individual and group perceptions, values, and shared knowledge, which means that changing policy may change behavior, but will not necessarily change perceptions and values (Asmar, 2002; Gordon, 2002; Middlehurst, 1993). On the other hand, the somewhat intangible elements of perception and value may not change until policies and procedures have been changed (Asmar). Either way, it is vital that institutions interested in changing the status and quality of teaching and scholarship investigate policies and ethos in order to have a complete understanding of the institution’s culture. O’Meara (2006) noted, “institutional type, culture, and constraints on faculty work should be considered when initiating…reforms in academic reward systems” (p. 88), but institutions interested in any and all reforms will need to consider these elements from their own perspectives and from the perspectives of faculty.

In order for studies of institutional culture to become a reality in the literature as well as in the work of administrators interested in reform and change at their institutions, future research should be done using an ethnographic methodology that will more directly address the culture of institutions of higher education as it relates to teaching and scholarship. Much work has been done in recent years to study the culture of organizations using ethnographic method (Huberman & Miles, 2002; Schwartzman, 1993; Shaffir, 1999) to determine and describe the ways that people “do things together in observable and repeatable ways” (Huberman & Miles, p. 102). Wisniewski (1984), in
his article on scholarly ethos in Schools of Education, described the need for historical and descriptive studies on the culture of an institution prior to reforms taking place. In the case of educational scholarship, he noted that reforms will only be based on realistic premises if they follow ethnographic or social-psychological studies of the scholarly ethos of the institution. As he described,

> Of all researchers, ethnographers appear best equipped to conduct studies that deal with the questions suggested here. By participant-observation, by living within an institution, by carefully recording behaviors and incidents in a range of settings, the ethnographer can perhaps come closest to describing an institutional ethos. (p. 6)

Some recent ethnographic studies (Laughlin, 2001; Levin, 2006; Smith-Hawkins, 2005; C. D. Wilson, 1999) have explored faculty culture as it relates to variables such as time, work, and teaching, and influence on faculty, but as O’Meara (2006) identified, institutional type is a factor that must also be included. Future study, therefore, should focus within specific institutional types, and the best scenario may involve institutions conducting intentional studies that both further the field and prepare them for reform.

While ethnographic studies could both provide important information for institutions intent on reform, as well as further the field, another recommendation is to take the current study and replicate it at other higher education institutions with a teaching focus (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). As this was a single case study, it is not directly generalizable to all teaching institutions (Creswell, 2003; Leedy & Ormrod). The focus was on a deep description of one institution so that light could be shed on issues that may face faculty and administrators at all institutions. Since the purpose was exploratory, then, the outcome of such a study inevitably raises more questions than answers (Leedy & Ormrod). Certainly, findings from this study confirmed what others have studied in the
past, and provided a beginning point for work in a field that has been called for but not pursued in depth, but much more work will need to be done to identify the application of these findings to all teaching institutions. To begin that work, other studies should be conducted using this same approach, and this work could be done in partnership so that multiple universities are studied at the same time and compared. The more that studies like this are completed, the more likely a clear picture of the culture of teaching and scholarship at teaching institutions will surface.

Replication is one way to further the field, but one of the challenges of a study like this is the sheer size and breadth of the issues discussed (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Any one of the individual findings could be studied further and in more depth than could be done in a case study like this. For example, a quantitative study that asked faculty across multiple teaching institutions to rate the influence of each of the institutional factors identified here on their teaching approach would allow for very specific, but generalizable, data. Other studies should focus on more clearly and quantifiably identifying faculty need for teaching development, as well as, similar to Lueddeke’s (2003) work, the alignment between faculty conceptions of teaching and their perceptions of the scholarship of teaching. This is important because of a second limitation: the inability of a qualitative study to show cause and effect (Leedy & Ormrod). While trends seemed to indicate that faculty members who held more student-centered orientations were more aware of their needs, more willing to engage in professional development, and more engaged in the scholarship of teaching, cause and effect can not be determined. Future studies, then, should explore this connection in more detail through quantitative means.
The current study is also limited because of the contextual nature of the revised Approaches to Teaching Inventory (ATI-R). The inventory asks participants to identify a specific course and base their responses on their approach to teaching within that one course. This further limits the generalizability of the study, and also makes it difficult to provide strong comparisons between faculty and faculty groups since results may be different if faculty members are asked to complete the inventory again with different courses in mind. Future studies, then, should take this into consideration, possibly by asking faculty to complete the survey for multiple courses, taking the mean of their scores to identify their conceptions of teaching. This will reduce the possibly variability of responses due to the focus on only one course approach. Asking faculty to address specific courses, such as courses offered in the liberal arts, for example, may also be helpful, since the current study focused primarily on courses within majors. Future work would be strengthened by addressing these limitations.

