Connoisseurship of Teaching in Higher Education

by

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A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
Auburn University
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Auburn, Alabama
May 7, 2017

Keywords: adult education, best practices, higher education, teaching

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Abstract

This study examined the principles and practices of award winning instructors in the classroom. This study creates a perspective of what constitutes teaching expertise in a higher education classroom. The purpose of this study was to examine what they perceived is needed to meet the various needs of college age students. This research examined instructor's attitudes towards andragogical and pedagogical practices in the classroom. This research also examines what skills the professors felt as if best prepare them for planning of lessons. The study examined any correlations between the principals of Adult Education (Knowles, 1978) and the effective practices of Undergraduate Education (Chickering & Gamson, 1987).

The participants included professors (N=4) at a southeastern four-year university. Data collection occurred using the following qualitative strategies – individual interviews, document analysis, and classroom observations. A literature review was conducted in order to gather preliminary data to gauge saturation of the topic in current and past publications and included literature on adult education, faculty development, andragogy and pedagogy, and student attitudes about professor performance. These areas of focus provided a basis for the conceptual framework and also provided a lense through which to view all data and literature.

Analysis of data that was collected through interviews and observations lead to six main conclusions. All participants perceived adult, non-traditional, students as distinct and different as compared to traditional students in terms of age, preparedness, and maturity. Most of the participants realized the importance to develop an understanding of the varied needs of students

through classroom engagement using a variety of tools and instructional methods. All participants had some sort of reflection plan in place to assess their teaching. Most of the participants felt that their time and experience had only strengthen or confirmed their philosophy of education. The majority of participants found that the greatest help in their development has been their past teaching experience outside of higher education. The majority of the participants stated that time was the biggest hindrance in their development as instructors.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank Dr. Maria Witte for all her genuine support and advice. I could not have imagined this journey without her encouragement. To Dr. James Witte, for his support, advise, and "Witteisms". His ability to challenge me to think critically about situations at hand has been invaluable for me personally and professionally. Being able to watch and learn from both of them has deeply affected the way I look at education and my own style of teaching. I believe their influence, regardless of how small they might think, has set a fire in my heart and has lit the way for me to further my career as an educator and human being. I would like to thank Dr. Leslie Cordie for her ability to keep me grounded and focused on the task at hand. Her support and advice has helped me keep a clear head and achieve more than I thought possible. To Dr. Daniel Henry, his knowledge and expertise on qualitative studies has been instrumental to the success of this study. A special thank you to Dr. Jared Russell for volunteering to be my university reader. To all of the other professors at Auburn University that has had a hand shaping the educator that I am today, I am forever in your debt.

To my Mother and Father, your support and understanding in this long journey has been instrumental in my completion of my schooling. From their unwavering support to their words of encouragement. To my loving and supportive partner, his encouragement and compassion were instrumental for me in this endeavor. I truly could not have done this without any of you.

War Eagle.

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Chapter I:
Introduction

"We will learn no matter what! Learning is as natural as rest or play. With or without books, inspiring trainers or classrooms, we will manage to learn. Educators can, however, make a difference in what people learn and how well they learn it. If we know why we are learning and if the reason fits our needs as we perceive them, we will learn quickly and deeply."

Malcolm Knowles

For years, traditional teaching practices has dominated all realms of education. From elementary education to graduate education, instructors have relied on the strategy of pedagogical to instruct their students. While it is fine for elementary to high school, maybe even some level of undergraduate education, teaching adults is fundamentally different as outlined by Knowles (1973).

Research studies have attempted to describe qualities of teaching expertise. It is widely recognized by researchers (Dian & Yeh, 2012, Harden & Wilkerson, 2011, Kane, Lindsey, 2005, McLean, 2001. McMillan, 2007, Ramani, 2006, Samdretto, & Heath, 2004; ;) that teaching expertise is generally a broadly defined topic and that a singular standardized definition has not been established.

The term *Connoisseurship*, as used in this research, refers to the skills and practices employed by exemplary instructors as defined by their individual institutions, the adult education principals as identified by Malcolm Knowles (1973) and the principals of undergraduate teaching identified by Chickering and Gamson (1987).

Table 1 presents the principles identified by Malcolm Knowles (1978) and Chickering and Gamson (1987). When analyzed, these principles display the competencies that are widely used for teaching adult and undergraduate students. Due to this reason, they were selected for this study. These principles assume that undergraduate students are either already adults or on the terminus of adulthood. Knowles recognized that there was a difference between adult learnings and the traditional learner in an adult education classroom. Knowles' (1973) theory of Andragogy assumes that adult learners are self-directed. Adult learners use their past experiences as a resource for learning, Adult learners learn relating back to their social roles. They apply knowledge to solve problems immediately, and have an intrinsic motivation to learn. In studies done by Beder and Darkenwald (1982) and Gorham (1984, 1985) have shown that there is a difference between adult learners and traditional students. Both studies identified significant differences in teaching styles. The results found that instructors spent much more time on discipline and giving instructions. Instructors had to give more emotional support to traditional students and provide a stronger structure for instructional activities. They also saw that instructors had to restrict their teaching techniques compared to taking adult learners.

There are specific characteristics found in Adult Education and undergraduate education and their relationship to the instructors. The table below examines the principals of Adult Education and undergraduate education. The researcher attempted to place the principals together as they relate to one another. Though not all the principals align a few did. Both sets of principals recognize the need to diagnosing the needs of learning and respecting the diverse talents of the students. The Principals of Adult Education focuses more on the design of the learning. What are the students supposed to learn from their education and how to best deliver that knowledge? While the Practices of undergraduate education from Chickering and Gamson

relies on actions the instructor should use to effectively teach undergraduate classes.

Table 1

Principals of Adult Education and Practices of Undergraduate Education

Principles of Adult Education Malcom Knowles (1978, p. 102)	Practices of Undergraduate Education Chickering & Gamson (1987, pp 3)
• Diagnosing needs of learning. • Evaluating learning outcomes and re-diagnosing learning needs. • Establishing a climate conducive of learning. • Formulating program objectives that will satisfy the students' needs. • Designing a pattern of learning experiences (experiential learning). • Creating a mechanism for mutual planning. • Conducting the learning experience with suitable and materials.	• Respects diverse talents and ways of learning. • Encourages communications between students and faculty. • Encourages cooperation among students. • Gives prompt feedback. • Encourages active learning techniques. • Emphasizes time on task. • Communicates high but reachable expectations.

Problem Statement

Universities serve a growing and dynamic array of students ranging from traditional students to nontraditional students. These students come from varied socioeconomic, ethnic, and

age groups. For most universities, undergraduate education has been dominated by traditional students aged 18-23. However, Ross-Gordon et al. (2007), found that in 2007, nearly 38% of all students enrolled in college in the United States were over the age of 25. Per the National Center for Educational Research (2015), 41% of all the students enrolled at four year universities were over the age of 25. Making the nontraditional student a growing minority in the demographic makeup of our college system.

To meet the growing number of nontraditional students that are and will be entering the classroom of these professors, they must evolve to adopt a more learner centered frame of mind and adapt to the changing education culture of the students in their charge. However, to achieve a more learner centered teaching practices, professors will need obtain a new toolbox to pull strategies and more appropriate practices to facilitate the learning of their students.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the principles and practices of award winning instructor's in the classroom. This study provides a perspective of what constitutes teaching expertise in a higher education classroom. This research identified instructor's attitudes towards andragogical and pedagogical practices in the classroom. It identified specific skills that were used to prepare lesson plans and courses. The study examined any correlations between the principals of Adult Education (Knowles, 1978) and the effective practices of Undergraduate Education (Chickering & Gamson, 1987).

The sample population included four teaching award winning professors at a university in the southeast United States. Data collection occurred with the following qualitative strategies – individual interviews, document analysis, and classroom observations. A literature review was conducted to gather preliminary data to gauge literature saturation of the topic in current and past

publications. Body of literature included literature on adult education, faculty development, andragogy and pedagogy, and student attitude on professor performance. These areas of focus provide a basis for the conceptual framework and provides a lens through which to view all data and literature.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

1. What are the professors' perceptions of andragogy and pedagogy in relation to student learning?
2. What main strategies do professors use to prepare lessons for student success and learning?
3. How do professors learn to develop competencies to meet the learning needs of students?
4. How does professors' preparation differ between Graduate and Undergraduate classes?
5. How has their philosophy of teaching changed over time in relation to teaching and student achievement?
6. What techniques are used for self-reflection after a class?

Conceptual Framework

The Conceptual Framework for this study draws on several particular streams of literature: experiential learning (Boud, 1994; Dewey 1933, 1938; Kolb & Kolb, 2005), self-directed learning (Candy; 1991; Knowles, 1975; Tough, 1971), reflection (Boud et al., 1985; Schön 1983), workplace learning (Argyris & Schön, 1978; Marsick, 1988; Watkins & Marsick, 1996) , teaching principles and practices (Chickering & Gamson, 1987; Knowles, 1973), and teaching approaches (Grasha, 1996; Heacox, 2002; Tomlinson, 1999).

At the core of the study is teaching competence. Per Shulman (1988), expert teachers

gain competency through experience. By teaching subject matter to different students over time, reflecting on what worked and what did not, and modifying their practice based on the envisioned results. In debating good teaching practice, Shulman (1987) suggested that examining "the principles of good practice" can help collect expert teachers' wisdom of practice as "a significant source for teaching standards" (p. 232). He also claims that by studying the practices of expert teachers and "making them work in theory" that "good teaching" (p. 233) can be defined, described, and reproduced. Furthermore, Shulman (1987) stresses that it is important to record, organize and collect both the thinking and practice or the "reasoning and actions of gifted teachers" (p. 233) to develop principles of good teaching. The literature on reflection, learning through experience, and informal and workplace learning helped inform these aspects of the study.

Qualitative data analysis is aimed at “bringing order, structure, and interpretation to the mass of collected data” (Marshall & Rossman, 2006, p. 154). The analysis for this study began with the development of the conceptual framework (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The framework shown below served as the basis for the coding schema. The following coding schema was developed: average age, changes in philosophy, current practices, description of student maturity, description of undergraduate and graduate students, difference of between undergraduate and graduate, what they need to know about the students, what they need to know to teach at the university, where they learn how to teach, philosophy of education, self-reflection process, technology as a hindrance, how to define the term of adult, things that have hindered development, and things that have helped development.

Figure 1 below depicts the Conceptual Framework for the study. The learning needs of students was expected to be the primary driver of both the Teaching Approaches and the

Teaching Competencies as explored in the study. There is also an interplay between Competency and Approach to such an extent as Competency is expressed through an Approach to teaching. The Principles and Practices outlined in the study also inform, and are in-turn informed by, Competencies. Similarly, Teaching Approaches are informed by one's Academic Discipline. As the figure also indicates, the ways in which faculty themselves learn to develop competency are dictated by a numerous factor. In this grounded theory, Academic Discipline and their application (whether knowingly, or incidentally) of the Principles and Practices for which they were awarded were major influences. Finally, the factors that support and hinder faculty development play an integral part in the continuing faculty development of university faculty.

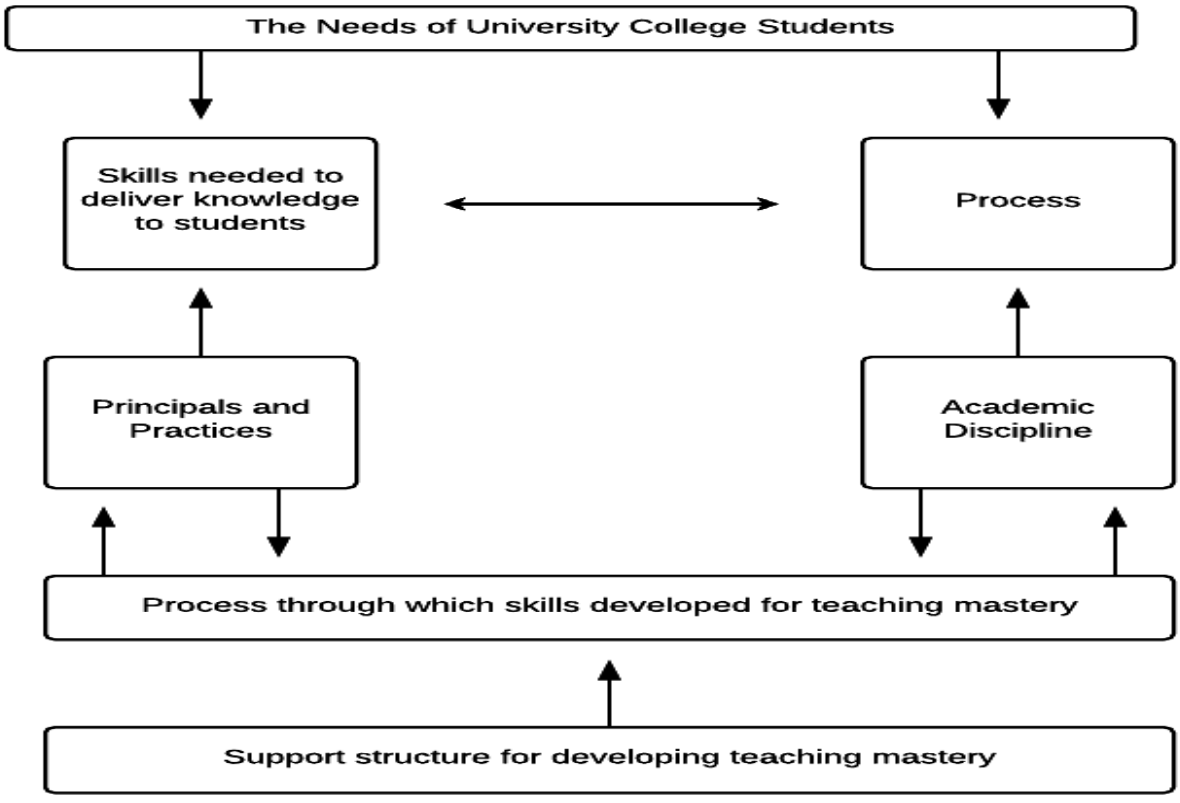

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Significance of Study

The significance of this study is one that aims to answer what makes someone a connoisseur of college education techniques of outstanding and award winning professors. Also, to understand the active and passive practices of these educators presented in this grounded theory, while gaining in depth knowledge of best practices and competencies gathered from literature, the researcher hoped to establish recommendations that align themselves with informal and formal learning approaches.

With these established best practices, one can adopt proven practices to better arm themselves for teaching in higher education. Whether one is teaching at a university, technical school, or major research university, future professors can use the knowledge gained from this study to modify lesson development and teaching practices. If armed with proven strategies, new faculty members can enter their classes with confidence. That they can manage a classroom of students, provide them with quality learning activities, and develop a rapport with their students that will only benefit them as instructors and benefit their students. Thus, these students may benefit from instruction that differentiates itself from traditional K-12 instruction techniques.

Researcher Assumptions

The researcher held multiple assumptions while conducting this research. First, each professor has their own individual teaching style. These styles developed over time and has lent to their success as professional educators. Their approaches to teaching will also be different, the varied background of the professors studied will have aided them in developing their teaching identity and approach. However, even with these differences in style and approach, they will not be dissimilar in the terms of the principals and practices that they have applied in their teaching.

Second, the criteria, principals, and practices espoused by Malcolm Knowles (1973), Chickering and Gamson (1987), and the Troy University Faculty Senate Excellence Award are closely related by the individual criterion, principals, and practices that translate into a connoisseurship of teaching at the University level.

Definitions

Competency – "a cluster of related knowledge, skills, and attitudes that affect a major part of one's job (a role or responsibility), that correlates with performance on the job, that can be measured against well accepted standards, and can be improved via training and development" (Parry, 1996, p. 50).

Connoisseurship - Connoisseurship is the art of appreciation. It can be displayed in any realm in which the character, importance, or value of objects, situations, and performances id distributed and variable, including educational practice. (Eisner,1998)

Nontraditional Student –Nontraditional students are individuals that are 25 years of age or older. (College Documents, 2016)

Traditional Student – Traditional students are individuals that are 18-24 years of age (College Documents, 2016)

Pedagogy – The art and science of teaching. Specifically, students in elementary and secondary education (Knowles, 1973)

Andragogy – The art and science of teaching adults. (Knowles, 1973)

Self-directed learning – learning that is planned and initiated by the individual (Tough,1971)

Chapter II: Literature Review

Introduction

The literature review that follows covers three main areas: The American University, Adult Learning Theory, and Teaching Principles and Practices. The literature chosen for this study was chosen with a specific ideology in mind. To frame and convey the context of this study, the researcher reviewed the literature related to American Universities. The history and mission of American University, where these institutions are situated within the education system of the United States, the population served by these universities, and the faculty were all examined. Adult learning theory was reviewed. The researcher focused on andragogy, pedagogy, experiential learning (including reflection), self-directed learning, formal and informal learning, and adult development. Finally, the researcher reviewed the literature related to teaching at the American University, teaching at the undergraduate level, widely accepted teaching principles, and best practices particular to higher education.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the principles and practices of award winning instructor's in the classroom. This study provides a perspective of what constitutes teaching expertise in a higher education classroom. This research identified instructor's attitudes towards andragogical and pedagogical practices in the classroom. It identified specific skills that were used to prepare lesson plans and courses. The study examined any correlations between the principals of Adult Education (Knowles, 1978) and the effective practices of Undergraduate Education (Chickering & Gamson, 1987).

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Research Questions

In order to provide answers for the purpose of this study, the researcher focused on the following research questions:

1. What are the professors' perceptions of andragogy and pedagogy in relation to student learning?
2. What main strategies do professors use to prepare lessons for student success and learning?
3. How do professors learn to develop competencies to meet the learning needs of students?
4. How does professors' preparation differ between Graduate and Undergraduate classes?
5. How has their philosophy of teaching changed over time in relation to teaching and student achievement?
6. What techniques are used for self-reflection after a class?

The History of the American University

Colonial Era

The American University has had a long and illustrious history. In 1636, Harvard University was founded 16 years after the landing of the Mayflower at Cape Cod in what would later become Massachusetts (Archibald, 2002). By the beginning of the Revolutionary War, there were nine degree-granting colleges charted in the colonies, considering England was wealthier and had a larger population only had Cambridge and Oxford to educate her students (Trow 1988). The universities that dotted the lands in the colonies were modeled after Cambridge and Oxford, which often required religious affiliations.

The main mission of these colleges tried to push their students toward spiritual studies, "in line with the spirit of religious traditions" (pg. 32) that came was set in colonial America's early years in addition to the beliefs of these institutions founders (Brickman, 1972). During that time a college education was exclusive. Without direct financing from England, the costs of operating these institutions made the price of tuition so high that a large portion of the population of the colonies ineligible to attend. Regardless, these institutions laid the foundation of the current system of higher education in America by providing a wide array of options to citizens. However, during colonial America, this array was more available to wealthy white men. These men would later go on and become members of the clergy (Archibald, 2002). Though the enrollment was small during the war, these men were among the prominent leaders in both religious and political areas. These men also passed down their knowledge as the new generation of educators in America.

Table 2

Chartered degree-granting Colleges before the Revolutionary War

Institution	Location	Founded	Religious Affiliation
Harvard	Massachusetts Bay Colony	1636	Puritan
College of William and Mary	Colony of Virginia	1693	Church of England
Collegiate School (later became Yale)	Connecticut Colony	1701	Puritan
College of New Jersey (Princeton)	Province of New Jersey	1746	Presbyterian
King's College (Columbia)	Province of New York	1754	Church of England
Academy of Philadelphia (University of Philadelphia)	Province of Pennsylvania	1755	Church of England
College of Rhode Island (Brown)	Colony of Rhode Island and Province Plantations	1755	Baptist
Queen's College (Rutgers)	Province of New Jersey	1766	Dutch Reformed
Dartmouth	Province of New Hampshire	1769	Puritan

Jefferson and the Morrill Land Act

It was not until Jefferson, who believed education through scientific exploration instead of religious teachings and indoctrinations, challenged the established university system which were largely religious based. Jefferson also spoke in favor of the lecture method, the elective system, that was free from a religious affiliation that would be adopted by expanding the network of colleges across the growing United States. At the core of Jefferson's belief, was, that education should reinforce republican politics by teaching its citizen and leaders their rights and responsibilities (Addis, 2003)

Jefferson had even spoke in favor of a central university. It would sit at the top of the educational system that promoted a more natural order. This idea took shape in Jefferson's Bill for the More General Diffusion of Knowledge in 1779 and surfaced again in later dissertations and academic writings. The chartering of the University of Virginia in 1819 and its opening in 1825 allowed some of Jefferson's ideas to come into practice. However, with the population of the largely excluded, the slave state of Virginia was not an ideal a model for Jefferson's vision to reach many people. Sectionalism and religious opposition was the prevailing obstacles in the political atmosphere. An important bill was passed during the Civil War was a serious condition leading to a resurgence of Jeffersonian ideals during Reconstruction after the Civil War (Addis, 2003).

