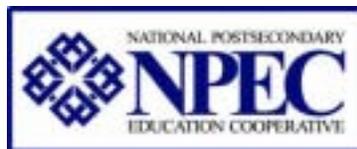




# **Faculty Professional Choices in Teaching That Foster Student Success**

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## FACULTY PROFESSIONAL CHOICES IN TEACHING THAT FOSTER STUDENT SUCCESS

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The topic of college student success receives an immense amount of attention in the literature. The files of the Education Resource Information Center identify 9,287 documents that designate *college student success* as key words. During the last 10 years, 1,273 publications in *Education Abstracts* indicated *college student success* as key words. Moreover, *Dissertation Abstracts* registers 2,086 dissertations completed during the last 10 years that list *college student success* as key words.

Such a flurry of activity strongly signifies a topic of great interest. However, college student success stands as a topic that cries out for some form of systematic empirical attention. Without the benefit of such scholarly attention, uninformed, ad hoc views on student success and ways to achieve it will emerge. Moreover, achieving student success requires attention by state higher education public policymakers and the leadership of individual colleges and universities. In 1988, Peter Ewell wrote “assessing and improving the outcomes of undergraduate instruction have recently taken on a new urgency in public dialogue” (p. 53). He added that the effectiveness of undergraduate education and questions of how “effectiveness” is defined and achieved shaped this dialogue. These same issues and questions occupy the attention and dialogue of public policymakers in the 21st century.

Focusing systematic empirical attention on postsecondary student success requires substantial clarity on the meaning of college student success to pave the way for the development of theoretical perspectives on achieving postsecondary student success. The development of policies and practices to achieve student success by state higher education public policymakers and by individual colleges and universities requires clarity in both these areas.

Accordingly, the ultimate purpose of this report is the formulation of a theory of faculty professional choices in teaching role performance that contributes to student success. This theory centers on faculty teaching role performance because postsecondary institution faculty members bear the primary responsibility for most forms of postsecondary student success. This assertion becomes evident subsequently in this report.

Formulating this theory required clarity in the meaning of postsecondary student success in order to identify those indicators of student success that the theory endeavors to explain and predict. Thus, the second purpose of this report was to use the literature on the effects of postsecondary education (or institutions) on students to delineate markers of college student success and classify them into domains of postsecondary student success. This literature describes expected and actual outcomes for postsecondary education. A student who attains one of these expected or actual outcomes experiences some degree of success.

The third purpose of this report was the delineation of various sources of influence on faculty teaching role performance as well as those aspects of teaching role performance that contribute to the identified indicators of student success. The fourth purpose of this report was to develop recommendations for policy and practice that could be implemented by state higher education public policymakers, the central administration of colleges and universities, and the chairpersons of academic departments. These recommendations spring from the formulations and hypotheses of the theory of

faculty professional choices in teaching role performance and the various influences on student success delineated in this report.

Taken together, these four purposes could help move the communities of research and practice toward addressing the topic of student success from an empirical base. These purposes also provided an organizing framework for this report. Because carrying out the literature review on indicators of student success and the influence on and by faculty are central to the construction of the theory of faculty professional choices in teaching role performance, these sections precede the section A Theory of Faculty Professional Choices in Undergraduate College Teaching Role Performance.

### **Markers of Student Success**

The literature on the effects of college on students affords a good starting place for identifying indicators of college student success. This literature delineates expected and actual outcomes for higher education. If a student attains one of these expected or actual outcomes of higher education, that student experiences some degree of success.

I used the writings of Astin and Panos (1969, 1977, 1993), Banta (1985), Baird (1976), Becker (1964), Bowen (1977,1996), Feldman and Newcomb (1969), Lenning, Munday, Johnson, Vander Weil, and Brue (1974), Pace (1979), Pascarella and Terenzini (1991, 2005), and Willingham (1985) to delineate a wide range of signifiers of college student success. I arrayed these indicators of college student success into eight categories: academic attainment, acquisition of general education, development of academic competence, development of cognitive skills and intellectual dispositions, occupational attainment, preparation for adulthood and citizenship, personal accomplishments, and personal development. Within each category, some signifiers of student success represent a threshold of success, some represent varying degrees of success, and others denote a notable accomplishment. With the exception of occupational attainment and preparation for adulthood and citizenship, the indicators within each category apply during a student's undergraduate college career. I describe the various indicators of student success for each of the eight categories in the following subsections.