Overall, these recommendations speak to one singular challenge: to improve student learning through the continued exploration of teaching, the scholarship of teaching and learning, and institutional commitment/culture. With the steady increase of accountability, competition, and strong student expectations in higher education, institutions must focus on the improvement of teaching and learning (Barrington, 2004; Biggs, 2001; Brew, 2003; Cross, 2001; Gordon, 2002; Kezar, 2001). Institutions that are willing to initiate changes in policies, procedures, faculty support and evaluation, and professional development will be the ones that have the best chance of success in the changing landscape of higher education. These changes, however, will not be possible without an understanding of the institutional context and its influence on the work of
faculty and administrators related to quality teaching and learning (Lea & Callaghan, 2008; Quinlan, 2002). The current study has affirmed the work of others related to conceptions of teaching, conceptions of the scholarship of teaching, and the factors that influence faculty approach to teaching, and has taken this further to identify the institution’s influence on faculty work in ways that relatively few others have done (Lea & Callaghan). The author, however, joins others (Lea & Callaghan; Menon, 2003; Quinlan, 2002) in calling for more studies like this to be done to further this work both within teaching institutions and in other institution types. Faculty and administrators that recognize the need for improvement can benefit from the deep discussion of issues addressed in this and other studies, but they should also be prepared to do their own similar investigations of the institutional context factors that may be barriers to teaching and learning improvement. Ultimately, through future studies, both in the literature and within institutions themselves, there is the potential for the elimination of barriers to faculty teaching, the elevated status of teaching in general, and most importantly, the improvement of student learning.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A. APPROACHES TO TEACHING INVENTORY

Section I: Demographic Information

Q1 Year of Birth
--Click Here--

Q2 Gender
☑ Male
☐ Female

Q3 What department(s) do you teach in?
- Art and Digital Media
- Behavioral Sciences
- Biological Sciences
- Business
- Communication
- Computer Science
- Education
- Engineering
- English and Modern Languages
- Exercise and Sports Science
- Family and Consumer Sciences

Q4 For how many years have you taught at this university?
--Click Here--

Q5 For how many years have you been teaching in higher education?
--Click Here--

Q6 Did you have teaching experience prior to becoming a professor?
☑ Yes
☐ No

Page Break
Section II: Perceptions of Teaching and Scholarship

Q7 In general, do you consider yourself to be a teacher, a researcher, or an intellectual?

- Teacher
- Researcher
- Intellectual


Q8 Do your interests lie primarily in teaching or in research?

- Primarily in teaching
- In both, but learning toward teaching
- In both, but leaning toward research
- Primarily in research

Q9 Please give your opinion about teaching conditions at your institution using the following scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My institution provides adequate mentoring and other support for beginning instructors.</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student opinions should be used in evaluating the teaching effectiveness of faculty.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer review should be used in evaluating the teaching effectiveness of faculty.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The pressure to publish reduces the quality of teaching at this institution.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At this institution, we need better ways to evaluate teaching performance.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At my institution, we need better ways, besides publications, to evaluate the scholarly performance of the faculty.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching effectiveness should be the primary criterion for promotion of faculty.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At this institution, faculty evaluation gives appropriate weight to teaching, research, and service.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section III: APPROACHES TO TEACHING INVENTORY-R (Prosser/Trigwell, 2005)

This inventory is designed to explore a dimension of the way that academics go about teaching in a specific context or subject or course. This may mean that your responses to these items in one context may be different to the responses you might make on your teaching in other contexts or subjects. For this reason we ask you to describe your context. Please think of one of the courses you teach that is required for a major in your department (not a general education course). Please identify the course or subject of the course below and complete the questions based on this course/subject.