Mark R. Nemec recognizes several influences to support the emergence of the American University [and] the expansion of the American national state, and beginnings of the Morrill Land Act of 1862 (Nemec, 2006). The idea of Vermont Senator Justin Morrill was to set up agricultural universities, which was needed after the secession of the southern states, and with the aid of Ohio Senator Benjamin F. Wade encouraged President Lincoln to sign and pass the

bill. Over the years thru modification, 69 universities were established and several with private support, and some institutions were set up for agricultural education (Archibald, 2002). What the Morrill Act achieved was the coordination and entrepreneurship that would be essential for the formation of research universities and laid the foundation of the rapid growth of American higher education. Due to the expanding roles of colleges and universities, existing institutions had to expand their existing science and technology programs, incorporate new colleges and disciplines into their universities. By expanding their educational programs from established agricultural colleges, some universities created a revenue stream from the land grants combined with federal funding and private donations and endowments. For example, philanthropist Ezra Cornell and Andrew Dickson White both worked to establish Cornell University and other public universities, as well as to support private universities (Nemec, 2006).

Due to the financial strain on the economy following the First World War, many colleges and universities were financially crippled and thus there was a period of decline in the number of universities and colleges. Despite this however, the modern research university developed during the period, due to the influence of such men such as Ralph Waldo Emerson and Charles W. Eliot. Mr. Eliot followed in Jefferson's footsteps by developing a foster elective system in education. He also grounded the aristocracy in merit and the competitive excellence of working towards and earning a degree through advancing a person's education. This lead to the ideal that democracy promoted an aristocracy that was based on talent, merit, and education: The Jeffersonian meritocracy. Following the ideals of Jeffersonian meritocracy, Eliot pushed for universities to start giving entrance examinations as a basis for admissions (Newfield, 2003). Thus, this thinking aided in the requirement of a high school diploma to enter college. This, in turn, lead to an increase of requiring college degrees for gainful employment (Lazerson, 1998). With the

country in a period of post-war prosperity and with a renewed perspective on higher education caused university and college attendance to nearly double between 1920 and 1930 (Archibald, 2002) while conferred degrees increased from 53,000 to nearly 140,000 (NCES, 2008). The next significant jump in enrollment would not occur until after the Second World War.

The GI Bill and The United States' Golden Age of Higher Education

Following the Second World War, another amendment to the Servicemen's Readjustment Act or the GI Bill took place. The GI Bill provides a federal fund to cover the cost of a full-time attendance at a college or university for up to three years. This provided an education to many of World War II veterans attending college and helped them earn degrees with deferred compensation from the government. There were 4.4 million of the 15 million veterans that participated in the GI Bill went on to college or University (Archibald, 2002). An unforeseen effect of the opportunity the GI Bill created was that many people who could not have considered going to college, higher education was now a possibility, this also became a sort of licensing agency for middle class Americans who wanted to enter the professions (Lazerson, 1998).

A side effect of the GI Bill was a widening of the racial gap as opportunities were much fewer for African Americans in a post WWII United States, due to restrictive Jim Crow laws in the pre-Civil Rights era in American history. This was particularly true and prevalent in the South. ("How the GI Bill Widened the Racial Higher Education Gap", 2003).

Recently, though, America's attempt at diversifying the workforce, reports that obtaining college degrees has helped African Americans narrow the educational and economical gap with Caucasians ("Possession of a Four-Year College Degree Brings Blacks Close to Economic Parity with Whites", 2004). Despite the social/economical advancements, Women remain lower paid,

even as the number of degrees conferred to women will surpass the amount of degrees conferred to men (NCES, 2008).

Because of growing need for higher education in the first half of the twentieth century; the college degree gained in popularity that remains consistent today, also several programs were developed on the federal level aided in increasing enrollment through grants and federal student loans. The National Defense Education Act of 1958, was the government's idea that America needed more graduates with degrees in science and engineering as a direct result of the development of *Sputnik* space craft by the Soviet Union in 1957(Archibald, 2002).

Despite funding and optimism, in the 1970s and 80s, the economic recession affected the cost of higher education by making the cost higher. In the last two decades, inflation carried the cost of higher education to record highs. Yet parents and students continue to sacrifice to enroll in college, often collecting massive debt because of complex student loans. Consequently, between 1950 and 1990, the number of colleges and universities nearly doubled, from 1,851 to 3,535, and state and federal spending on higher education has increased exponentially. Higher education may be most successful industry of postwar America (Lazerson, 1998). Status, students, and a positive future helped fuel the drive to expand resources and facilities and build stronger institutions during this golden age of expansion of the American college and university system.

The Twenty-First Century Campus

The Internet has revolutionized higher education and spear headed the distance education agenda, it also helped to correct some of the disadvantages of mail order education programs that were popular early in the twentieth century. Collaborating with companies and commercial internet service providers, companies like America Online and Onlinelearning.net, and

universities were attempting to develop quality learning experiences in distance education. David F. Noble (Noble, 2002) proposes the absence of true social communication has already seen high dropout rates. In despite Noble's proposition, enrollment at the nation's largest online campus, the University of Phoenix, is twice that of the next largest universities, such as Miami-Dade College in Florida and Arizona State University in Tempe. While degree-earning, programs are available online, academic programs and professors have extensively implemented the internet as an additional instructional tool outside of the classroom.

Online education has its roots grounded at the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA), from the launch of its "Instructional Enhancement Initiative" in 1997 that required several programs to have informational websites. This initiative was the first implementation of mandatory "computer telecommunications technology in the delivery of higher education" (Noble, 2002). Efforts to put the world's vast archives into digital form have been supported by universities, this resulted in an online information learning experience that assimilates the world's knowledge into a seemingly all-inclusive online network. The vast network of libraries and universities has placed virtual information technology in the spotlight in the classroom to the extent that professors find themselves providing and defining research expectations in their course syllabi, taking in consideration the temptation of the "Google search" method of acquiring information. Degrees have become available from an ever-increasing number of sources, both physical campuses and virtual for profit campuses.

The increasing concern over the prospect of the "automation of higher education" may have been somewhat lessened by enhancements in the kinds of technology available and used in online education, as well as the renewed commitments from educators and administrators to continue conducting high-quality research and teaching on their respective campuses. An early

supporter in keeping public funding close to the physical campus in the onset of the new digital age was former University of Utah president, J. Bernard Machen. In his inaugural address of 1998, he stated that it is in the university campus classroom that students are allowed "the broader, more interactive" experience where "spontaneous debate, discussion, and exchange of ideas… [Which] are essential in developing the mind occurs" (Noble 2002). To be sure, the nation's campuses continue to lure students seeking college degrees and, taken all together, the number of students relying upon online sources for their degree's pales in comparison.

Today, America's colleges and universities are defined by their diversity, and insistence on equal opportunity abounds, but more over American colleges and universities are in a constant arms race to recruit the best students to their university. This arms race has brought forth a race to build the latest and greatest in accommodations for students. Due to these reasons the American system has something to offer to virtually everyone, to some extent now "without having to show evidence of academic talent or qualifications" (Trow 1988). These feelings of distinction and of accessibility has roots in colonial America despite the extreme degree of exclusivity in the colonial universities. Nevertheless, the early evolution of higher education laid the foundations for the system that gradually emerged and distinguished itself from virtually every other system in the world.

Andragogy vs Pedagogy

Andragogy and Pedagogy are both theories of education that have their usefulness. According to Knowles (1973) pedagogy is defined as the art and science of teaching children. Pedagogy comes from the same root as pediatrics. The Greek work "paid," meaning child and "agogus" meaning leader of. Andragogy comes from the root word "aner," meaning man. Andragogy has been used in Europe since the 1830's. The teaching of adults verses children is

fundamentally different. In a study by Usman (2015), identifies key differences between Pedagogy and Andragogy. These differences are regards to the learner, their role in the learning experience, readiness to learn, how they orientate to learning, and their motivations.

Table 3

Differences between Pedagogy and Andragogy

	Pedagogical	Andragogical
The Learner	The learner is dependent upon the instructor. The instructor assumes responsibility for content. Instructor evaluates learning.	Learner is self-directed. Learner is responsible for own learning. Learner is self-evaluating.
Role of the Learner's Experience	Learner brings little experience. Experience of the instructor is influential.	Learner brings a greater wealth of experience. Adults are a resource to one another. Different experiences assure diversity. Experience is a source of identity.
Readiness to Learn	Learners are told what they need to learn.	Change is likely to enact readiness to learn Need to know to perform effectively in relation to one's life. Ability to assess gaps in learning.
Orientation to Learning	Learning is acquiring a prescribed subject matter. Content is organized logically to subject matter.	Learners want to perform tasks Learning must be related to real life Learning is organized around life/work situations.
Motivation for Learning	Motivated by external motivators.	Motivated by internal motivators.

Historical Roots of Adult Learning Principles

Since the mid-1970s, adult learning theory has offered a way and philosophy for educators and trainers who train and educate adults. Malcolm S. Knowles (1973) was among the first supporters of this teaching ideology. In his book, *The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species*, he returned to the word "andragogy", a term that was well known in German education circles in the early 1800s, and utilized it to label his unified theory of adult learning. Knowles' contentions were based on four fundamental principles:

1. As they mature, adults tend to prefer self-direction. The role of the instructor is to engage in a process of inquiry, analysis, and decision-making with adult learners, rather than to transmit knowledge.
2. Adults' experiences are a rich resource for learning. Active participation in planned experiences—such as discussions or problem solving exercises, an analysis of those experiences, and their application to work or life situations—should be the core methodology for training adults. Adults learn and retain information more easily if they can relate it to their reservoir of past experiences.
3. Adults are aware of specific learning needs generated by real-life events such as marriage, divorce, parenting, taking a new job, losing a job, and so on. Adult learners' needs and interests are the starting points and serve as guideposts for training activities.
4. Adults are competency-based learners, meaning that they want to learn a skill or acquire knowledge that they can apply pragmatically to their immediate circumstances. Life or work-related situations present a more appropriate framework for adult learning than academic or theoretical approaches. (Knowles 1973)

Robert W. Pike (1989), a well-respected expert in human resources development and training, who wrote the book *Creative Training Techniques*, conducted thousands of adult training seminars. From his experiences, he developed his own principles of adult learning, he referred to them as Pike's Laws of Adult Learning. These laws have built upon the original philosophy developed by Knowles to provide similar guidance for trainers:

Law 1: Adults are babies with big bodies:

It is accepted that babies enjoy learning through experience, because every exploration is a new experience. As children grow, educators traditionally reduce the amount of learning through experience to the point that few courses in secondary and higher education devote significant time to experiential education. It is now recognized that adult learning is enhanced by hands-on experience that involves adults in the learning process. In addition, adults bring a wealth of experience that must be acknowledged and respected in the training setting.

Law 2: People do not argue with their own data:

Succinctly put, people are more likely to believe something fervently if they arrive at the idea themselves. Thus, when training adults, presenting structured activities that generate the students' ideas, concepts, or techniques will facilitate learning more effectively than simply giving adults information to remember.

Law 3: Learning is directly proportional to the amount of fun you are having:

Humor is an important tool for coping with stress and anxiety, and can be effective in promoting a comfortable learning environment. If you are involved in the learning process and understand how it will enable you to do your job or other chosen task better, you can experience the sheer joy of learning.

Law 4: Learning has not taken place until behavior has changed:

It is not *what you know*, but *what you do* that counts. The ability to apply new material is a good measure of whether learning has taken place. Experiences that provide an opportunity for successfully practicing a new skill will increase the likelihood of retention and on-the-job application. (Pike 1989)

One can see by looking at both ideologies of Pike and Knowles, the core beliefs were very similar. These commonalities, shared by the principals set forth by both Pike and Knowles gave the foundation of Adult Learning. By recognizing that the standard of pedagogy, the art and science of teaching children, did not apply to most adults and a new approach needed to be adopted, they set forth the modern adult education movement. Below is a table of how Knowles' and Pike's principles and laws measure up.

Table 4

Comparison between Knowles' Principals of Adult Learning and Pike's Laws of Adult Learning

Knowles' Principles of Adult Learning (Knowles 1973)	Pike's Laws of Adult Learning (Pike, 1989)
• As they mature, adults tend to prefer self-direction. The role of the instructor is to engage in a process of inquiry, analysis, and decision-making with adult learners, rather than to transmit knowledge.	• It is accepted that babies enjoy learning through experience, because every exploration is a new experience. As children grow, educators traditionally reduce the amount of learning through experience to the point that few courses in secondary and higher education devote significant time to experiential education. It is now recognized that adult learning is enhanced by hands-on experience that involves adults in the learning process. In addition, adults bring a wealth of experience that must be acknowledged and respected in the training setting.
• Adults' experiences are a rich resource for learning. Active participation in	• Succinctly put, people are more likely to believe something fervently if they

planned experiences—such as discussions or problem solving exercises, an analysis of those experiences, and their application to work or life situations—should be the core methodology for training adults. Adults learn and retain information more easily if they can relate it to their reservoir of past experiences.

- Adults are aware of specific learning needs generated by real-life events such as marriage, divorce, parenting, taking a new job, losing a job, and so on. Adult learners' needs and interests are the starting points and serve as guideposts for training activities.

- Adults are competency-based learners, meaning that they want to learn a skill or acquire knowledge that they can apply pragmatically to their immediate circumstances. Life or work-related situations present a more appropriate framework for adult learning than academic or theoretical approaches.

arrive at the idea themselves. Thus, when training adults, presenting structured activities that generate the students' ideas, concepts, or techniques will facilitate learning more effectively than simply giving adults information to remember.

- Humor is an important tool for coping with stress and anxiety, and can be effective in promoting a comfortable learning environment. If you are involved in the learning process and understand how it will enable you to do your job or other chosen task better, you can experience the sheer joy of learning.
- It is not *what you know*, but *what you do* that counts. The ability to apply new material is a good measure of whether learning has taken place. Experiences that provide an opportunity for successfully practicing a new skill will increase the likelihood of retention and on-the-job application.

Knowles' ideology may have influenced Pike's own theory. Both Knowles' and Pike's work contended that since adult learners where fundamentally different from children, that the strategies needed to teach them should be different as well. In the 1940s, Irving Lorge voiced his concern about the way adult learners were being taught. He realized that adult learners have different motivations. Adult learners have certain wants. He furthered his theory by categorizing the wants of adult learners. Adult learners want: to gain something, to be something, to do something, and to save something. From these wants the base of adult learner theory was developed. During the same time that Lorge was working on his theories, Eduard Lindeman,

theorized that adult learner's process information more efficiently when they are actively involved in determining what, how, and when they learn. Since that time, multiple authors and researchers have taken up the topic of adult learning theory and have expanded its meaning and its techniques to provide educators a broader array of tools to best instruct the students in which they serve.

Andragogy has not come out of the debates unscathed from critics (Merriam, 2001; Pratt, 1993). Pratt (1993) suggested, while andragogy may have contributed to our understanding of adults as learners, it has done little to expand or clarify our understanding of the process of learning, Pratt also states that it has not achieved the status of a "theory of adult learning" (p. 21). Much of the foundational work in adult education serves as a push for further exploration and should not to be necessarily comprehensive in scope. Merriam (2001) reminds us that "it is as a guide to practice that andragogy has had its biggest impact" (p. 8).

In respect to andragogy, it has helped to establish the study of adult learning and, serves as an appropriate platform to further exploration of the adult learning literature. Though adult learning theory was significant it needed some building up from different existing learning strategies to give it momentum and to build credibility among scholars.

Experiential Learning

There are many of models of Experiential Learning (EL). Kolb and Kolb (2005) help to summarize EL by setting six guiding principles for experiential learning that emerged from the analysis of various models. Among these parameters are:

1. Learning should be a process and not in terms of outcomes.
2. Learning requires a dialectic process.
3. Learners must navigate reflection action, feeling, and thinking.

4. Learning is constructivist in nature.

In 1938, Dewey boldly claimed that "all genuine education comes about through experience" (p. 25) and continued by writing that not all experiences are "genuinely or equally educative" (p. 25). This gave a definitive connection between learning and experience. Just as important is that learning occurs within a frame of context and the result of interaction with the environment one is in. Dewey described experiential learning as a continuous series of repetitions in an evaluation process, starting with an action, followed by the observation of the action outcome. This process brings forth new knowledge, which results value laden judgments concerning the actions to be taken next. These judgements are made from events and actions that has transpired and the knowledge that has been gained from the previous action. These judgments inform the next impulse or action, and the cycle repeats itself, continuing throughout the life of the individual (Dewey, 1938).

Boud (1994), on the other hand, describes the experiential learning process as involving preparation, experience, and reflection. Preparation for learning focuses on the *milieu* or one's own environment, the individual learner, and the pre-learned skills the learner brings to the experience at hand. Experience (within the milieu) involves noticing what is happening in and around oneself, intervening in the milieu, and engaging in reflection-in-action. Reflection involves returning to the experience, attending to one's feelings, and a subsequent re-evaluation of experience (Boud, Keogh, & Walker, 1985).

Kolb and Fry (1975) argues that effective learning involves four different abilities:

1.Concrete experience abilities

2.Reflective observation abilities

3.Abstract conceptualization abilities

4.Active experimentation abilities.

Kolb (1984), building on Lewin, Dewey, and Piaget, suggested the use of concrete experience to test ideas and direct feedback to change future actions. He also emphasized the nature of the cognitive processes and an appreciation of cognitive development. From this framework, Kolb (1984) developed a framework for fostering of experiential learning. Per this framework, these four elements form a repetitious spiral to show that learning has taken place, this process includes: Concrete Experience, Reflective Observation, Abstract Conceptualization, and Active Experimentation

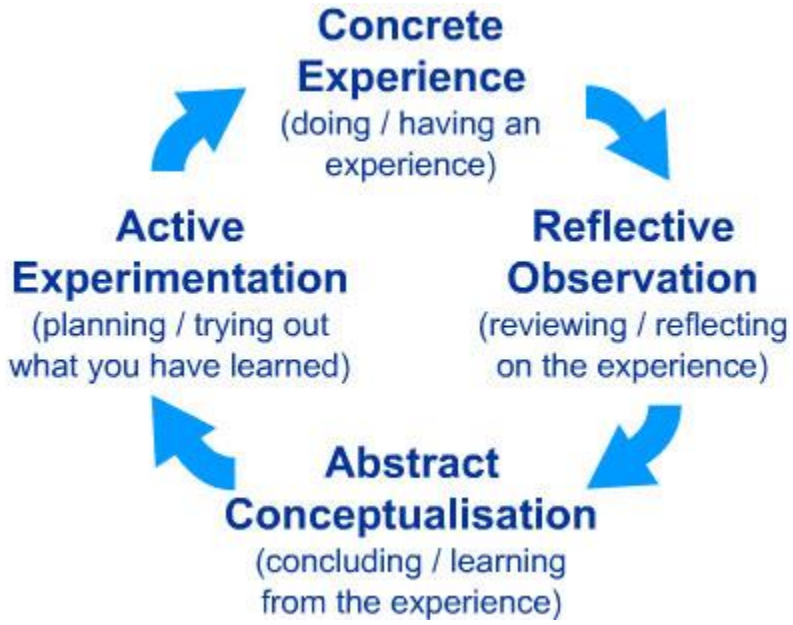

Figure 2: Kolb's Framework for Experiential Learning
(Kolb, 1984)

Kolb's framework is not without its critics. Jarvis (1987) proposed that the more experience one has, the more likely they will gravitate towards the familiar and not towards new learning, and thus not develop new learning experiences. Jarvis continues by saying that since Kolb approaches knowledge from a social psychology perspective and does not take philosophy and social theory into account, Kolb therefore does not acknowledge different ways of knowing.

Jarvis also felt the research base for Kolb's model was too small to give an accurate base line in the findings to show anything conclusive. Heron (1992) joined with Jarvis in saying that Kolb's explanation of the learning cycle was unreliable due to not being inclusive of other important factors, namely learning and behavioral. Others have indicated that Kolb's model does not include: include attention to reflection (Boud & Walker, 1993) and does not address cultural differences (Anderson, 1988).

Barnett (1989) sought to make Kolb's learning cycle more user friendly. Barnett's new model added a fifth component to Kolb's model, "Planning for Implementation." He included this between abstract conceptualization and active experimentation. Planning for Implementation suggested the ability to problem solve and make decisions, thus allowing time to design a specific course of action. Which they carry out in the active Experimentation phase.

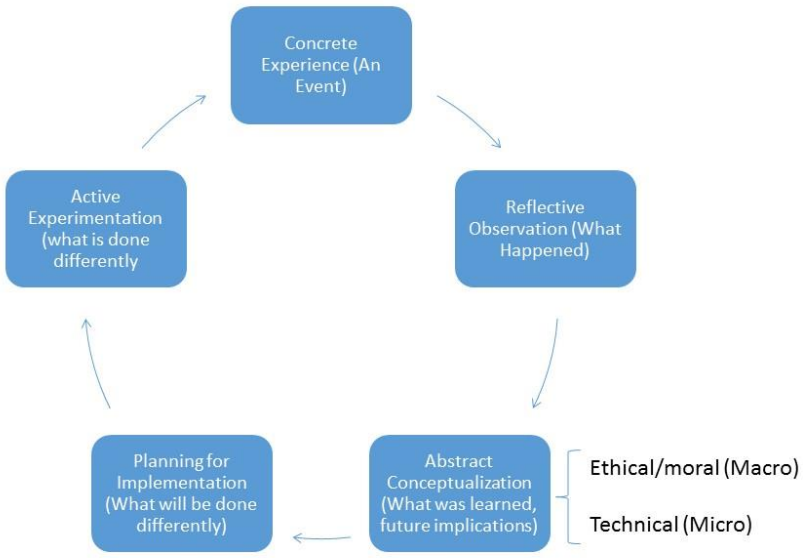

Figure 2: A Model of Reflective Thought and Action
Barnett, 1989, p.4

Dirkx and Lavin (2007) suggested a "Four-thought" model of experience-based learning. This model scaffolds upon other models for experiential learning and it also includes four different components—trial and error, rationality/reflection, creative expression, and discernment. These components attempt to mix different models of experiential learning together into one solid model. Trial and error, which could be considered haphazard, unplanned, and emphasizes utility and the instrumental, seems to be the least conducive to workings of the four. Rationality/Reflection suggested that opportunities for reflection guides learners on how to take a subject and make it an object for more purposeful reflection. Discernment, per the researchers, can take place through "journaling of and dialoguing with dreams and meditation" (Dirkx & Lavin, 2007). Pursuit of these activities could allow learners to discover a more meaningful message in their experiences, thus leading to the possibility of making important connections and developing critical thinking skills. Experiential Learning involves helping adults "understand and discern the symbolic meaning that particular outer events hold for their inner lives" (p. 5). Therefore, there is not as much concern with cognitive understanding or being able to intellectually articulate such knowing, as it is about affecting the learner's "habits of being" (p. 189). One model of experiential learning seems to deviate from the others. Usher, Bryant, and Johnston (1997) constructed a Map of Experiential Learning in the Social Practices of Modernity. Learning, they theorize, is not necessarily an outcome of experience, but rather that learning and experience are interactively related. Their model recognizes the fluid nature of recall and the fact that past experiences are reevaluated with different lenses over time (Merriam et al., 2007).

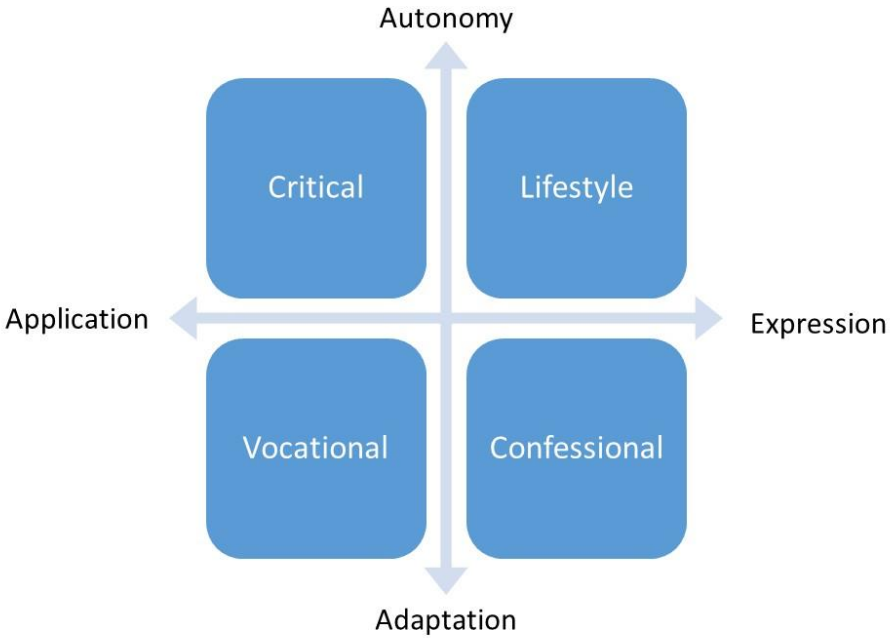

Figure 3: Map of Experiential Learning in the Social Practices of Modernity
Usher, Bryant, and Johnston, 1997, p. 106

Marsick and Watkins (1990) defined learning from experience as "the way in which people make sense of situations they encounter in their daily lives" (p. 15). Marsick (1988) pointed out that the process of reflection is an important element of experiential learning. Several other researchers (Argyris, 1985; Boud et al., 1985; Kolb, 1984; Schön, 1983,) highlight the importance of reflection in the learning process. Jarvis (1982), however, suggested that some experiential learning is not reflective. The importance of this Jarvis's theory is not so much that learning can occur through experience in association with reflection or without it. Rather, it demonstrates the socially, culturally, and physically embedded nature of our *experiences* and that knowledge is intrinsically linked to the social, cultural, and physical setting.

Thus, although reflection outside of practice may have benefits, it also challenges our ability to separate our knowledge from the environment, which is an important part of it and of which it is a part of the experience. Experiential learning focuses on how the learner perceives

their experiences and how their mental processes construct that experience reflects on the learner, instead of what happened. The experience is a felt encounter between the person and their world, rather than an object for reflection (Dirkx & Lavin, 2007; Yorks & Kasl, 2002).

Self-Directed Learning

In recent years, student oriented teaching has gained support and momentum in higher education (Eble & McKeachie, 1986; Gardiner, 2005; Grant, 2004). The literature on self-directed learning has relevance to both faculty and student learning for purposes of this study. According to Outcalt (2000), "the increasingly diverse student population in universities (especially the growing presence of adult learners) makes self-directed learning increasingly appropriate as a way of meeting some students' educational needs" (p. 5).

Tough (1971) defined self-directed learning as learning that is planned and initiated by the individual, while Candy (1991) refers to this as *Autodidaxy* and describes it at a type of self-directed learning which happens outside formal settings. According to Knowles (1975), self-directed learning is "the process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes" (p. 18). Self-directed learning, by others, is "A natural part of adult life" (Merriam et al., 2007, p. 110). Candy (1991) suggested that self-directed learning was the functional model of learning in the earliest human—creating fire and inventing the wheel, for example—occurred without the guidance of a teacher (at least in the formal, Western sense). Socrates pointed out that the purpose of formal education was to teach individuals think for themselves and then pursue knowledge independently. In Colonial America, socioeconomic

conditions caused adults to pursue independent learning through oral traditions, almanacs, newspapers, and other means (Brockett & Hiemstra, 1991).

Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) defined self-directed learning as a "learning activity that is self-directed, self-initiated, and frequently carried out alone" (p. 24) and as "activities where primary responsibility for planning, carrying out, and evaluating a learning endeavor is assumed by the individual learner" (p. 24). Deci and Ryan (2000) suggested that only learning endeavors that are undertaken as the result of internal (e.g., not externally coerced) motivation can be considered truly self-directed. Merriam et al. (2007) provided an overview of the theory and noted that self-directed learning is often considered in three different ways: as a goal; as a process; and as an attribute of the learner. The theoretical adaptation of self-directed learning could be framed in terms of three underlying goals: "to enhance the ability of adult learners to be self-directed in their learning … to foster transformational learning … and to promote emancipatory learning and social action" (p. 107).

Depending on the philosophical orientation of the instructor, the goals of self-directed leaning vary. Instructors who are grounded in a humanistic philosophy have suggested that self-directed learning should have as its goal the learner's capacity to be self-directed. Knowles and Tough wrote from this idea as do Brockett and Hiemstra (1991). In their Personal Responsibility Orientation (PRO) model of self-directed learning, human nature that is "basically good. . . accepting responsibility for one's own learning" and being proactive drive their model (p. 26).

The second goal of self-directed learning, to foster transformative learning, suggested that critical reflection is crucial to self-direction and directly flows from the first goal of self-directed learning. Mezirow (1985) suggested that to become more autonomous, the learner must understand the historic and cultural reasons for their wants, needs, interests, and that "such self-

knowledge is a prerequisite for autonomy" (p. 27). In addition, he also suggested that self-directed learners are not truly self-directed, but they participate in learning events that allow them to compare their own personal ideas against those of others and modify their personal ideas independently.

The third goal, the promotion of emancipatory learning and social action, is founded on the critique that self-directed learning is firstly aimed at instrumental learning and individual learners (Merriam et al., 2007). It suggested that learners must examine the social and political assumptions through which they learn. Per Brookfield (1993), "any authentic exercise of self-directedness requires certain political conditions be in place" (p. 227). This allows adult learners to exercise some control over all the educational decisions and gain access to the related resources they need.

There are several models of self-directed learning. Merriam et al. (2007) listed three main types—linear, interactive, and instructional. Early linear models by Tough (1971) and Knowles (1975) defined a step-by-step process through which adults learn autonomously. Knowles's model outlines six main steps in the process, starting with climate setting and ending with the evaluation of learning outcomes. However, the interactive models counter that the process is not as methodical as these linear models suggest. Spears (1988) sets out a model that stresses the conditions in which self-directed learning takes place. He suggested that opportunities, past or new knowledge, and chance occurrences interact together to provide the foundation for self-directed learning projects and that any self-directed learning occurs as the result of the interplay between one/or more of these factors.

Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) developed the Personal Responsibility Orientation or "PRO" model, in which they describe two different dimensions: instructional methods and the

personal characteristics of the learner. Self-directed learning is the method, although the learning is assumed to be autonomous, there is a role for facilitators of education in this dimension. In the second dimension, it describes the learner's penchant for assuming responsibility for their own learning. While these two dimensions' help describe the process of self-directed learning, the learners also acknowledge the influence that the learning context can have on the process. Garrison (1997) suggested another interactive model, which depicts three dimensions. Learners have varying levels of self-management or control over their circumstances that allow them to pursue learning. They also must have a degree of self-monitoring or responsibility, and a measure of motivation to be successful self-directed learners. Because of his inquiry, he suggested that further research on self-monitoring and motivation is needed.

Among the instructional models of self-directed learning, those published by Grow (1991) and Hammond and Collins (1991), are all noteworthy within their own right. In his staged self-directed learning (self-directed learning) model, Grow (1991) suggested that individuals move through four independent stages of learning, with each growing more autonomous as they move through the levels. The role of the teacher changes in each stage, moving from a perception of the teacher as an expert to the final step in which the instructor is a "delegator" (p. 143). Hammond and Collins (1991) suggested that instructors play an important role in cultivating self-directed learning, with the primary goal of promoting emancipatory learning. Knowles (1980) and Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) views the idea of self-directed learning primarily as a personal characteristic as opposed to a learning process. Other authors have spent great effort in defining the terms "self," "self-direction," "autonomy," etc. When looking at self-directed learning as an attribute of the learner, Candy (1991) attempts to arrive at a broad description of autonomy and suggested that an individual is autonomous if he or she:

- Conceives of goals and plans
- Exercises freedom of choice
- Uses the capacity for rational reflection
- Has will power to follow through
- Exercises self-restraint and self-discipline
- Views himself or herself as autonomous. (p. 109)

When Knowles (1975, 1980) introduced the US to the term *andragogy*, he presented the concept of self-direction as an important attribute of adult learners. He suggested that adult learners prefer to be self-directed regardless of the setting and that, as adults mature, they become increasingly self-directed. This implies that, as adults, college faculty members are autonomous, self- managing, and self-directed learners themselves (Cranton, 1994). Brown (1997) explores some of the influences on self-directed learning in the workplace, influences such as attachment to the workgroup and personal relationships within the workplace. This has relevance in discussing faculty development as it can be conceived as workplace learning.

Reflection

Reflection is a key element of many of the models of experiential learning described above. Dewey (1938) pointed out that experience alone cannot lead to learning. He proposed that both the quality and application of the experience depend on reflective thought, which involves the interaction between skills, attitudes, and inquiry. Brookfield (1986) describes critical reflection as iterative: “to engage the learner in a continuous and alternating process of investigation and exploration, followed by action grounded in this exploration, followed by reflection on this action, followed by further action, and so on” (pp. 15).

Schön's (1983, 1987) idea of reflection-in-action suggested that experiential learning occurs when action is informed by reflection. Reflection and action are two parts of the same process through which learners become aware of their own ideas and reflect on their personal understanding of a given problem, in turn, allowing them to develop new ways of identifying, defining, and addressing problems that may arise in their lives.

Schön (1987) listed two ways in which one can learn through reflection: by reflecting on the action, or reflecting-in-action. Reflecting on action begins with thinking about an experience after the fact: "We may do so after the fact, in tranquility, or we may pause amid action .... In either case, our reflection has no direct connection to present action" (p. 26).

Schön (1987) pointed out that reflecting on past actions is not effective because it occurs out of the context in which the experience occurred. He suggested, however, reflection is time-sensitive and can have an impact on how the current problem is addressed. Reflecting-in-action has similar traits to trial and error. He stated: "Our thinking serves to reshape what we are doing while we are doing it" (p. 26).

Mezirow (1991) suggested that there are three types of reflection: content, process, and premise. Content reflection focuses on the event, person, or circumstance. Process reflection is consideration of the person, event, or circumstance and resulting generalizations and includes our own feelings. Premise reflection is when we analyze the very foundation that guides our actions, assessments, and judgments. He proposed: "All reflection is potentially transformative of our meaning structures" (Mezirow, 1995, p. 45).

Mezirow also highlights the difference between ordinary reflection and *critical* reflection: "Ordinary reflection involves intentional assessment of the nature and consequences of these learnings" (p. 45), while critical reflection "includes and relates the circumstances of their origin

with their nature and consequence" (p. 45). Critical reflection is like metacognition in which the learner thinks about his or her thinking and the origin of thoughts.

In Ferry and Ross-Gordon's (1998) *Inquiry into Schön's Epistemology of Practice: Exploring Links between Experience and Reflective Practice,* the authors refer to both experienced and novice educators. The researchers conducted a qualitative study with an all-female study sample. All the 52 participants had similar subject matter teaching responsibilities and at least a Bachelor of Science degree. The researchers found that their study supported certain aspects of Schön's theory, and perhaps most importantly that "the use versus non-use of reflection-in-action was a more significant indicator of how individuals solved problems than years of work experience" (p. 10).

The study builds on Schön's work by exploring the idea of reflection as an element of experiential learning and concludes that reflective practitioners engage in a problem-solving approach that is greatly different from that of non-reflective practitioners and that the implications for this reflective dimension are more important than merely experience alone.

Teaching Principles and Practices

Much has been written about teaching adults—the practices and qualities of instructors in higher education (Bain, 2004; Brookfield, 1990, 1995; Cranton, 1996, 2006; Drago-Severson, 2004b; Galbraith, 2004; Henderson & Nash, 2007; Knowles, 1980; O'Banion, 1994, 1997, 1999; Tennant & Pogson, 1995; Theall, 2006). There is still a large amount of debate about how university instructors should go about teaching their students. In addition to the rapidly growing research of teaching in a university setting, there are different approaches and activities that are being researched. Continuing with the belief that university instruction should be delivered with the tenets of adult learning as a key component, one can ascertain that it follows that an

exploration of teaching competencies be undertaken to gain an understanding of exactly what is expected of faculty members in terms of the practice of teaching.

Teaching Competencies

Chism (2007) argued that there are some misconceptions that existed among instructors that confuse attempts to define good teaching or teaching competencies. He references claims that "teaching is an ephemeral 'art,' incapable of being analyzed and perhaps inextricably linked to personality … lead to the conclusion that teachers are born and not made, and that attempts to understand teaching … should not be pursued" (p. 16). Impeding future inquiry is the lack of agreement, not just in the terms of what may constitute faculty competence, but how the term *competency* itself should be defined and how it should be applied to the workplace. Kilgore (2001) highlights this dilemma in that knowledge and understanding do not have anything to do with the performance of a job and are excluded from discourse of teaching competence.

At the same time, there is a growing demand for a workforce with a diverse set of skills, knowledge, and understandings, that has created a contradiction in meaning. This creates a discourse of teaching competence in adult education excludes all that is not necessary for the performance of a job, yet the discourse in the current workplace requires inclusion of skills, knowledge, and understanding that go beyond particular jobs. In this case, how can we identify what is normal, right or good? (Kilgore, 2001 p. 57). In Kilgore's treatment of Critical Theory, she also states the challenge of developing generic, normative or prescriptive models in adult learning in any form: With the increasing inclusion of diverse populations in the conversation about adult education, it has become clear that there is no such thing as a single type of learner, learning goal, way to learn, nor setting in which learning takes place. Many theorists have convincingly demonstrated that commonly held assumptions about learning are not relevant and

willfully domineering when irresponsibly applied to all kinds of people without respect for their unique life experiences and attributes such as race, class, and gender. (p. 53) Despite these complexities and challenges, there are sources that can help guide inquiry in this area. It is widely recognized that faculty members should be proficient in their content areas of specialization (Bain, 2004; Feldman, 1996, 1997; Galbraith, 2004; NBPTS, 2002; Sherman, Dobbins, Crocker, & Tibbetts, 2002). However, there is little agreement surrounding specific teaching competencies to the university that are applicable across curricula. The definition of competencies for the purposes of this study encompasses the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to teach at an institution of higher education. A suitable place to begin an exploration of specific faculty competencies is with Knowles (1980), who developed an instrument to assess competence in several areas related to teaching, program development, and administration. In terms of the role of a learning facilitator, he presents five competencies, which he describes as abilities:

- Ability to describe and apply modern concepts and research findings regarding the needs, interests, motivations, capacities and developmental characteristics of adults as learners.
- Ability to describe the differences between youth and adults as learners and the implications of these differences for teaching and learning.
- Ability to assess the effects on learning of forces impinging on learners from the larger environment.
- Ability to describe the various theories of learning and assess their relevance to adult learning situations.
- Ability to conceptualize and explain the role of teacher as facilitator and resource to self-directed learners (adapted from Knowles, 1980, p. 256).

This list, while useful, creates some confusion in that it is presented concurrently as a set of competencies and a set of abilities. This study theorizes competencies as encompassing knowledge, skills, and attitudes; thus, it appears that Knowles is highlighting primarily skills or abilities. While the ability to "describe the differences between youth and adult learners" (p. 256) implies knowledge, this is not openly stated. Nonetheless, these are perhaps some of the earliest competencies found in the literature that are pertinent to this study. Several years later, Chickering and Gamson (1987, 1991) offered seven principles to help facilitate undergraduate instruction. Per the authors, good practice:

- encourages contacts between students and faculty;
- develops reciprocity and cooperation among students;
- uses active learning techniques;
- gives prompt feedback;
- emphasizes time on task;
- communicates high expectations; and
- Respects diverse talents and ways of learning. (Chickering & Gamson, 1987, p. 1)

Building on the work of other researchers, Simpson and Smith (1993) identified six skill areas found in faculty members in higher education. And while they admit that competencies are comprised of both knowledge and skills, and develop a list of skills and abilities, they do not give much attention to the knowledge and attitudes needed. The skill areas they present are:

- Scholastic skills
- Planning skills
- Management skills
- Communication skills

- Evaluation and Feedback skills
- Interpersonal skills

In his review of the literature, Galbraith (2004) come across a range of characteristics expected from adult educators. His research suggested those who teach adults should possess such characteristics as self-confidence, a sense of informality, enthusiasm, responsiveness, creativity, and an interest in students and the subject matter, among other things. They should also have interpersonal skills that include patience, tact, honesty, integrity, credibility, and authenticity. Furthermore, teachers of adults are expected to serve as "role model, mentor, counselor, content resource person, learning guide, instructional developer, and institutional representative" (p. 5).

In discussing effective teaching, Galbraith (2004) postulates that "the teacher of adults must also possess personality characteristics, interpersonal skills, and positive behaviors" (p. 5). He goes on to propose that effective teaching involves five areas of knowledge: Knowledge of Principle of Practice, Knowledge of Self, Knowledge of Adult Learners, Knowledge of Content, and Knowledge of Methods. While Galbraith does not explicitly use the word competency, he cites knowledge, skills, characteristics, and behaviors—again, all fundamentals of competency. Another view of faculty skills comes from Theall (2006), who also highlights the multiple roles that faculty members play. In terms of the teaching role, he suggested that faculty members must be able to call on certain specific skills in different measure, as shown in Table 2.

7

Table 5

Frequency of Use of College Faculty Teaching Skills

Instructional Design	Almost Always
Instructional Delivery	Almost Always
Instructional Assessment	Almost Always
Information Technology	Frequently
Public Speaking	Frequently
Course Management	Frequently
Communications Styles	Frequently
Psychometrics/Statistics	Occasionally
Epistemology	Occasionally
Human Development	Occasionally
Technical Writing	Occasionally
Graphic Design	Occasionally
Conflict Management	Occasionally
Group Process	Occasionally
Resource Management	Occasionally

Sherman et al. (2002), working through the American Institutes for Research, established a competency tool for adult educators. Per the authors, "the instructor competencies were developed using a field-based research approach that included literature reviews, a series of field surveys, focus groups, and reviews by experts in the field. [They] identified skills, behaviors, and practices that characterize effective instruction" (p. 2), and developed a set of 31 competencies

that comprise 6 categories:

- Maintains knowledge and pursues own professionalism
- Organizes and delivers instruction
- Manages instructional resources
- Continuously assesses and monitors learning
- Manages program responsibilities and enhances program organization
- Provides learner guidance and referral

These various lists suggest that there are many different interpretations on this topic, and they highlight the innumerable expectations that are placed on universities and their faculty (Dougherty, 1994). The lists do not directly address teaching competency in its fullest sense. The researcher has not been able to identify any literature that expansively and conclusively presents faculty competencies in terms of knowledge, skills, and attitudes—thus underlining the need for further research and perhaps further theory development in this aspect of faculty development. To gain a better understanding of the principles and practices in universities, the literature related to exemplary teaching was also reviewed.