Subject/course of your response:

For each item please choose one of the numbers (1-5). The numbers stand for the following responses:

1 - this item was only rarely or never true for me in this subject.
2 - this item was sometimes true for me in this subject.
3 - this item was true for me about half the time in this subject.
4 - this item was frequently true for me in this subject.
5 - this item was almost always or always true for me in this subject.

Please answer each item. Do not spend a long time on each: your first reaction is probably the best one.

In this subject students should focus their study on what I provide them.

It is important that this subject should be completely described in terms of specific objectives that relate to formal assessment items.
In my interactions with students in this subject I try to develop a conversation with them about the topics we are studying.
It is important to present a lot of facts to students so that they know what they have to learn for this subject.
I set aside some teaching time so that the students can discuss, among themselves, key concepts and ideas in this subject.
In this subject I concentrate on covering the information that might be available from key texts and readings.

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For each item please choose one of the numbers (1-5). The numbers stand for the following responses:

1 - this item was only rarely or never true for me in this subject.
2 - this item was sometimes true for me in this subject.
3 - this item was true for me about half the time in this subject.
4 - this item was frequently true for me in this subject.
5 - this item was almost always or always true for me in this subject.

Please answer each item. Do not spend a long time on each: your first reaction is probably the best one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>only rarely</th>
<th>sometimes</th>
<th>about half the time</th>
<th>frequently</th>
<th>almost always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

I encourage students to restructure their existing knowledge in terms of the new way of thinking about the subject that they will develop.  

In teaching sessions for this subject, I deliberately provoke debate and discussion.

I structure my teaching in this subject to help students to pass the formal assessment items.

I think an important reason for running teaching sessions in this subject is to give students a good set of notes.

In this subject, I provide the students with the information they will need to pass the formal assessments.

I should know the answers to any questions that students may put to me during this subject.

I make available opportunities for students in this subject to discuss their changing understanding of the subject.

It is better for students in this subject to generate their own notes rather than copy mine.
For each item please choose one of the numbers (1-5). The numbers stand for the following responses:

1 - this item was only rarely or never true for me in this subject.
2 - this item was sometimes true for me in this subject.
3 - this item was true for me about half the time in this subject.
4 - this item was frequently true for me in this subject.
5 - this item was almost always or always true for me in this subject.

Please answer each item. Do not spend a long time on each: your first reaction is probably the best one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A lot of teaching time in this subject should be used to question students’ ideas.</th>
<th>only rarely</th>
<th>sometimes</th>
<th>about half the time</th>
<th>frequently</th>
<th>almost always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In this subject my teaching focuses on the good presentation of information to students.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I see teaching as helping students develop new ways of thinking in this subject.</td>
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<tr>
<td>In teaching this subject it is important for me to monitor students’ changed understanding of the subject matter.</td>
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<tr>
<td>My teaching in this subject focuses on delivering what I know to the students.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching in this subject should help students question their own understanding of the subject matter.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching in this subject should include helping students find their own learning resources.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I present material to enable students to build up an information base in this subject.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you
Approaches to Teaching Inventory-R

The Approaches to Teaching Inventory-Revised (ATI-R) has two scales:
- Information transfer/Teacher-focused scale (ITTF)
- Conceptual Change/Student-focused scale (CCSF)

ITTF Items 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 10, 11, 12, 16, 19, 22
CCSF items 3, 5, 7, 8, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 20, 21

Scoring is based on the mean numeric response (1-5) for each item in the scale

We have not published norms, nor will we, as we have gone to some lengths in writing on the research behind this inventory, that responses to it are relational and are specific to the context in which they are collected. Teachers who adopt one approach in one context may not adopt the same one in a different context. Our main use of the Inventory has been as a source of data for analysis of associations within a specific context. For example the associations between approach to teaching and perceptions of leadership in departments, or relations between approach to teaching and student approaches to learning.