Teaching Practices

While there is, little agreement regarding teaching competencies, there is more agreement in the literature on exemplary, excellent, and effective teaching practice. This is not without its challenges. Elton (1998) voiced a key challenge in defining excellent teaching, stating: "Teaching Excellence ... as a concept, lacks precision" due to "the multidimensionality of the concept" (p. 3). He, too, suggested a list of competencies, which includes include organization, presentation, relationships, assessment, and evaluation. He went on to suggest that these competencies are not always present in equal measure in all excellent teachers, and he

acknowledged the role of reflective practice in excellent teaching as well. Supporting the problem and purpose of this study, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS, 2002) purports:

> Assertions about what teachers should know sometimes conceal inadequacies in the current state of knowledge. In this respect, teaching is not unlike other professions where practitioners confront unavoidable uncertainty in their work. However, the knowledge base for teaching is growing steadily. Professional consensus and research findings have begun to provide authoritative support for knowledge related to many of the tasks, responsibilities and results of teaching. But much remains to be learned. (NBPTS, 2002, p. 21)

The NBPTS, which also certifies teachers, is primarily geared to K-12 public education. The organization sets forth a set of five sets of expectations apropos of effective teaching in the form of the following propositions:

- Teachers are committed to students and their learning.
- Teachers know the subjects they teach and how to teach those subjects to students.
- Teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring student learning.
- Teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience.
- Teachers are members of learning communities. (p. 3)

Porter and Brophy (1988) described the ideal practices of a K-12 teacher and suggested that effective teachers: (1) design clear instruction and communicate the goals of instruction, (2) create challenging learning opportunities, (3) take time to reflect and self-evaluate, and (4) take responsibility for their students' learning. Ken Bain (2004) conducted a 15-year study of college professors and uncovered several best practices, which he combined into several main categories:

- Know their subject matter extremely well
- Prepare for their teaching sessions as serious intellectual endeavors
- Expect more from students
- Create a natural critical learning environment
- Treat students fairly
- Check progress and evaluate efforts

Guskey and Easton (1982) wanted to determine if there were precise characteristics common to effective university teachers, and if there were specific practices among them. They conducted in-depth interviews with 30 professors from 6 university campuses who were considered exemplary. They found no common features or traits among the participants in the study; however, they did identify four general areas regarding teaching practices. This study was replicated two years later by Easton and Others (1985). They interviewed 60 additional exemplary faculty members, finding strong support for the earlier study, and confirmed the four practices set forth in the original study, which indicated that exemplary faculty:

- Were highly organized—they planned carefully and had unambiguous objectives
- Expressed positive regard for their students
- Encouraged student participation
- Provided students with regular feedback regarding their progress (Guskey & Easton, 1982).

The material explored herein has focused on scholarly literature. Some work has been done to take the viewpoint of students into account when examining faculty practices. Several myths have excluded the use of students' perspectives in higher education in a formal way. Aleamoni (1987) identified several such myths related to the dependability of student evaluations that had

been discredited in several earlier studies. These include:

- Students cannot make consistent judgments about the instructor and instruction
- Because of their immaturity, lack of experience, and capriciousness.
- Only colleagues with excellent publication records and expertise are qualified to
- Teach and to evaluate their peers' instruction.
- Most student rating schemes are nothing more than a popularity contest.
- Student ratings cannot be used meaningfully to improve instruction.

Students' viewpoints are of value to this study, and so it is appropriate to include some treatment of them here. In an analysis of two other quantitative studies related to student evaluation of teaching practices and their association to student achievement, Feldman (1996) found that the 28 practices presented in those studies fell into three categories:

High Importance (Items ranked in the top six in both studies)

- Teacher's preparation,
- Course organization,
- Teacher clarity and understandableness,
- Teacher's stimulation of students' interest,
- Student-perceived outcome or impact

Moderate Importance (Items ranked between 7 and 12 on both measures)

- Teacher's elocutionary skill,
- Clarity of course objectives and requirements,
- Teacher's knowledge of subject and enthusiasm

Low Importance (Items ranked 13 or lower on both measures)

- Nature, quality, and frequency of feedback to students,

- Nature and value of course material,
- Nature and usefulness of supplementary materials and teaching aids. (p. 44)

Lending support to this study, Centra (1996), who published his paper in the same journal edition (*New Directions for Teaching and Learning*), showed that student and alumni ratings of faculty are highly correlated and identify similar practices of exemplary faculty. Angelo (1996) suggested that there is a very strong link between excellent teaching and positive student learning. Hativa, Barak, and Simhi (2001) also studied exceptional university teachers and found that they tend to be "well-prepared and organized, present material clearly, stimulate students' interest, engagement, and motivation in studying the material through their enthusiasm/expressiveness, have positive rapport with students, show high expectations of them, encourage them, and generally maintain a positive classroom environment" (pp. 701-702). Linking adult learning theory with excellent practice in higher education, Kane et al. (2004) constructed a model that depicts common attributes of excellent university teaching in the sciences. At the hub of this model is reflective practice, which both links and informs the other elements of excellent teaching, shown in Figure 4 below.

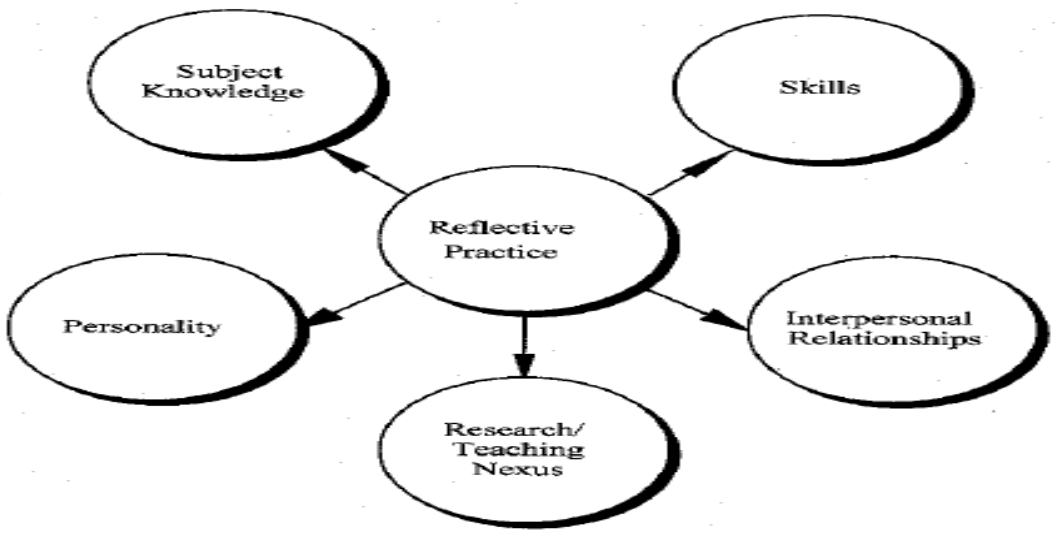

Figure 4. Common Attributes of Excellent University Teaching in the Sciences
Source: Kane et al., 2004.

Chapter Summary

This chapter represents a review of the literature in several key areas that bear directly upon this study. First, the literature on the unique nature of the American university system was explored, in which the students, faculty, and other contextual factors were explored and presented. To gain an understanding of any singularity, one must first understand the context in which it occurs. Adult learning theory is also a vital component of this study. Self-directed learning, informal learning, and experiential learning, are also relevant to this study and help to describe the ways in which both faculty and adult students learn from a theoretical perspective. The literature on teaching provided an array of viewpoints related to the principles, practices, and characteristics of exemplary college professors with a view toward gaining a better understanding of what faculty should know and do. It also served to establish a basis for judgement with the practices of the faculty engaged in this study. The Literature Review also aided in the development of several conceptual lenses as it related to Adults and Adult Learning, Teaching Practices, and Faculty Learning, which were also very closely tied to the research questions. These lenses, in turn, served as a framework for the Conceptual Framework provided

in Chapter III. These lenses are:

- How do adults differ from traditional students?
- What is needed to meet students' unique and varied learning needs?
- How do faculty members learn to teach at a university?
- What are the supports and hindrances to ongoing faculty development?

Chapter III:
METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter provides a step-by-step overview that was used to conduct this study. In this chapter is organized by talking about the rationale for the research approach, a description of the research sample and the site of research, a summary of pertinent information needed, an overview of research design and process, a description of the data collection methodology, a description of the methods of data analysis and synthesis, a brief look at the literature on selected methodology, ethical and other considerations, and the limitations of the study

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the principles and practices of award winning instructor's in the classroom. This study provides a perspective of what constitutes teaching expertise in a higher education classroom. This research identified instructor's attitudes towards andragogical and pedagogical practices in the classroom. It identified specific skills that were used to prepare lesson plans and courses. The study examined any correlations between the principals of Adult Education (Knowles, 1978) and the effective practices of Undergraduate Education (Chickering & Gamson, 1987).

The sample population included four teaching award winning professors at a university in the southeast United States. Data collection occurred with the following qualitative strategies – individual interviews, document analysis, and classroom observations. A literature review was conducted to gather preliminary data to gauge literature saturation of the topic in current and past

publications. Body of literature included literature on adult education, faculty development, andragogy and pedagogy, and student attitude on professor performance. These areas of focus provide a basis for the conceptual framework and provides a lens through which to view all data and literature.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

1. What are the professors' perceptions of andragogy and pedagogy in relation to student learning?
2. What main strategies do professors use to prepare lessons for student success and learning?
3. How do professors learn to develop competencies to meet the learning needs of students?
4. How does professors' preparation differ between Graduate and Undergraduate classes?
5. How has their philosophy of teaching changed over time in relation to teaching and student achievement?
6. What techniques are used for self-reflection after a class?

Rationale for Qualitative Research Design

Qualitative research was chosen because of the nature of the research questions. The Process of learning is a complex and dynamic social endeavor with many varied outcomes and unique perceptions. By using qualitative research, it allows the researcher to more accurately capture and present these perceptions in the voices of the participants themselves (Cresswell, 2007). Krauss states (2005), "The qualitative data analysis process is a highly intuitive activity …qualitative data analysis is [a] rich and often intricate exercise. When one engages in a research effort, one engages in an intensive learning process where new knowledge and

information is achieved" (p. 763). The methods were supported and were considered within the guidelines for Maxwell's (2005) criteria for qualitative research. He suggested that qualitative design is appropriate for the purposes of understanding the meaning, for participants in the study, the events, situations, and actions they are involved with and the accounts that they give of their lives and experiences. Understanding the context in which the participants act, and the influence that this context has on their actions. Understanding the process by which events and actions take place. Using the conceptual framework developed from the literature, applying a constructivist paradigm to what aligns well with the qualitative research approach adopted for this study. Due to the potential expansive nature of how university faculty members learn and the interactive and intrapersonal nature of learning in this context, it is appropriate to adhere to this constructivist paradigm. The study took place in a single location, so a grounded theory approach was used to determine the perspectives of the four university faculty members that participated with respect to their teaching.

Grounded Theory

The researcher used grounded theory for this study to develop theory from those who have first-hand experience with the phenomenon (Creswell, 2007). In this case, an in depth look at award winning professors' practices. Using grounded theory in this study, information was provided that can result in more effective teaching practices. It was the desire of the researcher to use the collected data to create a theory that could be shared with others so that the practices of award winning professors could be shared, and this information used to influence effective teaching strategies and help educators become more effective.

The use of grounded theory, developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967), is appropriate when a researcher wants to develop a theory to help others understand a process experienced by participants (Creswell, 2007). Each participant sees the situation from his or her own perspective informed by

their experiences, and in order to understand the whole, the voices of many must be heard (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Grounded theory requires the researcher to delve into the world that he or she is trying to study in order to gain full understanding so that the findings truly portray what is there (Patton, 1990). In a grounded theory study, data analysis begins as soon as the data is collected. This enables a researcher to begin determining what pertinent themes are, follow up with effective questions, and be able to listen and observe in more sensitive more empathetically (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Ethical and Other Considerations

The American Anthropological Association (AAA, 1998) and some authors (Creswell, 2007; Lipson, 1994) identified clear ethical guidelines that guide researchers in the field and are viewed as a good standard set of ethical considerations from which qualitative research can be conducted. These considerations include (a) to avoid harm or wrong (research can lead to change, which may be positive or negative for the participants involved); (b) to consult actively with the affected individuals or group(s), with the goal of establishing a working relationship that can be beneficial to all parties involved; (c) to obtain consent; (d) to avoid deception or covert activities; (e) to ensure anonymity and confidentiality.

The researcher made an intensive effort to avoid ethical dilemmas and conducted the study with the only highest ethical standards in mind. Literature on the topic of ethics was reviewed to ensure that the varying ethical dilemmas have all been properly addressed. Upon reflection and attentive consideration, the researcher determined that the personal risk to participants was extremely low. The interview questions and the participant responses were uncontentious. Regardless, the researcher took several measures to ensure and keep confidentiality and maintain participant anonymity. Including within these measures are,

1. The use of pseudonyms for all participants and the institution used,

2. Omitting any type of possible identifying remarks,
3. Omitting information that was directly connected to participants, including discipline and age throughout the research document,
4. Protection and locking all documents and electronic files relating to the participants and dissertation document.

Additionally, measures were taken to avoid and/or lessen bias for this study. This includes, selection of the dissertation topic, research site and location, and the selection of the participants, and the overall design of the study. This was done purposely to alleviate biases with respect to racism, sexism, sexual orientation or the relegation of other groups.

Robson (2002) also pointed out that researchers must report any illegal activities uncovered during research. Reporting such activity supplants any type of confidentiality agreements according to the author. Other unprofessional behavior, for example harassment or any other inappropriate practices, should be dealt with on a case-by-case basis as they happen and should be discussed with a member of the dissertation committee. The researcher was delicate and watchful for such content; however, there were no disclosures during this study.

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) request was submitted and approved (see Appendix E) committee and was approved in December 2016. Within agreement with IRB policy, the researcher obtained knowledgeable consent from all participants. Participation in the research study was voluntary and participants could opt out. The researcher informed all participants about the purpose of the study. All participants were guaranteed that their interviews would be held in the strictest confidence and that they would be able to stop the interview at any time during the interview and retract statements after the interview was over.

Issues of Trustworthiness

The US General Accounting Office (2009) stated, research should be conducted in a way that it passes a certain set of logical tests, including "trustworthiness, credibility, confirmability, and data dependability" (Yin, 2003, p. 33). Guba and Lincoln (1998) stated that credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability should be the symbols of qualitative research.

Credibility

When discussing the subject of credibility, Bloomberg and Volpe (2008) referred to procedural validity, "which involves asking how well matched the logic of the methods are to the kinds of research questions that are being posed and the kind of explanation that the researcher is attempting to develop" (p. 86). The researcher believes that the methodology is certainly suited to the study, the framework, the participants, and the questions asked. To confirm the coding schema and avoid mistaken classification, inter-rater reliability was achieved by enlisting the aid of several fellow qualitative doctoral candidates to evaluate one interview transcript against the coding scheme provided by the researcher.

Dependability

Dependability includes an attempt made by the researcher to certify that the "findings are consistent and dependable with the data collected" (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008, p. 86). Eisner (1991, pg. 112) referred to *consensual validation*, which is "an agreement among competent others that the description, interpretation, and evaluation and thematic of and educational situation are right". These concepts try to certify that the analysis has been done in a meticulous and systematic manner reduce bias. These aspects of dependability have been addressed in several ways; however, inter-rater review was the principal approach used to support and validate the researcher's evaluation of data. Two colleagues were asked to code one transcript of

interviews each. Extensive conversations with the researcher's dissertation committee also served to ensure that appropriate processes and procedures were followed.

Transferability and Generalizability

These terms share a similar concern. Guba (1981) defines transferability as when data fits into contexts outside of the study determined by the degree of similarity of the fit between the two contexts. Generalizability is defined as the act of reasoning involving coming to broad conclusions from specific instances and making inferences about things that were not observed rooted in what was observed (Polit & Beck, 2010). One issue in pursuing grounded theory study research is that it is not often possible to use one case to infer findings to larger populations or other contexts (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008; Yin, 2003). To address this challenge, the researcher provides "thick, rich description of the participants and the context" (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008, p. 87). Such description serves to "provide the basis for a … claim to relevance in some broader context" (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008, p. 87). Any other concerns were further addressed by employing various data collection methods, validating results through document review, inter-rater review, and observations of classroom teaching.

Reliability and Confirmability

Reliability refers to a concept that attempts to evaluate quality in quantitative study with a "purpose of explaining" all the while quality concept in qualitative study has the purpose of "generating understanding" (Stenbacka, 2001, p. 551). Confirmability refers to how much neutrality the findings of the study are created by the respondents and are not informed by researcher bias, motivations, or personal interest (Guba & Lincoln, 1981). Confirmability addresses the topic of objectivity within qualitative research. To support and validate confirmability, the researcher should be watchful to "identify and uncover the decision trail for

public judgment" (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008, p. 87). "The objective is to be sure that if a later investigator followed the same procedures … [the] investigator should arrive at the same findings and conclusions" (Yin, 2003, p. 37). Regular journaling, consistent note taking, and rigorous process documentation aided to ensure that the study can stand up outside scrutiny and provide closely similar results if the study is ever replicated.

The Site

The selected institution (referred to as "the University" for purposes of this study) is a public four-year university in the southeast region of the US. The university is organized into 10 colleges, 46 departments, and 12 schools (College Documents, 2016). It serves around 27,000 students a year and serves a diverse and international student population (College Documents, 2016). The University serves over 2,000 international students representing an estimated 100 countries (College Documents, 2016). The University offers an array of degrees including 140 baccalaureates, 135 master's programs, 71 doctoral programs and 35 graduate certificates (College Documents, 2016).

Participants

A purposeful sampling strategy was utilized and used within alignment with the methodology employed. The rationale for this sampling approach is that the researcher intended to study a diverse and eclectic group of professional instructors. This is supported by Seidman (2001), who suggested that research conducted to gain deep understanding of a problem and that is less concerned with developing broad generalizations is not conducive to the use of random sampling approaches. Seidman continues, suggesting that, in-depth interviewing involves self-selection, and that "self-selection and randomness are incompatible … true randomness would be prohibitive in an in-depth interview study" (p. 42). Participants were selected from a list of

award winners for undergraduate and graduate within the College of Education. All participants in the study were sent a formal letter of invitation (see Appendix B). In the same letter, participants were informed that their contributions would be used only for research purposes and that their identities and comments would remain strictly confidential. Participants were also provided with a demographic survey. A summary of their responses is shown below in Table 6.

Participants fall between the 40-70 age range (see Table 6). Each of the participants had at least ten years of teaching experience. Departments represented four of the five within the College of Education. Each of these participants were recipients of an award of teaching excellence for either graduate or undergraduate teaching.

Table 6

Demographic Results

Pseudonym	Department	Gender	Age	Ethnicity	Years Teaching
Ken	Kinesiology	Male	65	Caucasian	38
Elizabeth	Kinesiology	Female	45	Caucasian	23
Sarah	Curriculum and Teaching	Female	49	Caucasian	12
Deborah	Special Education, Rehabilitation, and Counseling	Female	45	Caucasian	13

Perceptions of Data Collection

To address the research questions, it was important to gain insight about faculty perceptions. This study used by a grounded theory approach in order answer the research questions and used semi-structured interviews. One of the primary goals of this study was to examine the principles and practices of award winning instructor's in the classroom. The interview questions identified ways which they could have pursued learning whether it be formal

or informal, alone or in groups, self-directed, experientially, and any other ways that might emerge. In addition, information related to participants' ongoing faculty development was elicited. The responses were distributed into three main categories: (1) contextual, (2) perceptual, and (3) demographic.

Contextual

To better understand the context in which participants teach, contextual data were gathered. The data included information related to the University, its students, faculty, and programs. In addition, contextual and environmental information were noted during classroom observations. The sources of contextual data were:

- The University's website (College Documents, 2016)
- The University's Institutional Research website – this data source contains a subset of reports and documents that were referenced. (College Documents, 2016)

Demographic

Demographic information was gathered to provide a basis for comparison along several data points. These included gender, age, highest degree attained, ethnicity, and the academic discipline of each participant.

Perceptual

The research questions, conceptual framework, and literature, led to the development of the Interview Protocol (see Appendix B). The data gathered identified participants' perceptions of their students, perceptions of the practices needed to engage their students in the learning process, and the supports and hindrances needed for their ongoing faculty development. In addition, participants were asked to describe the ways they learned to teach.

Table 7

Research Question Matrix

Research Question	Information Needed	Source(s) of Data
1. What are the professors' perceptions of andragogy and pedagogy in relation to student learning?	Faculty descriptions of their students and university documents that describe the student body	Interviews
2. What main strategies do professors use to prepare lessons for student success and learning?	Faculty perceptions of what they see as important to the implications of teaching	Interviews Observations
3. How do professors learn to develop competencies to meet the learning needs of students?	Faculty descriptions of how they learned to teach	Interviews
4. How has the professor's philosophy of teaching changed over time in relation to teaching and student achievement?	Faculty perceptions of the challenges and supports to their ongoing development as a professional educator	Interviews
5. What techniques do professor's use for self-reflection after a class or how do professors evaluate yourself in terms of teaching effectiveness?	Strategies professors use for self-reflection on the effectiveness of teaching and redirection if needed.	Interviews

6.	How does professors' preparation differ between graduate and undergraduate Class?	Faculty strategies and perceptions on how they set up their classes for undergraduate and graduate levels	Interviews

Design of the Study

Robson (2002) states that "design is concerned with turning research questions into projects" (p. 79). A constructivist research paradigm influenced the selection of a qualitative research design. The nature of the University and the research questions, derived from the research design, also influenced the choice of a grounded theory method. By using the grounded theory method, a review of the literature, interviews, and the researcher's assumptions have informed the interview questions and conceptual framework. Using these elements as foundations for the study and a rationale for the design, the study was conducted systematically and in three main phases.

Phase 1 – Defining the study

A review of the literature was conducted before the submission of the proposal and then was updated throughout the life of the study. The literature review covered the areas that were suggested in the conceptual framework. The purpose of the literature review was to explore areas that could inform the research questions, also, to help build a coding schema to organize data, and discover current effective practices and competencies in the field of higher education instruction. During this time of discovery, the survey the instrument(s) was developed for the study: the interview protocol and the classroom observation form were finalized and a list of reviewed documents were identified.

Document Review

Marshall and Rossman (2006) suggested that "for every qualitative study, data on the

background and historical context are gathered" (p. 107). This suggested that it is an indispensable method in gaining an understanding of the context within which the grounded theory is being conducted. Document gathering and review are unobtrusive, which offers the researcher access to information and data without influencing the data that are gathered. This method also allows for the corroboration of data gathered using other methods. Documents, as with many artifacts, may themselves hold clues and information that can be valuable to the researcher (Robson, 2002). Documents used in this study include peer reviewed research articles, books, and documents obtained from the university.

Phase 2 – Data collection and organization

Following the research proposal meeting, the researcher obtained approval from the Institutional Review Board of Auburn University (IRB) (see Appendix A and E) to proceed with the study. Following approval from IRB, the researcher began to identify, select, and solicit participants from a list of award winning professors. Prior to the interviews, instructors were provided and asked to sign a consent form, and a brief description of the research. All documents were collected and are kept in a secure location in the researcher's office as specified in the IRB. In addition to the consent form and other documents listed above, a form for the collection of demographic and contact information was distributed (see Appendix F). Each was completed and returned directly to the researcher. Semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted with the four participants. Each interview was recorded by the researcher and transcribed by a third party.

Classroom observations were also conducted for all four to identify the use of classroom management and strategies the Participant Classroom Observation Guide used to gather these data can be found in Appendix C.

Phase 3 – Data Analysis

This phase entailed the coding, interpretation, analysis, and synthesis of all data. The data used was collected from the interviews from all of the participants. All other data was obtained from classroom observations.

Interviews

Interviews were conducted at the conducted in the participants' offices. All interviews were conducted face-to face. Each interview was taped using a digital recorder once participant verbal and written consent were obtained. All interviews were transcribed verbatim by a third party. The semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to probe deeper into faculty perceptions of their needs as a faculty member and the ways in which they learned to teach and develop competency (Robson, 2002). The careful use of questions allowed the researcher to establish rapport, draw out richer responses, help ensure fully developed responses, and manage time efficiently. In-depth, semi-structured interviews provided the main body of data for the study and informed the coding schema. The Interview Protocol can be found in Appendix C, and the Coding Schema used can be found in Appendix D.

Marshall and Rossman (2006), Maxwell (2005), and Yin (2003) all promote interviewing as a valuable qualitative research method. Interviewing is arguably a cornerstone of grounded theory research and offers researchers the ability to gather deep insight into the perceptions and thinking of the participants involved. Kahn and Cannell (Kahn and Cannell, 1957) described interviewing as a "conversation with a purpose" (p. 101), while Maxwell (2005) suggested that interviews help the researcher gain a better understanding of the research questions. Properly designed questions go together with appropriately conducted interviews. This includes using adequate recording procedures, refining interview questions through pilot testing, determining a

proper location for the interview, respecting the time of the participant, and observing good listening habits (Creswell, 2007). Each of these considerations was adhered to throughout the interview process. Interviews offer several benefits. This method allows researchers to gather large amounts of data quickly that are both broad and deep. It also allows for immediate follow-up and clarification (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). Robson (2002) also suggested that a benefit of conducting interviews as a research method is that it offers flexibility as compared with other methods of data gathering, such as surveys. With interviews, the researchers can adjust, follow up on interesting lines of thought, and explore a participant's motives in a way that other methods cannot. It also allows the researcher to read non-verbal cues that may help in understanding and clarify meaning (Robson, 2002). The researcher took notes related to noteworthy body language, hesitations, and other non-verbal cues in this study.

Marshall and Rossman (2006) and Maxwell (2005) also highlighted several drawbacks to interviews, including the time required to set up the interviews, gather data, and transcribe data, and conduct analysis; participants' possible discomfort with being recorded and the potential for self-editing; and the lack of objectivity on the part of the researcher.

The researcher reduced these drawbacks by working with the professor's and scheduling a time when they would have about an hour for the interview. The researcher developed an interview protocol to help guide the discussions and ensure data collected was the data needed. The research used a third-party transcription service to transcribe all interviews. The researcher made it clear that the interview will be recorded for transcription services. The participants read the informed consent where it was made clear that the interviews were recorded. The researcher dealt with lack of objectivity by reviewing the protocol before and after each interview. The research questions were all reviewed during this time to ensure that the researcher kept the

purpose of the study at the forefront of the interview.

Classroom Observations

Classroom observations were conducted over a two-month period with the four participants who agreed to a class observation. A form was developed (see Appendix E): to capture, organize, and categorize the observations. Observations allowed the researcher to gather data to compare it to the practices espoused by the practitioner during the interviews. It also provided an opportunity to compare their actual practice to: (a) the practices they described in the interview process and (b) the principles and practices found in the literature. The researcher took notes and recorded thoughts and experiences in a journal that related to the classroom environment and interactions. Observational data were incorporated into the results.

As a research method, observation "provides a direct and powerful way of learning about people's behavior and the context in which this occurs" (Maxwell, 2005, p. 94). Observing participants in context enables the researcher to experience certain aspects of the instructor's practices in way that interviews alone cannot allow (Maxwell, 2005). This method also allows the researcher to observe participants without interfering with the people or activities under observation (Angrosino & Perez, 2000). This method also allows for the observation of participants' interactions with their students in the context of their classrooms to note events and facts (Glesne, 1999).

Merriam (1998) suggested that observations should be guided by an observation protocol that includes observation of the setting, activities, and non-verbal behavior that might be occurring. Observation allows the researcher to look for data to support or refute information gathered through the interviewing process. To this end, the researcher used a form for the

recording of observed data. Patton (1990) supports this data collection method because of the greater understanding and information provided regarding the context and interplay between participants. Dobbert (1982) warns of the potential for obtrusiveness of observation. The potential for observer bias, and reactivity – the tendency for participants being observed to change their behavior – are also drawbacks (Robson, 2002).

This method of data collection served in the analysis of data in that it allowed the researcher to describe, analyze, and interpret what was observed and to determine how and where the observed data intersected with data collected through other methods. Advance permission to attend each participant's class for observation was obtained over the phone and via email at least two weeks prior to the class session. The researcher arrived to class between 5-10 minutes in advance and attempted to remain unobtrusive.

Demographic Inventory

The demographic inventory allowed the researcher to gain information related to the gender, age, academic discipline, and educational background of each participant. This provides a set of data the researcher can employ to highlight differences, similarities, trends, or anomalies in interview responses across these dimensions.

Methods of Data Analysis and Synthesis

The purpose of this study was to determine how exemplary faculty developed competency and teaching practices and their perspectives on those practices. Participants' responses were analyzed to determine the extent to which they addressed the research questions. This began with a careful reading of participants' responses found in the transcripts. Maxwell (2005) suggested that the first step to qualitative analysis is to read the interview transcripts. Miles and Huberman (1994), on the other hand, suggest that analysis starts before data collection

even begins. Decisions regarding every aspect of the study's design serve as a form of data reduction, which is the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, and transforming data. They suggest that this process is a part of data analysis and is a part of the process of qualitative research itself. To accomplish this, the researcher employed several tools, approaches, and techniques in the coding, analysis, interpretation, and synthesis of the research data.

Coding

A coding schema was used to categorize the responses to the research questions (see Appendix D). The conceptual framework, which was informed by the literature review, the interview questions, and the researchers' assumptions, informs the coding and analysis of data in this study. As a primary approach to coding data, the researcher allowed the categories to emerge from the responses. Key themes informed the development of categories. These themes were informed by the literature used for the study and the researcher's own perceptions of common threads within the data.

Data from interviews were coded both manually and electronically. A qualitative software package, Atlas TI, was used to establish initial categories and to look for patterns among the transcripts. Atlas Ti was used to detect patterns that were not apparent to the researcher. The software was helpful in counting frequency of specific words and terms; however, the coding schema was mostly developed manually. After the first round, the researcher returned to transcripts, reviewed the literature, and conferred with qualitative dissertation advisor regarding reliable ways to structure the coding schema after initial patterns were discerned. The researcher a used large easel pad of paper, white boards, and post-it notes to manually code the data. Participant quotes were gathered and sorted according to common themes described in the conceptual framework. Other patterns emerged in the process and were also captured. The

coding schema contained alphanumeric codes that assisted in the analysis of interview transcripts. The researcher returned to the original recorded interviews several times to ensure that transcription was performed accurately. To confirm the coding schema and avoid erroneous categorization, inter-rater reliability was achieved by recruiting the assistance of two doctoral candidates to review an interview transcript of approximately 18 pages in length. Each was given the same transcript along with the researcher's coding schema. Inter-rater review yielded approximately 83% agreement, which indicated much agreement between and among the three coding efforts. Differences emerged, including several small data elements for which a code was not applied, differences in the way informal learning was perceived, and differences in how reflection was demonstrated. A discussion with inter-raters resolved these differences.

Analysis Process

Once data were coded and the research findings were identified, the process of analysis and synthesis began. The researcher reflected upon the findings, and after careful consideration of the core patterns that repeatedly surfaced, analytic categories were developed. Assistance was solicited from both the researcher's qualitative advisor and other colleagues from the doctoral program.

Once the analytic categories were determined, the process of analyzing the participants based on their responses to the research questions began. Analysis is "about searching for patterns and themes, that is the trends that you see emerging from among your findings … [and] is ultimately intended to give an integrated picture" (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008, p. 129). The researcher began to find common threads among and between participants to understand who they were both individually, as members of various subgroups and. This led to the development of three categories based on their teaching approaches which were: teacher lead, student lead,

and Doing so provided a basis for dissecting and analyzing their practices. Along the way, the literature was reviewed, and additional literature was explored and incorporated as appropriate to help weave an integrated whole in a process of synthesis.

Limitations of the Study

This section attempts to address the specific challenges inherent to qualitative research and known limitations specific to this study. The chosen qualitative design of the study, suggested that the researcher brings biases and assumptions to the inquiry and thus into the research study, which could have some influence on the reporting of the findings. Having served as an adjunct faculty member, administrator, and an educator in addition to being an alumnus of a four-year university, the researcher's views about faculty development could have been influenced by these previous positions. In addition to the researcher's potential assumptions and biases, participants are likely hold some assumptions and biases that could have affected the accuracy of the results in this research study and validity of their responses. To alleviate such biases, the researcher sustained a neutral and professional tone throughout the interviews, removing himself as much as possible from the analysis dynamic. In addition, all participants were informed initially and before the interview that the research was being conducted in partial fulfillment of a doctoral degree and that relaxed demeanor and professionalism was important to the study.

Another limitation was the dependence on interview data. To address this limitation, the researcher used observation data and document reviews to have other sources data to inform the study. The researcher, acknowledging these limitations, employed journaling, observations, and peer review of the interview protocol. Inter-rater review of the resultant data and coding schema, consultation with the dissertation advisor, verbatim recording, and engaging third party

transcription were done to mitigate these limitations to the greatest extent possible.

Summary

This chapter explains the methods used in this study. The purpose of this study was to examine the principles and practices of award winning instructor's in the classroom. This research develops a better understanding of how professors gain proficiency in their ability to meet the unique and varied needs of their students. The results will inform professional development efforts and help new and existing faculty with effective teaching methods. A qualitative research approach was used. Purposeful sampling was employed. Several data collection methods were employed—individual semi-structured interviews, document analysis, and classroom observations. A literature review was conducted to provide the foundation for a conceptual framework and to further serve as a tool for data analysis and coding of the collected data. Issues of trustworthiness and credibility were addressed, and the researcher used several methods to address these challenges, including inter-rater review and coding of data, observations, and detailed descriptions of observation of classroom activities.

Chapter IV:
FINDINGS

Introduction

Chapter IV presents the major findings of the study. The coded data was obtained from interviews and observations to form the findings. This chapter will outline the findings in terms of how they answer the research questions.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the principles and practices of award winning instructor's in the classroom. This study provides a perspective of what constitutes teaching expertise in a higher education classroom. This research identified instructor's attitudes towards andragogical and pedagogical practices in the classroom. It identified specific skills that were used to prepare lesson plans and courses. The study examined any correlations between the principals of Adult Education (Knowles, 1978) and the effective practices of Undergraduate Education (Chickering & Gamson, 1987).

The participants included four teaching award winning professors at a university in the southeast United States. Data collection occurred with the following qualitative strategies – individual interviews, document analysis, and classroom observations. A literature review was conducted to gather preliminary data to gauge literature saturation of the topic in current and past publications. Body of literature included literature on adult education, faculty development,

andragogy and pedagogy, and student attitude on professor performance. These areas of focus provide a basis for the conceptual framework and provides a lens through which to view all data and literature.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

1. What are the professors' perceptions of andragogy and pedagogy in relation to student learning?
2. What main strategies do professors use to prepare lessons for student success and learning?
3. How do professors learn to develop competencies to meet the learning needs of students?
4. How does professors' preparation differ between Graduate and Undergraduate classes?
5. How has their philosophy of teaching changed over time in relation to teaching and student achievement?
6. What techniques are used for self-reflection after a class?

Research Question 1

In response to the following research question: 1. What are the professors' perceptions of andragogy and pedagogy in relation to student learning? Following the data analysis, the researcher used the coded data to answer the research questions. What are the professors' perceptions of andragogy and pedagogy in relation to student learning? According to the data collected, professors' views of pedagogy and andragogy are ways of teaching their students. They did specify that they understand the difference between the two by how they identify their students, the differences of their students, and the strategies they use to teach their students. All participants perceived adult, non-traditional, students as distinct and different as compared to

traditional students in terms of preparedness, age, and maturity. The major finding derived from this inquiry shows that all the participants stated that there was a clear difference between undergraduate and graduate students. Each of the participants' views graduate students as more motivated, responsible, and able to take critical feedback better than their younger undergraduate students.

All the participants stated in one way or another that their adult students were more motivated to complete their programs. Ken stated: "I'll see some that are actually coming from having left school, done some lifetime experiences, and come back. I find a real difference between those and the ones that are moving forward. Also, there's a big difference in maturity between those that have a set goal where they're going and those that are just still trying to find their way. "What am I doing? Why am I doing it? I think I'll do a master's or do something like that." Every once in a while, we even get that at the doctoral level, unfortunately."

Ken's statement reflects that non-traditional students are intrinsically motivated to succeed. Similarly, Elizabeth supported this statement by saying that most traditional undergraduates were not on the maturity level as their graduate/non-traditional counterparts: "On an undergraduate level, is probably where we should do the most work, and that respect that we do get. Some are not ready to be mature. We used to have a more finite process for getting in to our program, that we could say you're not in yet, go away. Go mature, go do something and come back. Take some more classes. It's kind of turned more in to how education, the trend that I'm seeing, it's all about remediation."

Deborah stated in her interview that, "I see that people that have been out of school for a while and are coming back, or getting an alternative route to teacher certification are more serious, they often have families of all shapes, sizes and sorts. They often are more dedicated to

their work." This directly supports the other two participant's comments and how the motivation of their graduate/non-traditional students has been a factor in their maturity and/or life experiences.

In the interview with Sarah, she agrees with the other participants but differentiates that even undergraduate students can have a higher level of maturity: "Most of them are quite mature about receiving that constructive feedback and respond to it well, certainly at the graduate level they all do, but even at the undergraduate level where they're younger. Part of it is they take a lot of history classes and the history department is rigorous. They don't come to us expecting to always get A's. I think that's maybe truer across the secondary programs that our students come to us knowing that not everyone is going to get an A and that kind of stuff. A lot of them really seek your advice and seek ways to improve, and I'm always really impressed by that."

Though the participant gives most of the credit to their rigorous general education classes for this level of maturity, it was worth noting that not all the participants felt as if just non-traditional students could have a heightened sense of maturity. Also during the interview with Sarah, she went on to say about her undergraduates: "That's actually kind of a complex question because we get a pretty wide range of students. Most of our students are very passionately interested in history and politics, mostly history I would say. They come in with a real intense interest in that. Then the clear majority of them also really seem to have a passion and a concern for adolescents. They talk a lot in their interviews and things about wanting to help adolescents see why history and politics and economics matters to them because they know that most people don't really find that as a very interesting subject. They talk a lot about that. I just always tell people that we just have really nice kids."

Research Question 2

In response to the following research question: 2. What main strategies do professors use to prepare lessons for student success and learning? The participants all indicated that they have a tool box of instructional strategies that they utilize to instruct their students. They use varied instructional strategies such as lecturing, group discussion, case studies, and real world application. One participant stated that center to her instructional strategies was that everything had to be authentic. Most of the participants realized the importance to develop an understanding of the varied needs of students through classroom engagement using a variety of tools and instructional methods. They gained these tools through previous teaching outside of Higher Education.

This finding came about from observational and interview data. The major finding derived from the observations and interviews revealed that all participants indicated that their previous experience in K-6 was instrumental in their development of strategies to prepare lessons. From their previous educational experience, they began to build their "toolbox" of teaching strategies, develop their views on student needs and how to handle their diverse group of students.

All participants credited their previous experience as a major positive impact on their teaching. It is logical to arrive at the conclusion that many of their teaching strategies would come from prior experiences. During the data collection process, the researcher closely observed current practices.

In the interview with Ken, he described himself as a chameleon. "I'm a chameleon. I say that in that when I teach the undergrad, I'm going to do a lot more as far as providing them information, working, trying different avenues. I'll provide them outlines. I'll provide them the overheads. I'll have the audio they can record, whatever." His description of himself as a

chameleon is a great way to describe any instructor. They should be flexible in that they should adapt to each class uniquely. By employing different pathways for learning, he further helps his students grasp concepts that will lead to a meaningful learning experience. When asked about his strategies between undergraduate and graduate students he have a metaphor, "In the lower levels, I do some of the thinking. It's almost like a bird. I chew it up for them and put it in a very simple form. Then I move on up into that. I change in accordance to what the class is." This statement supports his characterization of himself as a chameleon in his ability to adapt to each class as needed. The metaphor of the bird chewing up the information and giving it to the students is a common theme throughout each of the participant's interviews. The meaning in this finding is that it is more common for the instructors to bring the content down to a level where the students can understand.

During his observation, the researcher witnessed this first hand. During the lecture, Ken had to often push for responses from the undergraduate students. He also provided many real-world examples, both historical and recent world events. Even with the excellent examples he provided about research ethics, the students were not actively engaged and had to be pushed along in the lecture. This lesson excellently supported his statement he gave during his interview, "When we're talking about situational things. Again, the situational is to make them take something more than just saying, I'm learning it. I'm putting it into application, because if I don't know how I'm going to apply it, then I think they lose a lot of that feeling of importance" With his real-world examples of research ethics i.e. Tuskegee TB Experiments and other ethically questionable examples, he **was** giving them more than just theory. When giving his examples, he would ask the students what their impressions were and what they would have done in those instances. It is important for students, in this case undergraduates, to understand how

ethical concerns in research impacts not just the participants but also the researcher.