Permission to use this Inventory is given, provided:
- that its source is acknowledged in all publications (ATI)* (ATI-R)**
- that users notify Keith Trigwell of their intention to use the inventory, and
- that once data have been collected and used as intended that the raw results on the inventory items are available for the use of Michael Prosser and/or Keith Trigwell.

[Michael Prosser and Keith Trigwell, 2004]

References on the ATI


Note that this version of the ATI has been expanded to test new items and modified to accommodate more flexible learning environments than those from which the ATI was developed. The original version is available in Prosser and

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January 2007
APPENDIX B. FACULTY INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

The protocol for faculty interviews is semi-structured and designed to be used flexibly. The focus for the interviewer should be on the numbered questions, making sure the content of the lettered questions are addressed in the process. Questions may be altered or reworded for the participant, and questions not listed may be used if the interview/study shifts to other relevant topics.

Perception of Teaching

1. What was your primary motivation for becoming a professor?
2. Who/What is the primary influence on your teaching?
   a. How did you learn to teach?
   b. Did you have a mentor (formal or informal) when you began your career? What did that mentoring relationship provide for you?
3. Has your teaching approach changed since your first year as a professor? How so?
4. What does a typical class session look like for you?
5. How do you learn best? Does that come across in your teaching?
6. Do you work to develop your teaching?
   a. If so, how?
   b. If not, why? If you do not attend professional development opportunities, why?
   c. When was the last time you tried out a new teaching strategy?
7. Who is responsible for student learning?

Perception of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning

1. Is there a link between research and teaching? How would you describe that link?
2. What does the term “scholarship” mean?
3. What scholarship pursuits have you been involved with personally?
4. How would you define “the scholarship of teaching”?
5. Does your definition change if the words “and learning” was added to “the scholarship of teaching”?
6. Is teaching a scholarly pursuit for you?
7. Do you believe the scholarship of teaching would be a viable pursuit for you in your department/university?

Institutional Commitment to Teaching

1. What kind of support do you feel would help you develop your teaching?
2. What do you wish you knew or were taught/told when you first became a faculty member about teaching?
3. Is quality teaching talked about and/or valued in your department?
4. Do you feel that the university supports you as a teacher?
5. Do you feel that the university rewards teaching? (Awards, promotion decisions, recognition, etc.)
6. Do you think your approach to teaching (whether transmission-focused or student-focused) is affected by the institution and its culture?
APPENDIX C. FACULTY FOCUS GROUP PROTOCOL

The protocol for faculty focus groups is semi-structured and designed to be used flexibly. The focus for the interviewer should be on the numbered questions, making sure the content of the lettered questions are addressed in the process. Questions may be altered or reworded for the participants, and questions not listed may be used if the interview/study shifts to other relevant topics.

Teaching

1. How do you define effective teaching?
2. Do you feel that the university provides quality support for professors interested in becoming better teachers?
   a. If yes, how?
   b. If no, what should the university be doing?
3. What makes professional development opportunities successful?
4. Is quality of teaching a topic of conversation at this university? If so, where do these conversations take place?
5. At this institution, do you think that a faculty member’s approach to teaching (whether transmission-focused or student-focused) is affected by the institution and its culture?
6. How would you define the scholarship of teaching?
7. Could teaching be considered a scholarly pursuit at this university?
8. Are there elements of university life that hinder faculty from being able to focus on teaching and teaching development?
   a. Are faculty members able to devote the time they want to teaching and teaching development at this institution?
   b. Do faculty members feel pressure to devote time to other things?
   c. Does a faculty members’ teaching load allow time for development and improvement?