Sarah stated that she used a modeling approach to teach her students: “The main strategies that I try to model ... The way that I approach teaching teachers is that I take the material, the readings or whatever, and then I choose a strategy that I would have used with high school students to have us work with that document. The reading is different and the reading is longer. It's about teaching, but we use the same types of strategies. I try to use lots of different ones, but there are so many different teaching strategies that I can’t do all of them. I try to focus on showing them how to do discussion oriented strategies, strategies that get students talking to each other. I do hardly any lecture because they already know how to do that. They've seen good and bad ones and they get how to do that. I don't need to model that.”

During the observation, Sarah used modeling to show her students effective teaching strategies. She would take readings and pull the strategies out of the readings and model them to her students. Through teacher facilitated instruction, she models how she would teach them to secondary students. She may switch strategies to show the students how different instructional techniques could impact learning and content delivery. She realizes, however, that there are many different types of instructional methods. She should decide which types of instructional strategies to model more. For her teaching, she chooses to model discussion type of content delivery. She realizes that students sharing ideas in a constructive and supportive environment leads to more teaching moments and higher level of learning. She does indicate that she does very little of the traditional lecture method. Her rationale is that they have a lot of exposure to this method. They have exposure to both good and bad examples of lectures.

Sarah stated several times during the interview about the topic of authenticity. “I think the most important thing, and I don't know that this is different though because it was the same when

I was teaching junior high and high school, is that learning needs to be authentic. For people to be motivated to do it, the task needs to be authentic, the question needs to be authentic. It needs to be something that people in the real-world quote unquote are wrestling with and working to solve, so I definitely apply that to my university teaching."

It is interesting that she used the word authentic. She meant that the assignment or task asked of the students should be something that people in the workforce/real world do. It should be a prominent and real issue within the field that the students will be dealing with. The idea of tasks/assignments should be authentic was only brought up by this one participant.

Elizabeth takes a completely different ideological approach to the instructional process. "I like to do, first I have, my instructional materials are all PowerPoints for students. I encourage them very much to print that out before. I don't want them coming in feeling like they've got to write down all of the lectures and all of the PowerPoints and all that kind of thing."

She provides her PowerPoints prior to the lecture and puts the responsibility on the students to bring the material to class. She does this to save a bit of time during class and so that way they can review some of the materials before class. It saves her time from having to spend time waiting for the students to write what she is saying and focus more time on other more effective teaching methods. "I found if you split them in a group of fours, and then have them talk about it, and then they get their ideas down, and then they share them with the group, they're more apt to actually say what their ideas are." She uses a group discussion format with her students. This is important because it allows her students to try to develop interpersonal skills to deal with and accept the viewpoints of their peers. It also gives the students a chance to learn how to express their ideals and work as a group to critically think about a topic and come to a meeting of minds and attempt to come to a consensus. She has found an issue in this approach

however, “I like to do a lot of group things, because I feel like what happens in a large class setting is, you have your spokespeople, and they do the talking and they form the opinions of the group.”

Research Question 3

In response, the following research question: 3. “How do professors learn to develop competencies to meet the learning needs of students?” All the participants stated that their proficiency in teaching came from years in primary and secondary education. They stated that the experience they gained there has been instrumental to their being university professors. They also stated that they have grown as professors from collaboration with their peers at the university. Learning from other professors have been important in their own development as professors. They gained these tools through previous teaching outside of Higher Education. Most participants found that the greatest help in their development of being a great professor has been their past teaching experience. This finding appeared from in-depth interviews conducted with each of the participants. Each of the participants also listed collaboration with peers as part of their instructional success.

A commonality among each of the four participants was their previous experience in education. Combining all their years of teaching experience totaled nearly a century of experience that they bring into the classroom. They all credited teaching in the K-12 system for most their success. In the interview with Deborah, she credits her experiences with giving her a fearlessness in front of the classroom: “I was a teacher for 12 years and a supervisor administrator, so I had that stage fright tamped down, but I can tell you, I never go to a first class anymore without having some nervous trepidation, even though I know I’m walking into a setting where I know the content, and I can facilitate learning in there, I still get those butterflies,

because I know it's a big deal, and I know what I'm about to do matters."

While the experience helped her in front of the classroom she goes on to report that her experience was only a part of her success. She had to seek out examples of excellence in teaching. "I had to observe excellent teachers. I sought non-examples in my doctoral program of people who were not good university communicators in any classroom, and I saw some of the most excellent people. I'm an observer, I watched a lot of good teaching."

Deborah's statement summarizes the importance of outside influences to an instructors personal teaching style. She had had a rich background of examples of teaching excellence. More importantly, she sought out examples of what not to do as well. This is important because those examples can be just as engaging and wholesome as a learning experience as observations of excellent instructors.

Sarah also credited her expertise with her prior experience in education. "I learned a lot of strategies for good teaching because I was a classroom teacher for 10 years. I think that's a huge benefit. There's a difference in that I'm not teaching the content, so I really enjoy when we get to model a lesson." Again, keeping with the theme, another one of the participants credits the experience in a K-12 classroom environment as a huge impact of their success as a university professor.

Ken also credited his experience in a K-12 setting as a major impact for his success. However, he also stated, "You have to be cognizant of the type of learners you have. Some are going to be auditory. Some are going to be visual. Some are going to be kinesthetic. You try to hit upon the various kinds of learning style, realizing that some you're going to touch in different ways more effectively than others." This was the first time a participant brought up the individual learning styles of the students.

Elizabeth stated that her experience in secondary education was invaluable: “I think my experience as a teacher in middle school and high school is invaluable. I think my preparation in my doctoral program was great for all the other things that I should do, but as far as the teaching part, that was key because I understand all the things that they're going to have to do. I think another big component of it is we stay in the schools all the time. Whether we're there doing a study, or we're there with our students, half of every semester they're with me, is in the school.”

She made several important statements, the first being that her experience in a classroom was essential for her teaching because it helped her understand all the things that her students were going to have to do. Secondly, the fact that she stays up to date with current practices in the classroom helps her reevaluate her teaching and adjust to give her students a more real world experience. Half of the participants have stated that their doctoral work was also instrumental in their preparation to teach at a university level. However, Ken reported a common issue that arises in the higher education classroom. Many instructors know the content so thoroughly that they forget they are teaching students that are still trying to grasp the concepts. “I think genius is that individual who has the content area but can put it in a very simple manner. Likewise, the best teachers are those that can take the material and then bring it down to someone, get them engaged, get them to try to see it.” I believe Elizabeth’s approach of what? helps alleviates the issue that Ken brought forward which is???

During the interview with Ken, he stated that, “I've been credentialed K through 12. Working with the different age groups has taught me there should be different ways and different approaches. Using various learning styles, I think you must adjust to that group. I think what's important is, one, you must understand your style. Different people have different styles, and you have to work with that style to best handle it.” This is important because he, again,

acknowledges his prior experiences in education and how it prepared him for different types of students. He goes on to say, "Second thing, you have to be cognizant of the type of learners you have. Some are going to be auditory. Some are going to be visual. Some are going to be kinesthetic. You try to hit upon the various kinds of learning style, realizing that some you're going to touch in different ways more effectively than others." This confirms the previous statement about acknowledging the different types of students that one would have to prepare for in a classroom setting.

Collaboration was a common theme throughout the interviews. When asked about collaboration Ken stated, "Working with other faculty members has been a great help. Trying to keep reading up on the material, keeping up on the materials really helped. I've really enjoyed the material. A lot of the students will say that it looks like I'm still enjoying it, and I think that's important." He would go on to say that collaboration has taught him different teaching methods that he was not aware of. It has also allowed him to form close professional relationships with colleagues in all departments of the university setting. In her interview, Deborah stated, "Collaboration. Finding like-minded people who have the skill set I don't have, and the balance with that. For example, my work husband, no hanky-panky, we're married to two different people, but we publish together often. I'm a great starter, and he's a great finisher. If we're working on a paper, I might work the method and the introduction, and then he does the results of discussion. Then we bring our doctoral students in. Collaborating with my colleagues, he's at another university, but collaborating with my colleagues here, communicating, don't get isolated."

By finding someone that she can conduct research with that is away from her university, she is enriching she network of colleagues to include other people's knowledge and contribute to

the existing body of knowledge. Another thing that Deborah shared was a piece of advice she gave a junior faculty member, “I was meeting with a new faculty member the other day in our department, I said, “I have some unsolicited advice for you.” She’s like, “Tell me, tell me.” I was like, I said, “Schedule time with yourself. Give yourself 4 hours one afternoon, or one morning a week that it’s your time. When someone says to you, ‘I need to meet with you’ you say ‘I have an appointment.’ They don’t need to know that it’s with yourself, and you use those 4 hours to write, or prepare, just protect that time, and meet with students, and that kind of thing.”

I think this was great advice to give to someone who is just starting out. As we will discuss later, time can be a hindrance for a busy professor. However, Deborah turned the limited amount of time she gets into an advantage by blocking out a determined amount of time and dedicating that to herself to complete what she needs to. It is worth noting that she comes back and says that time is also a hindrance.

In her interview, Sarah listed her experience in education as a boon for her becoming a college professor. From her experience, she discovered that her instruction must be authentic, “think the most important thing, and I don't know that this is different though because it was the same when I was teaching junior high and high school is that learning needs to be authentic. For people to be motivated to do it, the task needs to be authentic, the question needs to be authentic. It needs to be something that people in the real-world quote unquote are wrestling with and working to solve, so I definitely apply that to my university teaching.” Again, she lists authenticity as an important component to her being a great educator. Meaning, in this context, it should relate to real world issues that the students will be coming into contact on the job.

Continuing with the overall theme of the question, Elizabeth agreed that her prior teaching experiences was a great help in her becoming an effective professor. “I had to teach. I

had to teach what I was teaching, prior to that. If I'm going to, I think that was the thing that I went down, as many people do, different paths from other people. My best training, not to discount my doctoral program, but my best training was with a bunch of 7th graders. I can't imagine if I didn't have that experience to draw upon, what I'm trying to teach. I use examples, every single time I lecture from my years teaching high school, high school and middle school." Much like the other participants she acknowledges that her experience in K-12 teaching has helped her become the professor that she is today. She goes on to say, "don't know how you could do it without doing that, because I think there's a level of credibility that you've been there. You're not asking them to do something that you never did. I think it adds a level of realism in that, okay, you say an education happens this way, and this is what you should do, but if you're in the trenches, this is what really happens. Let's try to keep it developmentally appropriate, and all those kinds of things, but let's be real." She goes on to list two more things that she has begun that has helped her in becoming a better professor. The first being, "One of the things that has helped me overall because it's an issue of time, is combining my research and my instruction. There was a long time that I had my research time and I had my teaching time. Then I started realizing, hey the teaching time and the research time can sort of be the same, not in all capacities, but doing a better job of combining that I think has helped and that frees up time." This is important because many of the other participants listed time as a hindrance. Elizabeth has found a way to maximize her time to get the most accomplished. The other important point she makes is also about time and how she turns it into a boon, "The other thing I think has helped me grow as an instructor, that again relates to time, is I don't spend time on stuff that I don't think is going to be important to them. I tell them that first day. I'm not wasting time with busy work. Anything I tell you, you need to remember, because you're going to be using it. I think, as I said

earlier, the realistic-ness of it, and not, if I can't help them understand how what we're doing relates to what they're going to do, then I think it's a pointless exercise." By not wasting the time of her students or herself, she maximizes the positive and the relevant work that she wants to convey to her students.

There is a persistent theme throughout the interviews which is that their prior experience in K-12 was essential to their becoming competent college professors. This finding leads into the next finding where the participants discuss the things that have hindered them as professors. Most participants reported that time was the biggest hindrance in their development as a faculty member. A few participants listed that technology could be a hindrance in their development as an instructor. This finding appeared from in-depth interviews done with each of the participants. All the participants stated that they recognize that the issue of time is a big hindrance for them. Each of the participants also listed at least one other hindrance that slows their development as a professor. An overview of the sixth finding can be found below.

In the interview with Ken he listed the biggest hindrance is, at times, himself. "Things that have hindered, I think sometimes I'm probably a hindrance in that I've gone everywhere from where I had to make my own slides, and make the old Polo Blues, to the overheads, to some of this. It's interesting because sometimes I'll tell a student, "Take this." I'm showing them something or take a note. They'll whop out their camera and take it, their phone camera and take it. For me, I'm still thinking you need to draw and write it." This is interesting that, though he is an award-winning professor, a hindrance himself as times. He goes on to explain that it has to do with the technology, "I think sometimes the technology ... I think the technology's been good, and the technology's been bad. I have not been a leading edge on that. I think in some cases that's a detriment to me, maybe also to my students because they're looking for that. "I don't want to

take notes. Just give me your PowerPoints."" He explains that the way he develops his power points would be a detriment to his students who are wanting 'just the PowerPoints' as his slides only has the main ideas. He did not intend for students be too able to take the slides and learn from them. He credits this mindset of the students to their dependence to technology. His intentions with his power points to highlight important points that he will in turn and discuss with them.

In the interview with Sarah, she lists that time is something that has hindered her as well. She does however go on to say that she believes that technology could be responsible. "Probably just time. When I first thought, I was going to be in the university I thought I'd just have more time to think, just walk around and read a book on a bench under a tree or something. I don't know what I thought, but it just feels very compressed and very ... I don't know. I can't figure out exactly why it happened, but in some ways, I like to blame technology, that the more technology we have, the more we ask the faculty person to do that work."

In her statement, she says that due to technology making things much easier to multitask and cutting down on much of the work that the amount of work put on faculty has been increased dramatically. "Decades ago the faculty person wasn't typing their own tests and they weren't work processing stuff. There was a pool of people who did that work for them. They were not making their travel reservations and keeping track of their budget and that kind of stuff, and with all these technology tools, now we're expected to do all of that. I think that email is great and horrible at the same time."

It is important to note that she does not believe that technology is the only thing that has led to the increased amount of work put on faculty members, she ends her discussion by saying, "I just feel like it just feels like it's hard to carve out time to really read and reflect and think of

big research questions that you would really like to pursue because it's so day-to-day got to get this graded, got to get this planned, got to get this lab set up, that kind of stuff. I don't know."

In the interview with Elizabeth, she attributed the hindrances, much like Sarah, to her administrative duties. "Time, because I find myself with all the other administrative duties and everything else that's going on, and I've taken a lot more on than I've ever had in the last 4 years, that you feel pressured to ... now I find a lot of times going to class thinking, I've got to get that review in, I've got to get that paper in, I've got to get this grant, whatever it is. Have a student that has an issue with one of the PhD classes. There's so many other things that pull you away, that I feel like I don't. Luckily, I think the up side is that I feel like I've figured out the stuff. All those lessons I learned earlier that I could get rid of and the things that may not be the most essential stuff, I've been able to clean that up through the years." It is important that even she has tried to make a possible hindrance into an advantage for herself. She has been working for so long that she has been able to iron out the kinks in her classes so that way they run more smoothly. She does reiterate that, "The biggest thing really is time, because you're pulled in so many different directions and it just gets more and more. It's not like, I used to keep thinking even being very goal oriented you're working to the next thing, and you've got to get great third year review, you've got to get tenure, and you've got to get full, and you're always working towards something. It just doesn't stop, which I guess is a good thing. If not, I might be looking to get another degree in something."

The only outlier in the participants was Deborah. She listed that paternalism was her biggest hindrance in her development as a professor. This is interesting because she was the only participant that listed a social issue as a hindrance. She goes on to explain, "The first chair of the department that I had when I first came to the university was very, very paternalistic, very

negative toward female professors, very solicitous of male professors. That was a very, very big challenge for me. Because, it was inherently wrong, in my opinion it was injustice, and I was in a powerless position as a non-tenured, brand-new female professor. I went to 3 other professors on faculty who are women, and I just said, “How have you dealt with this all these years?” I honestly wanted an answer, because I wanted to stay here, I wanted my career here. The situation was untenable, I was like, “I’m not going to be used.” 3 responses, it’s the way it’s always been, that’s how he is, and you knew what you were getting into when you came.”

This is an important thing to bring out as a hindrance. She is acknowledging the social issues currently taking place in higher education. Each of these participants listed valid hindrance to their professions. Time was by far the biggest hindrance that was acknowledged. It is also important to note that they may have listed these hindrances but they have had to adapt and try to find a way to change that hindrance to an advantage.

Research Question 4

In response to the following research question: 4. “How does professors’ preparation differ between Graduate and Undergraduate classes?” Most of the participants indicated that they recognized a distinct difference between preparation between undergraduate and graduate classes.

All participants stated that most non-traditional students are stronger academically. Sarah stated: “With the graduate students, they read research. With the undergraduate students, we read not a ton ... Doctoral students then we're critiquing research. The master's students we read longer pieces, we read books, we read longer articles that are describing the philosophy behind the strategies. In the undergraduate courses, we're reading very short, this is how to do it. At the master's level, we're reading more about why we're doing it that way. For example, in the

undergraduate class we would just read an article that maybe describes a couple kinds of discussion, but in the master's class we're reading several chapters out of books on discussion kind of thing."

In this statement, he reports that the doctoral students as working on a higher academic level. Applying philosophy that they learned in their master's program to actively and critically critique research. While with her undergraduate students, they are reading short articles in attempts to learn how to read research and develop the critical thinking and reasoning skills to develop critiquing skills to achieve higher levels of thinking and learning. Her master's students, being middle of the road, read longer more complicated articles that describe philosophy behind the activities and strategies that they read about in the research selections.

Elizabeth describes one of her undergraduate classes, in which contains Alt-Master's students as a mixed classroom. She describes the community of her class where the graduate students help the undergraduates and foster a more conducive learning environment: "We have an alternative Master's program. What that does is put in Master's seeking students in with our undergrads, because the certification level courses are the same. For those three classes, they're all mixed together. I just see a different level of caring and awareness from the graduate students. Not to say that the undergrads don't have it, but it would be more exclusively to the graduate level students, because they bring in the life experience, and they seem to be more self-initiating and more driven. Usually their time is much more structured, and they know how to manage it."

She goes on to say that these graduate students have more expectations in the class because of their richer academic and professional background: "They tend to be more the leaders in the class, which kind of we expect from them. If there are going to be two graduate level students in an undergrad class, they should take some leadership in way. A lot of times it seems

to be that, they're all in the lab together and they're the ones remembering, you've got to do this, or this is how you do this. That sort of thing”

She goes on to state that the lab process is different for the two groups. The graduate students tend to be more methodical in their processes. They understand that there is a rite of passage that is accomplished in the lab. Undergraduates just want someone to tell them to how to do it and get to the answer so they can move on.

In the interview with Ken, he summarized the first finding in the first finding very well by saying: “I think the undergraduates are still trying to find their way. A lot of what they're done, it's real interesting I think when ... My daughter said this best for me. She said, "In high school," she said, "it was like going home and having mom and dad feed you, but in college it was more of a buffet." Part of the buffet in the undergraduate is fed to them still because you must have that GE portion, that general requirement portion. It's that second portion, where they're starting to get into the curriculum. Again, I find some of that whether they're engaged or not engaged on it. That's a lot different between than when the graduates. I see the big difference with the graduates is that, again, about 1/2 to 2/3, they've now starting to focus and saying, "This is kind of where I want to go."

This simply states that undergraduate students must overcome the learning curve many of them encounter first entering university system directly from high school. In high school, it is still dominated by a pedagogical stand point and very little andragogy takes place.

Research Question 5

In response to the following research question: 5. “How has their philosophy of teaching changed over time in relation to teaching and student achievement?” Most of the participants felt that their time and experience has only strengthened or confirmed their personal philosophy

of education. All educators have a fundamental philosophy. This philosophy defines the educator as an educator. An educator's philosophy is a very personal thing. By examining an educator's philosophy, a person can understand the multifaceted values of that educator. Due to the personal nature of an educator's philosophy of education, the researcher elicited general information about the participants' philosophy of education. The researcher also inquired on whether their philosophy has changed over time.

Ken summed up his philosophy in one sentence. "I think education's a lifetime pursuit." His philosophy underlines a central theme that came up in all the participants' interviews. They all stated in one way or another that their educational pursuits are a lifetime process. He goes on to say, "I believe society has failed to recognize the importance of constant education. We seem to spend more time with movie stars and some of that than the educational process. The educational process has such an influence. For me, I always found it weird that you have individuals coming from outside our country that can pick up our language or do really excel, whether it's you see them in the spelling bees and the various things. That's because they have a different concept of education. They see this to advance themselves."

This statement is interesting because it started to emerge with the other participants as well. Sarah believed that her philosophy was linked to her duty as a citizen in that she should continue to develop responsible citizens. "My philosophy of education is that the ultimate purpose is to prepare the learners that you have to be competent citizens in a democracy." She goes on to state: "I don't think that that's a rich enough description of the purpose of education. I don't think school is a business and I don't think the purpose of education is to prepare someone to be an employee. I think the purpose of an education is to prepare that person to be the best human being that they can, but also to live fairly and justly as a community and as a society. I

think in current educational setting and in the political landscape, the purpose of the education ... The talk has shifted to preparing people for work. I think the real purpose of an education is to expand yourself and to meet people who are different from you and ideas that are different from you, so that you can have more educated and logical and reasoned conversations with your fellow planet inhabitants and make better decisions for us collectively. That's true kindergarten through graduate school."

This was interesting because it addresses the changing culture and mindset in higher education to more of a business model to match the mindset of the younger generations of students coming into higher education institutions. With her philosophy incorporating the changing times in higher education, I asked if her philosophy has changed over time. She responded, "It hasn't. That's just been my driving passion ever since I wanted to be a teacher, and that's one of the reasons I chose social studies was I've always been passionate about democracy and preparing people to participate in that democracy, not just as a voter."

Elizabeth states: "I think you have to practice what you preach. I think that that's probably the one that's most tried and true, that if I'm going to ask you something, ask you to do something, I should be doing that too. That's been a big one for me. That I'm asking you to write these lesson plans, I've written these lesson plans. I explain to them, I was in your seat, the different place, thinking why do I got to write either page lesson plans. I said because you don't understand it yet, like an experienced teacher."

This is importance because it lends credibility to the statement about practicing what one preaches. It also helps with the professor's credibility as an educator when teaching other educators.

Deborah's philosophy is, "Everybody can learn, excellence varies from person to person.

Because I teach a lot about individuals with disabilities who have a spectrum of needs, and supports, and abilities, that excellence varies." This is important because, she is the only participant that has the core belief that 'Everybody can learn…' While all the others hinted that that is one of the core beliefs in their philosophy. It was interesting that it was so prevalent in her philosophy. She goes on to talk about excellence in learning. She adds later that, "Sometimes excellence for one person is being able to put your clothes on and comb your hair, and excellence for another person is to take an AP English class, and get dual credited. Excellence is a relative term, and we must take people where they are. That's part of how I deal with that perspective." In her statement, she says that the excellence of learning is a personal matter. How a person views excellence is developed over the course of that persons' academic life?

Depending on how long a person is in education, their philosophy might change. When asked about if their philosophy has changed, the participants were split. Two of the participants stated that their philosophy has changed a bit from beginning their career.

Ken stated above that his philosophy states that learning is, "a lifetime pursuit…" When asked about his philosophy changing he stated that his philosophy has changed but: "The educational process, I think in the U.S, I think we've lost some of that. We've done well through the years. It's like coming out of the Depression. People really came in with this idea, "If I work hard, I can get somewhere." We're beyond the Depression long enough that the millennials you'll see, and this has changed from the different generations. The millennials now are just like, "I deserve this." There's a different expectation. I've been in teaching now 38 years. During that 38 years, I think it's changed by the population I'm working with, whether they be the millennials, or the group before, or whatever. I also think it's changed in accordance to society changes and what we see for education."

This is interesting because he acknowledges that the changes in education have changed the student, but have not changed him in his core values of teaching. Deborah also said that her philosophy has changed a bit over time. She did however, define the situations in which they change: “It wane’s sometimes, it depends on the semester, and it’s usually my own energy level, or maybe personal things going on in my life, but I’m still a passionate teacher. I don’t care if I’m teaching when I’m 80 years old, I still want to convey passion. In most of my course evaluations that I get over the years, that’s the common theme, that it’s clear you’re passionate about what you’re trying to help us learn. I don’t want that kudo because it sounds good, I want it because I’m conveying that, because I think it’s contagious, and I think that if you allow people to shine by letting yourself shine, then it gives them permission to shine.”

It is interested that she would state that her philosophy also changes depending on how she feels. This is important because it considers she as a person. It does not take away from the learning experience that her students will get but it acknowledges the fact that she is human and is subject to outside influences but more importantly internal influences. She also speaks about her passion. It is important to that she talks about her passion for teaching. It is also important that she has gotten confirmation that that passion has been recognized by her students. It leads to authenticity to her teaching which will help her reach more students.

The other two participants have found that their philosophy has not changed. Elizabeth stated that not only has her philosophy not changed but it has been a way for her to confirm her philosophy: “It's on the spot. I think one of the things that I've learned is that I talk to them a lot about, and again this is part of modeling that I do to, is that I always use the example, if you're pointing a finger at a student there's three more pointing back at you. So, check yourself, and figure out what you might be doing wrong before you're saying as they do, that oh, just a bad

kid, or little bit developmentally past that, they'll say the kid is having a bad day. That kind of thing."

She also links her philosophy with her reflective practices. She states that "if you're pointing a finger at a student there's three more pointing back at you. So, check yourself, and figure out what you might be doing wrong…" This statement shows that her that her philosophy is linked with her self-reflective practices.

In the interview with Sarah she stated that: "It hasn't. That's just been my driving passion ever since I wanted to be a teacher, and that's one of the reasons I chose social studies was I've always been passionate about democracy and preparing people to participate in that democracy, not just as a voter. That's more like a consumer, but as a person who could serve on the city council or who could serve on the library board and participate in their homeowners' association or whatever it is, but to be a leader in that democratic endeavor."

As she has stated earlier, Sarah's core beliefs fall within the line of producing responsible citizens. She also talks about her passion for democracy. She links this passion with a responsibility to produce citizens that will fulfill their civic duty. She sees herself as not only an educator of other educators but as a responsible citizen training others to serve their communities.

Research Question 6

In response to the following research question: 6. "What techniques are used for self-reflection after a class?" All the participants had some sort of reflection plan in place to assess their teaching. Most did it periodically and not after every class. This finding appeared from in-depth interviews done with each of the participants. All the participants stated that they have some of sort of system for self-reflection. Each of the participants listed self-reflection as an

important part of their instructional process. While none of the participants stated that they reflected after every class, only one said that they do it on a yearly basis.

Ken stated: “I constantly go back and try to evaluate what I did, and how I did, and how effective was. For me, it's again, experience-wise, I've developed a bag of tricks, you might say, or a bag of examples, or various things that I've run across. For me, I'm struggling a little bit with this because I've had classes where I've taught it very similar across semesters. In one case, the class clicked, and everything was great. There were other times where you just wonder, what the heck is happening here??

He clearly states that she uses self-reflection techniques regularly. He utilizes self-reflection to evaluate his teaching. He also uses reflection to help him maintain his “back of tricks to use within the classroom. This statement helps underline the importance of self-reflection for professors. “I've had classes where I've taught it very similar across semesters. In one case, the class clicked, and everything was great. There were other times where you just wonder, what the heck is happening here?” This statement makes it clear that without self-reflection he would be continuing the same strategies with every class, whether they are effective or not.

Sarah uses a multifaceted approach when it comes to self-reflection. She utilizes peer reflection via peer reviews, “in our department we do a peer review process where we have our colleagues come and observe us teaching and we prepare a whole portfolio of information about that and everything, so we do a fairly extensive supportive, and it's all confidential, it's all formative assessment. It's not evaluative but we just provide feedback to each other.” This peer review process provides a unique self-reflection experience. By having colleagues observe her teaching and providing feedback for her to take and reflect on it helps not only her but helps the

department grow into a better cohesive unit. She also uses informal reflection based on student work and feedback that she gets from her students. “What kind of questions am I getting? Like are kids asking ... If they seem confused about the assignments or that, a lot of times you can just feel if there's a frustration or a confusion level or something.” This type of quick reflection allows her to make instructional changes for the short term. This is important as she must assure she is getting to each of the students in her classroom. She justifies this informal feedback from students by saying, “They're constantly getting critiqued on their lessons and stuff, and so sometimes I'll just ask for informal, you know, “What did you think about this? Was it useful? Are there ways that I could make the reflections from the lab more authentic or whatever?” This thinking is interesting because it allows the students voices to be heard and allows them to have a say in their education, albeit a limited hand in the instructional This feedback from the students is essential for her reflection process. IT helps her continuously develop her class to better meet the needs of her students.

Deborah also states the importance for self-reflection for instructional purposes. She gives an example that happened recently to her: “That happened to me this past year, I took on a new class, it was a new prep, new to our revamped undergraduate program, and the first time I taught the class, it was horrible in my mind. Students probably didn’t know the difference, but I thought, “I did not teach what I needed to teach, I’m letting these people leave out of here without the skills they need.” Because, I was still learning the material as it went along. I did a lot of homework over the break, I spent more time being more strategic about the materials I brought into the classroom, and now the 2nd and 3rd time I’ve taught it had been much better”

In this example, Deborah was given a class that she has not taught before. This presented her with an opportunity to teach a different course. However, during the semester she found that

the curriculum did not meet her expectations of the course. Because she was given the course and told to teach it, she had to have an active process for reflection of the course. She had to figure out what worked and what didn't and continue to make improvements to the class. Due to the active reflections of the first time she taught the class she could make fundamental changes to the class that lead to more successful student experiences.

An interesting state that she links her self-reflective practices to her academic freedom as a professor came up during the interview. "I always ask, and then I try to incorporate something like that the next time I teach that specific internship class for our special education students. With the broader class, it's not as easy to manipulate the material, because it's already agreed upon. Books selected. I still have my academic freedom, so I do those fun things too." This was an interesting linkage because no other participant talked about academic freedom. In this statement, Deborah states that she uses student feedback to help her broaden her class and make changes where she can.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the findings for this study. During the interviews with the participants the researcher attempted to gain critical insight to each of their qualities that have made them the award-winning professors that they are. In-depth interviews were conducted with each of the participants as well as classroom observations were conducted. Participants all viewed their students in terms of maturity, age, and developmental levels. Allowing them to develop their classes to meet the unique needs of their students. This deeper level of understanding of their students allowed them to use a variety of tools to fit appropriate instructional strategies into their class to meet instructional needs of their students. All the professors credited their success to their previous experience in primary and secondary

education. All the participants had some sort of reflection plan in place to assess their teaching. Most did it on a semester basis that allowed them to look back over an entire class allowing them a more comprehensive look at what worked and what did not work. The participants felt that their time and experience has only strengthened or confirmed their philosophy of education. One professor stated that their philosophy has changed over time. It changed based on her self-reflection process for her classes. All the participants reported that the greatest help in their development was their past teaching experience. They also reported that their colleagues were a source of development which allowed them to share instructional strategies and learn from each other. All the participants listed that time was their biggest hindrance as a professor. A few of them stated that technology could be a hindrance to them.

Chapter V:
Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations

Introduction

This chapter will provide the researchers conclusions of this study. The researcher will provide implications for new faculty, senior faculty, and for the university and faculty development. Finally, the researcher will provide recommendations for future research.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the principles and practices of award winning instructor's in the classroom. This study provides a perspective of what constitutes teaching expertise in a higher education classroom. This research identified instructor's attitudes towards andragogical and pedagogical practices in the classroom. It identified specific skills that were used to prepare lesson plans and courses. The study examined any correlations between the principals of Adult Education (Knowles, 1978) and the effective practices of Undergraduate Education (Chickering & Gamson, 1987).

The sample population included four teaching award winning professors at a university in the southeast United States. Data collection occurred with the following qualitative strategies – individual interviews, document analysis, and classroom observations. A literature review was conducted to gather preliminary data to gauge literature saturation of the topic in current and past publications. Body of literature included literature on adult education, faculty development,

andragogy and pedagogy, and student attitude on professor performance. These areas of focus provide a basis for the conceptual framework and provides a lens through which to view all data and literature.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

1. What are the professors' perceptions of andragogy and pedagogy in relation to student learning?
2. What main strategies do professors use to prepare lessons for student success and learning?
3. How do professors learn to develop competencies to meet the learning needs of students?
4. How does professors' preparation differ between Graduate and Undergraduate classes?
5. How has their philosophy of teaching changed over time in relation to teaching and student achievement?
6. What techniques are used for self-reflection after a class?

Findings Overview

This chapter will present the relevant findings from two sources of inquiry: (a) four in-depth interviews with award winning professors selected for this study; (b) class observations of the research participants that were interviewed. The data gained from faculty class observation served to clarify, assess, support, and build upon the findings. All participants are referred to by pseudonyms throughout this study to protect the participants' anonymity.

There were six major findings, each of which will be explained in greater detail in the sections below were as follows:

1. All participants perceived adult, non-traditional, students as distinct and different as

compared to traditional students in terms of preparedness, age, and maturity.

2. Most of the participants realized the importance to develop an understanding of the varied needs of students through classroom engagement using a variety of tools and instructional methods. They gained these tools through previous teaching outside of Higher Education.
3. All the participants had some sort of reflection plan in place to assess their teaching. Most did it periodically and not after every class.
4. Most of the participants felt that their time and experience has only strengthened or confirmed their personal philosophy of education.
5. Most participants found that the greatest help in their development of being a great professor has been their past teaching experience.
6. Most the participants stated that time was the biggest hindrance in their development as a faculty member. A few participants listed that technology could be a hindrance in their development as an instructor.

These findings are supported not only by the data, from which they are derived, but also from the literature review in Chapter II. Finding one, all participants perceived adult, non-traditional, students as distinct and different as compared to traditional students in terms of preparedness, age, and maturity, is the result of analysis from the data collected in attempts to answer research questions one and four. The literature also supported this finding through the works of Knowles (1973) and Pike (1989). Their work clearly defined what makes an adult learner. Knowles hours principles of adult education clear list differences between traditional and nontraditional students based on age, maturity, and preparedness. Pike's work also supports this conclusion through his Laws of Adult Learning. Both Pike and Knowles acknowledge that

there is specific characteristics that make the adult learning different. Findings two and five, are the result of both interviews and classroom observations. These are supported through the literature as well. Finding two, most of the participants realized the importance to develop an understanding of the varied needs of students through classroom engagement using a variety of tools and instructional methods. They gained these tools through previous teaching outside of Higher Education, is supported through experiential learning and self-directed learning. Experiential learning is the belief that learning should be a process but not in terms of outcomes. Learning is a dialectic process, learning must be reflective, and constructivist in nature (Kolb 2005). Kolb (1984) later suggested that concrete experience is needed to test ideas and direct feedback to change future actions. One of the core beliefs in adult education is the belief that adult learners are self-directed. This is the belief that learning that is planning and initiated by the individual (Tough 1971). Finding five, most participants found that the greatest help in their development of being a great professor has been their past teaching experience, the literature on teacher competencies is broad subject and carries, with it, some misconceptions. Chism (2007) argues that these misconceptions confuse attempts to define good teaching or teaching competencies. For this reason, future inquiry is impeded due to the lack of agreement on the topic. Kilgore (2001) acknowledges this dilemma that knowledge and understanding do not have anything to do with the performance of a job and are excluded from discourse of teaching competencies. All the participant attributed their success to their prior experience in education. Perhaps it is experience helped them develop the competence needed to exceed in higher education. Findings three, All the participants had some sort of reflection plan in place to assess their teaching. Most did it periodically and not after every class, and four, most of the participants felt that their time and experience has only strengthened or confirmed their personal

philosophy of education, where the results of interviews with the participants. All of the participants stated that they have some sort of reflection plan in place for continual reflection. This reflective process is important because it also shows that these instructors are also exhibiting experiential learning. Reflection is a key element of many of the models of experiential learning. Dewey (1938) pointed out, however, that experience alone cannot lead to learning. His proposition was that both the quality and application of the experience depended on reflective thought, involving the interaction between, skills, attitudes, and inquiry. Brookfield (1986) describes critical reflection as iterative: "to engage the learner in a continuous and alternating process of investigation and exploration, followed by action grounded in this exploration, followed by reflection on this action, followed by further action, and so on" (pp. 15) This reflective process allows these instructors the ability to alter teaching practices or content, if needed, to enhance student learning.

Ken ends his interview with this musing, "I think genius is that individual who has the content area but can put it in a very simple manner. Likewise, the best teachers are those that can take the material and then bring it down to someone, get them engaged, get them to try to see it." This is a description of an instructor with a rich background of education training and experience.

Conclusions

The researcher has drawn three main conclusions from this study.

Conclusion 1

The researcher concludes, first and foremost, that excellent teaching requires attention to the students individual learning needs and individual learning styles of the students. This involves learning the academic history of the student, their motivations, their individual learning

styles, academic needs, and the many other things that encompass an understanding of the student. This also involves understanding the needs of both traditional and adult students or undergraduate and graduate students and what differences that are involved in instructing these different groups.

Conclusion 2

The researcher concludes that to achieve teaching excellence, faculty members must continually redefine their teaching practices. The best professors never stop learning and adapting their teaching approaches in relation to the classroom. This encompasses the use of new and different approaches that uses various media, tools, techniques, exercises, and a variety of types of assessment. This manifests differently in other academic disciplines, but fundamental characteristics such as sincerity, competency, concern for students, passion for the content area, and willingness to meet students' learning needs are common virtues that tie award-winning professors together.

Conclusion 3

The researcher further concludes that instruction needs to be authentic. Meaning, that the content taught is in such a way that it can relate to real world scenarios that could happen in the students' careers. By keeping the instruction authentic the professor will help the students make real world connections and strategies. The professor must maintain ties to the 'real world' to keep their authenticity. By continuing to conduct research and working within the discipline's field, the professor continues to lend credibility and authenticity to their classes and thus their teaching.

Conclusion 4

The research also concluded that professors must have a system for routine reflection to

keep an objective mindset that will help them keep a system of checks in place for them. By having a self-reflection plan, professors have a way to look back and analyze their teaching strategies and adjust their teaching, course assignments, textbooks, or course design as needed. This also provides professors a way to help keep authenticity in their instructional techniques and class content.

Conclusion 5

The researcher concluded that professors need to keep their philosophy of education ever present in their thoughts as they teach their classes. The educator's philosophy of education is the foundation on which an educator's beliefs are set. While incredibly personal, their philosophy is also made public from their teaching and interactions with students. It grounds them in their practice and keeps them focused on the needs of their students. A philosophy should not be a static belief system however. Educators should look at the philosophy and see if their core values as an educator have changed over the course of their career.

Implications for Practice

The researcher proposes four recommendations for university faculty and leaders.

Implications for New Faculty

The researcher recommends that new faculty seek out veteran professors willing to mentor them immediately upon hire to support them in their first year of teaching in higher education. Experienced faculty can help guide new instructors toward grant writing, funding and other formal faculty duties. Mentors can introduce new faculty to other practitioners, and informal opportunities that can help in their development as higher education educators. This is done because, the more quickly new faculty members develop the competencies required to excel at teaching at the university level, the quicker the benefits can be passed on to the learner,

their academic field, the institution, and the professors themselves. More importantly, this puts new faculty closer to the resources and developing the competencies required to teach in the challenging and unique setting of a university. Ongoing dialogue with research participants on the evolution of their philosophy of education and perceptions of student needs throughout their career.

Implications for Senior Faculty

Senior faculty members should seek out and encourage informal and formal learning opportunities among themselves and their colleagues. Informal learning through conversations with colleagues featured strongly in this study and this warrants consideration. Due to the impromptu nature of many informal peer interactions, it is difficult to place strict structure around these types of interactions. The faculty members must find different ways to meet the time and resource limitations that prohibits them from pursuing meaningful development opportunities. These sorts of activities cannot be forced from the top down or by a few colleagues whose responsibility it is for planning faculty development initiatives.

Implications for University Faculty Development

The researcher recommends that faculty development in universities devote adequate resources toward the implementation of informal learning opportunities. Faculty development must rise from efforts that are sponsored by the university to those that are driven by faculty. This type of professional development enables the widespread implementation of teaching practices that are recognized as excellent and cultivates the overall development of the professor. Ideally, this would encompass an emphasis towards a view that joins the most promising elements of informal learning, while acknowledging the potential shortfalls of informal learning.

University leaders should make efforts to address the time and schedule obstacles that

prevent faculty from attending and participating in structured and informal faculty development. This can be done in assistance with faculty governance figures, unions, faculty development departments, or other interested individuals. Such initiatives may not carry a high cost. These efforts of coordinating schedules and expanding existing social and institutional events to integrate and inspire informal sharing among colleagues can go a long way to develop professors.

Recommendations for Further Research

The following recommendations are for future studies.

1. Research should be conducted at multiple universities to expand the sample size, improve the diversity of the participants for the study, and gain insights into the potential differences between award winning professors at different institutions.
2. Further study should be conducted across academic disciplines, the choice of teaching practices, self-reflective techniques, and fluctuations in philosophy of education over time.
3. Research should be conducted on the teaching practices of award winning professors in different colleges in a university.
4. Finally, further research should be accomplished to consider the proposed hindrance of technology in the learning process as was expressed by several research participants. The participants stated that technology could be a hindrance in the terms of using technology. They recognized there could be a learning curve for older faculty members and the integration of technology into the curriculum.

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Appendix A

The Auburn University Institutional Review Board has approved this Document for use from 07/08/2016 to 07/07/2017 Protocol # 16-232 EP 1607

AUBURN UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS, LEADERSHIP AND TECHNOLOGY

DO NOT SIGN THIS DOCUMENT UNLESS AN IRB APPROVAL STAMP WITH CURRENT DATES HAS BEEN APPLIED TO THIS DOCUMENT.