Rewarding Scholarship

9. What is valued more at this institution? Teaching, Research, or Service?
10. Does what is valued get rewarded? How?

11. What do you think the most important factors are that administrators look for when making promotion decisions?
   a. Is teaching or research a better indicator of a professor’s excellence?
   b. You have heard administrators say that they are proud of the university’s teaching focus. Do you believe their actions and the policies/procedures they enact support or contradict this claim?

12. Does teaching get rewarded here?
APPENDIX D. DEPARTMENT HEAD FOCUS GROUP PROTOCOL

The protocol for the department head focus group is semi-structured and designed to be used flexibly. The focus for the interviewer should be on the numbered questions, making sure the content of the lettered questions are addressed in the process. Questions may be altered or reworded for the participants, and questions not listed may be used if the interview/study shifts to other relevant topics.

Teaching
1. How do you define effective teaching?
2. Do you feel that the university provides quality support for professors interested in becoming better teachers?
   a. If yes, how?
   b. If no, what should the university be doing?
3. What makes professional development opportunities successful?
4. Is quality of teaching a topic of conversation at this university? If so, where do these conversations take place?
5. At this institution, do you think that a faculty member’s approach to teaching (whether transmission-focused or student-focused) is affected by the institution and its culture?
6. How would you define the scholarship of teaching?
7. Could teaching be considered a scholarly pursuit at this university?
8. Are there elements of university life that hinder faculty from being able to focus on teaching and teaching development?
   a. Are faculty members able to devote the time they want to teaching and teaching development at this institution?
   b. Do faculty members feel pressure to devote time to other things?
   c. Does a faculty members’ teaching load allow time for development and improvement?

Rewarding Scholarship
1. What is valued more at this institution? Teaching, Research, or Service?
2. Does what is valued get rewarded? How?

3. What do you think the most important factors are that administrators look for when making promotion decisions?
   a. Is teaching or research a better indicator of a professor’s excellence?
   b. You have heard administrators say that they are proud of the university’s teaching focus. Do you believe their actions and the policies/procedures they enact support or contradict this claim?
   c. For department heads: Do you feel that the scholarship values of the Dean for your area match your own values for your faculty?
   d. There is evidence that the culture in higher education is becoming much more business-like and less collegial. As department heads, do you sense tension as you work with faculty on the one hand and Deans on the other?
APPENDIX E. ACADEMIC DEAN FOCUS GROUP PROTOCOL

The protocol for the academic dean focus group is semi-structured and designed to be used flexibly. The focus for the interviewer should be on the numbered questions, making sure the content of the lettered questions are addressed in the process. Questions may be altered or reworded for the participants, and questions not listed may be used if the interview/study shifts to other relevant topics.

Teaching

1. How do you define effective teaching?
2. Do you feel that the university provides quality support for professors interested in becoming better teachers?
   a. If yes, how?
   b. If no, what should the university be doing?
3. What makes professional development opportunities successful?
4. Is quality of teaching a topic of conversation at this university? If so, where do these conversations take place?
5. At this institution, do you think that a faculty member’s approach to teaching (whether transmission-focused or student-focused) is affected by the institution and its culture?
6. How would you define the scholarship of teaching?
7. Could teaching be considered a scholarly pursuit at this university?
8. Are there elements of university life that hinder faculty from being able to focus on teaching and teaching development?
   a. Are faculty members able to devote the time they want to teaching and teaching development at this institution?
   b. Do faculty members feel pressure to devote time to other things?
   c. Does a faculty members’ teaching load allow time for development and improvement?

Rewarding Scholarship

1. What is valued more at this institution? Teaching, Research, or Service?
2. Does what is valued get rewarded? How?
3. You have heard administrators in the past say that this institution is proud of its teaching focus. Do you believe administrators’ actions and the policies/procedures they enact support or contradict this claim?
4. What are the most important factors you look for when making promotion decisions?
5. Is teaching or research a better indicator of a professor’s excellence?