INFORMED CONSENT
for a Research Study entitled
Connoisseurship of Teaching in Higher Education

You are invited to participate in a research study to try to identify characteristics of excellent teaching in a diverse group of professors in different areas of academia. The study is being conducted by Robert Southard, under the direction of Dr. Maria Witte in the Auburn University Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership, and Technology. You were selected as a possible participant because you have been nominated by your peers and you meet a set of criteria that makes you a prime candidate for this study.

What will be involved if you participate? If you decide to participate in this research study, I will conduct an interview with you. The interview will include questions about the ways in which you prepare for a class, the way you plan your activities, the way you address the varying styles the students in your class learn, and varying other questions regarding your professional experience. The interview will take about an hour to complete. With your permission, we would also like to record the interview. The recording of the interview will allow me to have it transcribed. This is important because I will transcribe the interview for qualitative analysis. I will also observe a typical class in which you are giving instruction to a group of your students. All information is to be destroyed soon after the study is completed. All digital information will be deleted from researcher's digital voice recorder, phone, and computer. All USB storage drives will be formatted to ensure that all data is completely erased. Destruction will be on May 10th, 2017.

Are there any risks or discomforts? The risks associated with participating in this study are minimum. I do not anticipate any risks to you participating in this study other than those encountered in day-to-day life. The only foreseeable risk could be the breach of confidentiality. There are no benefits to you.

If you change your mind about participating, you can withdraw at any time during the study. Your participation is completely voluntary. If you choose to withdraw, your data can be withdrawn as long as it is identifiable. Your decision about whether or not to participate or to stop participating will not jeopardize your future relations with Auburn University, the Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership, and Technology.

4036 Haley Center, Auburn, AL 3684-5221; Telephone: 334-844-4460: Fax: 334-844-3072

Participant's initials _____

AUBURN UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS, LEADERSHIP AND TECHNOLOGY

Your privacy will be protected. Any information obtained in connection with this study will remain confidential. I will assign the participants a pseudonym. All collected data will be stored Information obtained through your participation may be used in completion for my dissertation in Adult Education.

If you have questions about this study contact Robert Southard at rds0010@auburn.edu or Dr. Maria Witte at wittemm@auburn.edu. A copy of this document will be given to you to keep for your records.

If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Auburn University Office of Research Compliance or the Institutional Review Board by phone (334)-844-5966 or e-mail at IRBadmin@auburn.edu or IRBChair@auburn.edu.

HAVING READ THE INFORMATION PROVIDED, YOU MUST DECIDE WHETHER OR NOT YOU WISH TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY. YOUR SIGNATURE INDICATES YOUR WILLINGNESS TO PARTICIPATE

Participant's signature	Date	Investigator obtaining consent	Date
Printed Name		Printed Name	

The Auburn University Institutional Review Board has approved this Document for use from 07/08/2016 to 07/07/2017 Protocol # 16-232 EP 1607

4036 Haley Center, Auburn, AL 3684-5221; Telephone: 334-844-4460: Fax: 334-844-3072

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Appendix B

Interview Protocol

Introduction

I would like to have a conversation with you about your teaching and your experience with faculty development and your thoughts about some of the needs of your adult students, among other things. This research is being done in support of my dissertation, and once the results have been compiled and coded, I will send you a copy of the results if you wish to see them. It is not my intention to ask any sensitive questions, however, your answers will be kept in the strictest confidence nonetheless. You will have control over what is on and off the record. After the interview, I will give you the opportunity to comment or identify anything you wish to be kept off the record. You can talk much faster than I can write, and since accuracy is very important, so I would like to tape our conversation if you have no objections. The only other persons who will hear the recording is a transcriber – who will convert the voice recording to written form. No one will hear or see any comments that can be attributed to you. Before we begin, do you have any questions? I'd like for this to be as much a discussion as an interview, so if you have any questions along the way, please ask.

Interview Questions

1. To get started, please tell me about your students. How would you describe them? Undergraduate and Graduate
2. How would you describe them in terms of age (maturity)?
3. What would you say is the average age of your students?
4. How would you define "adult" as it relates to your students?
5. How would you define nontraditional student as it relates to your students?
6. What differences, if any, do you notice between those students whom you see as Graduate compared with your Undergraduate students?
    a. In terms of characteristics, demeanor, behavior?
    b. In terms of learning needs, preparedness, academics?
7. What did you have to learn to teach at a University?
8. What do you believe you need to know or understand about your students as it relates to your teaching? In other words, if you were giving advice to a new junior faculty member, what would you say is most important to know about your students to be an excellent professor?
9. What are your current practices in the classroom?
10. What do you do differently, if anything, with your Graduate students as compared with your undergraduate students?
11. How did you learn these skills - to be an excellent professor?
12. Where and when did you learn them from? Who did you learn it from?
13. Tell me, briefly, about your philosophy of education.
14. How has it changed from when you first started teaching in higher education as opposed to now?
15. What things have helped or hindered you in your development as a faculty member?

16. What are some of the ways you reflect upon your classes to gauge how the class went?
17. Is there anything you would like to add that we haven't discussed?

Is there anything that you have shared during the interview that you would like me to keep in confidence? Do you have any specific issues related to confidentiality?

Thank you for your time. I very much appreciate your insights. If there is anything that, upon reflection, you would like to add or discuss further, please let me know.

Appendix C

Participant Classroom Observation Guide

Participant Pseudonym _____ Date Time _____ Location _____

- Describe the classroom space (i.e., number of students, seating arrangement, and participant's seating arrangement).
- Is there a teaching assistant/in-class tutor/lab technician present in the room? If yes, describe the extent of his/her involvement and relationship with the participant.
- Describe the instructional topic/content.
- Describe participant's teaching style(s) (i.e., lecture, group discussion, group activity, etc.)
- Describe instructional tools used (i.e., books, computers, audio/visual, board, etc.).
- How does the participant engage students (i.e., whole class, small-group, one-to-one, etc.)?
- With whom is the participant interacting during each of the activities (whole class, individuals, groups)?
- What is the purpose of each interaction?
- What is the participant's role in each of these activities?
- Describe the assignment(s) the participant assigns students to do in class.
- Describe the assignment(s) the participant assigns students to do outside class.
- Describe the feedback that the participant offers students during each activity.
- Describe the participant's relationship with students in class.
    - Does the participant talk to the students before/after class?
    - Describe the content of conversations between the participant and students.

Appendix D

Connoisseurship of Teaching in Higher Education
Robert Southard
March 2017

The purpose of the information in this guide is to help explain the method for unitizing and coding interviews with award winning professors. The coded message units will be used as data in a study of how award winning professors develop themselves and their classes to meet the varied needs of their students. There are two steps to this analysis.

Unitizing

The principal unit of analysis in the present study are Strategies of Award Winning Professors (SAWP). During interviews, there may be several strategies that may be coded separately. The SAWP is a single idea that will stand on its own that gives information about practices of the participants in this study. The SAWP could be one word, phrase, sentence, or more. It could be a few paragraphs that answer or ask a question.

The decisive criterion in deciding whether the interviews contain one or several ideas is to determine "the mind of the speaker." That is, what was the stream of behavior the speaker appeared to have in mind as he/she responded to interview questions. The following quote is an example of a single SAWP that would be coded "Current Practices":

I'm a chameleon. I say that in that when I teach the undergrad, I'm going to do a lot more as far as providing them information, working, trying different avenues. I'll provide them outlines. I'll provide them the overheads. I'll have the audio they can record, whatever.

Another example of a single unit that would, in its entirety, be coded "Description of Student Maturity" is:

I'll see some that are coming from having left school, done some lifetime experiences, and come back. I find a real difference between those and the ones that are moving forward. Also, there's a significant difference in maturity between those that have a set goal where they're going and those that are just still trying to find their way. "What am I doing? Why am I doing it? I think I'll do a master's or do something like that." Every once in a while, we even get that at the doctoral level, unfortunately.

Coding

Each separate SAWP is then coded according to the coding system below. An SAWP may be coded multiple times. Each coding category that applies to a given SAWP will be coded.

For example, the following passage is coded three times:

With the graduate students, they read research. With the undergraduate students, we read not a ton ... Doctoral students then we're critiquing research. The master's students we read longer pieces, we read books, we read longer articles that are describing the philosophy behind the strategies. In the undergraduate courses we're reading very short, this is how to do it. At the master's level, we're reading more about why we're doing it that way. For example, in the undergraduate class we would just read an article that maybe describes a couple kinds of discussion, but in the master's class we're reading several chapters out of books on discussion kind of thing.

The quote provides information to the difference between undergraduate and graduate, and would be coded "Difference Between Undergraduate and Graduate" and it also shows a Current Practice and is coded "Current Practice".

Current Practices

Code CP-1 Undergraduate Practices

This code is used to identify SAWPs that show what practices professors use for their undergraduate classes.

I'm a chameleon. I say that in that when I teach the undergrad, I'm going to do a lot more as far as providing them information, working, trying different avenues. I'll provide them outlines. I'll provide them the overheads. I'll have the audio they can record, whatever.

Code CP-2 Graduate Practices

This code is used to identify SAWPs that provide evidence of deviation countering.

Really for my graduate, I expect them to put in a lot more time. I expect them to have a better ... For the undergrads, if they want to say, "Here's a piece of research. Oh, I know about this study. I did this, this, this." My graduate students, I want them to bring in the name of the individual. I want them to be cognizant of who's doing what and how to develop that full picture.

Code CP-3 Modeling

This code is used to identify SAWPs that show evidence of the use of modeling as a teaching strategy and current practice.

The main strategies that I try to model ... The way that I approach teaching teachers is that I take the material, the readings or whatever, and then I choose a strategy that I would have used with high school students to have us work with that document. The reading is different and the reading is longer. It's about teaching, but we use the same types of strategies. I try to use lots of different ones, but there are so many different teaching strategies that I can't do all of them. I try to focus on showing them how to do discussion oriented strategies, strategies that get students

talking to each other. I do hardly any lecture because they already know how to do that. They've seen good and bad ones and they get how to do that. I don't need to model that.

Code CP-4 Groups

This code is used to identify SAWPs that show evidence of the use of breaking the students into groups as a teaching strategy and current practice.

. I found if you split them in a group of four students, and then have them talk about it, and then they get their ideas down, and then they share them with the group, they're more apt to say what their ideas are.

Code CP-5 Authenticity

This code is used to identify SAWPs that must do with authenticity in teaching. Key phrases that meet this criterion can include, "real world examples" and "stories from previous experience"

I think the most important thing, and I don't know that this is different though because it was the same when I was teaching junior high and high school is that learning needs to be authentic. For people to be motivated to do it, the task needs to be authentic, the question needs to be authentic. It needs to be something that people in the real-world quote unquote are wrestling with and working to solve, so I apply that to my university teaching.

Description of Student Maturity

DSM-1 Life Goals

This code is used to identify SAWPs that talk specifically about the goals of students. This can include life experiences and life direction phrases.

I'll see some that are coming from having left school, done some lifetime experiences, and come back. I find a real difference between those and the ones that are moving forward. Also, there's a significant difference in maturity between those that have a set goal where they're going and those that are just still trying to find their way. "What am I doing? Why am I doing it? I think I'll do a master's or do something like that." Every occasionally, we even get that at the doctoral level, unfortunately.

DSM-2 Ability to take Feedback

This code is used to identify SAWPs that make specific reference to student's ability to accept constructive critical feedback

Most of them are quite mature about receiving that constructive feedback and respond to it well, certainly at the graduate level they all do, but even at the undergraduate level where they're younger. Part of it is they take a lot of history classes and the history

department is rigorous. They don't come to us expecting to always get A's. I think that's maybe truer across the secondary programs that our students come to us knowing that not everyone is going to get an A and that kind of stuff. A lot of them really seek your advice and seek ways to improve, and I'm always really impressed by that.

DSM-3 Need for Remediation

This code is used when respondents refer to the need for remediation from the students. This could include postponing education to gain maturity.

On an undergraduate level, is probably where we must do the most work, and that respect that we do get. Some that are not ready to be mature. We used to have a more finite process for getting in to our program, that we could say you're not in yet, go away. Go mature, go do something and come back. Take some more classes. It's kind of turned more in to how education, the trend that I'm seeing it's all about remediation.

DSM-4 Transition Back to School

This code identifies refers to adult students and students just out of an undergraduate program into a graduate program.

I see that people that have been out of school for a while that are coming back, or getting an alternative route to teacher certification are more serious, they often have families of all shapes, sizes and sorts. They often are more dedicated to their work.

Difference Between Undergraduate and Graduate Students

DBUG-1 Life Experience

Responses coded DBUG-1 are instances when the participants use the life experiences of the students as a descriptor of their differences.

I think with the graduate students; their life experience shows more. I think they would be the ones to consider the affective factors when they're teaching, and teaching the child.

DBUG -2 Educational Ability Level

This category specifically provides information about the difference between undergraduate and graduate students by their educational ability.

With the graduate students, they read research. With the undergraduate students, we read not a ton ... Doctoral students then we're critiquing research. The master's students we read longer pieces, we read books, we read longer articles that are

describing the philosophy behind the strategies. In the undergraduate courses, we're reading very short, this is how to do it. At the master's level, we're reading more about why we're doing it that way. For example, in the undergraduate class we would just read an article that maybe describes a couple kinds of discussion, but in the master's class we're reading several chapters out of books on discussion kind of thing.

DBUG -3 Student Qualities

Responses coded DBUG-3 are instances when respondents list student personality qualities or student characteristics such as leadership ability, caring, or collaboration among peers.

They tend to be more the leaders in the class, which kind of we expect from them. If there are going to be two graduate level students in an undergrad class, they should take some leadership in some way. A lot of times it seems to be that, they're all in the lab together and they're the ones remembering, you've got to do this, or this is how you do this. That sort of thing

Knowledge to Teach in a University

KTU-1 Prior Education Experience

Respondents who states they learned how to teach at a university level from their experience in K-12

I've been credentialed K through 12. Working with the different age groups has taught me there must be diverse ways and different approaches.

KTU-2 Learning Styles

This category provides information about how participants use learning styles in their classes to increase student learning.

Second thing, you must be cognizant of the type of learners you have. Some are going to be auditory. Some are going to be visual. Some are going to be kinesthetic. You try to hit upon the various kinds of learning style, realizing that some you're going to touch in diverse ways more effectively than others.

KTU-3 Learn from Other Teachers

Respondents listed that listed that they learned how to teach university level teaching through observation and learning from other educators.

I had to observe excellent teachers. I sought non-examples in my doctoral program of people who were not good university communicators any classroom, and I saw some of the most excellent people. I'm an observer, I watched a lot of good teaching. Then I come from a family of

7 children, so I'm not real shy around people I don't know, and I don't have a huge problem with talking in public.

KTU-4 Realism

This category provides information about the importance of realism and credibility.

I think there's a level of credibility that you've been there. You're not asking them to do something that you never did. I think it adds a level of realism in that, okay, you say an education happens this way, and this is what you should do, but if you're in the trenches, this is what really happens. Let's try to keep it developmentally appropriate, and all those kinds of things, but let's be real.

Philosophy of Education

PE-1 Philosophy of Education

Respondents gave information on their personal philosophy of education.

I think you must practice what you preach. I think that that's probably the one that's most tried and true, that if I'm going to ask you something, ask you to do something, I should be doing that too. That's been a big one for me. That I'm asking you to write these lesson plans, I've written these lesson plans. I explain to them, I was in your seat, the different place, thinking why do I got to write 8-page lesson plans. I said because you don't understand it yet, like an experienced teacher.

PE-2 Changes in Philosophy

This category provides information on whether or not the philosophy of education have changed over time.

It wane's sometimes, it depends on the semester, and it's usually my own energy level, or maybe personal things going on in my life, but I'm still a passionate teacher. I don't care if I'm teaching when I'm 80 years old, I still want to convey passion. In most of my course evaluations that I get over the years, that's the common theme, that it's clear you're passionate about what you're trying to help us learn. I don't want that kudo because it sounds good, I want it because I'm conveying that, because I think it's contagious, and I think that if you allow people to shine by letting yourself shine, then it gives them permission to shine.

Self-Reflection Process

SRP-1 Frequency of Reflections

Respondents provided information about how often they go through their self-reflection processes.

I constantly go back and try to evaluate what I did, and how I did, and how effective was. For me, it's again, experience-wise, I've developed a bag of tricks, you might say, or a bag of examples, or various things that I've run across. For me, I'm struggling a little bit with this because I've had classes where I've taught it very similar across semesters. In one case, the class clicked, and everything was great. There were other times where you just wonder, what the heck is happening here?

SRP-2 Reflection Methods

This category provides information about how respondents reflect upon their teaching.

We also in our department we do a peer review process where we have our colleagues come and observe us teaching and we prepare a whole portfolio of information about that and everything, so we do a fairly extensive supportive, and it's all confidential, it's all formative assessment. It's not evaluative but we just provide feedback to each other.

Hindrances to Development of Faculty

These codes were generated using Grounded Theory (see Glaser and Strauss, 1967) and they emerged from the data during the coding procedure.

HDF-1 Time

Respondents provided information about possible hindrances to their development as a faculty member. This category come from the respondent listing time as a hindrance.

Time, back to that. Time, because I find myself with all the other administrative duties and everything else that's going on, and I've taken a lot more on than I've ever had in the last 4 years, that you feel pressured to ... I remember a time where the main thing I worried about, my daily goal, every single day was to teach my class as best as I possibly could, and I loved it.

HDF-2 Paternalism

This information comes from a respondent that lists paternalism as a hindrance to their development as a faculty member.

Paternalism. The first chair of the department that I had when I first came to the university was very, very paternalistic, very negative toward female professors, very solicitous of male professors. That was a very, very big challenge for me. Because, it was inherently wrong, in my opinion it was injustice, and I was in a powerless position as a nontenured, brand-new female professor. I went to 3 other professors on faculty who are women, and I just said, "How have you dealt with this all these years?" I honestly wanted an answer, because I wanted to stay here, I wanted my career here. The situation was untenable, I was like, "I'm not going to be used."

HDF-2 Technology

Technology is often listed as something that has helped develop faculty members. In this study some respondents listed technology as a hindrance.

I can't figure out exactly why it happened, but in some ways I like to blame technology, that the more technology we have, the more we ask the faculty person to do that work.

Aided Development of Faculty

These codes were generated using Grounded Theory (see Glaser and Strauss, 1967) and they emerged from the data during the coding procedure.

ADF-1 Learn How to Save Time for Self

This category provides information about how award winning professors divide their time to meet their goals.

"Schedule time with yourself. Give yourself 4 hours one afternoon, or one morning a week that it's your time. When someone says to you, 'I need to meet with you Doctor' you say, 'I have an appointment.' They don't need to know that it's with yourself, and you use those 4 hours to write, or prepare, just protect that time, and meet with students, and that kind of thing." That would be the advice.

ADF-2 Collaboration

Participants listed collaboration between colleagues as a main source of development for faculty.

Collaboration. Finding like-minded people who have the skill set I don't have, and the balance with that. For example, my work husband, no hanky-panky, we're married to 2 different people, but we publish together often. I'm a great starter, and he's a great finisher. If we're working on a paper, I might work the method and the introduction, and then he does the results of discussion. Then we bring our doctoral students in. Collaborating with my colleagues, he's at another university, but collaborating with my colleagues here, communicating, don't get isolated.

ADF-2 Combining Research and Instruction

This category provides information on how participants combine research topics and their teaching to help them meet their goals and inform their practices.

One of the things that has helped me overall because it's an issue of time, is combining my research and my instruction. There was a long time that I had my research time and I had my teaching time. Then I started realizing, hey the teaching time and the research time can sort of be

the same, not in all capacities, but doing a better job of combining that I think has helped and that frees up time. The things that you do you can do better.

Appendix E

From: IRB Administration
Sent: Friday, July 08, 2016 11:21 AM
To: Robert Southard
Cc: Maria Witte
Subject: Approval, Protocol #16-232 EP 1607

Use for protocol-related submissions and for questions and information. The IRB only accepts forms posted at and submitted electronically.

Dear Mr. Southard,

Your protocol entitled "Connoisseurship of Teaching in High Education" has received approval as "Expedited" under federal regulation 45 CFR 46.110(6,7).

Official notice:
This e-mail serves as official notice that your protocol has been approved. A formal approval letter will not be sent unless you notify us that you need one. By accepting this approval, you also accept your responsibilities associated with this approval. Details of your responsibilities are attached. Please print and retain.

Informed Consent:
Attached is a scan of your new, stamped informed consent. You must provide a copy for each participant to keep. Also attached is a copy of your approved protocol.

Expiration:
Your protocol will expire on July 7, 2017. Put that date on your calendar now. About three weeks before that time you will need to submit a final report or renewal request.

When you have completed all research activities, have no plans to collect additional data and have destroyed all identifiable information as approved by the IRB, please submit a final report.

If you have any questions, please let us know.

Best wishes for success with your research!

Sarah Bethea
Office of Research Compliance

Appendix F

Basic Demographic Survey
Alias:
Age:
Ethnicity:
Department:
Years Teaching:
Do You Teach: Undergraduate Graduate