#### **Academic Attainment**

This particular category of signifiers of student success contains threshold indicators, varying degrees of success, and significant accomplishments. Threshold indicators include persistence in college (Lenning et al., 1974; Astin, 1977), persistence to the senior year (Willingham, 1985), early graduation or earning the bachelor's degree on time (Willingham, 1985), and the choice of a major (Pascarella and Terenzini, 1991). In comparison, the meeting of graduation requirements for more than one academic major (Willingham, 1985) connotes more than a minimal level of success.

Grades also constitute a measure of success (Lenning et al., 1974; Astin, 1977, 1993). Although earning the necessary grades for continued enrollment and graduation takes the form of a threshold type of indicator of success, graduation with honors at the college or departmental level are notable accomplishments and indicate a high level of student success (Astin, 1977, 1993). A senior honors project completed with distinction also represents a high level of student success (Willingham, 1985).

Academic learning offers another indicator of student success (Lenning et al., 1974; Astin, 1977, 1993). Lenning et al. (1974) define academic learning as the amount of knowledge gained.

Examinations given in courses provide one way to assess the extent of academic learning. Performance on standardized tests provides another gauge of academic learning (Astin, 1993). Such tests include the Graduate Record Examination (GRE), the Law School Admissions Test (LSAT), and the Medical College Admissions Test (MCAT). The degree of student success attained varies according to student performance on such tests.

Like graduation with honors, admission and enrollment in graduate or professional school signify a high level of student success (Baird, 1976; Willingham, 1985; Astin & Panos, 1969, 1977). Admission to medical, law, or Ph.D. programs is a particularly noteworthy student accomplishment (Willingham, 1985).

### **Acquisition of General Education**

In terms of the undergraduate curriculum, general education assumes the role of providing a common educational experience for all students (Gaff, 1983). This common experience affords students with opportunities to attain success. The forms of success center on the acquisition of a general knowledge of the arts and sciences (Pace, 1979) and an appreciation of ideas (Feldman & Newcomb, 1969). The various markers of student success reflective of this domain are neither threshold nor significant accomplishments.

Bowen (1977, 1996) points to the acquisition of what he calls substantive knowledge. Substantive knowledge entails a familiarity with the cultural heritage of the western world and acknowledgement of other traditions. He also posits a familiarity with current thinking in philosophy, the natural sciences, art, and literature as aspects of substantive knowledge. Willingham (1985) also calls learning about the significant cultures of the world a marker of college student success. Pace (1979, p. 84) concurs by pointing to a familiarity with different philosophies, cultures, and ways of life.

To this list of indicators of student success through the acquisition of general education, Pace (1979) adds an understanding of scientific developments and their application in society, and the development of an understanding and enjoyment of literature, art, and music. Bowen (1977, 1996) labels as aesthetic sensibility knowledge of literature and the fine arts. Behavioral indicators of such success include attending lectures and cultural events and listening to classical music (Feldman & Newcomb, 1969).

Additional signifiers of student success in this realm include developing a knowledge of community and social problems (Feldman & Newcomb, 1969; Willingham, 1985) as well as world problems (Feldman & Newcomb, 1969).

### **Development of Academic Competence**

The development of academic competence constitutes a domain of student success. The development of academic competence includes writing and speaking in a clear, correct, and effective manner (Pace, 1979; Bowen, 1977, 1996; Warren, 1978), reading and mathematical skills (Bowen, 1977, 1996; Willingham, 1985), and competency in a foreign language (Astin, 1993; Willingham, 1985). To writing and speaking competence, Bowen (1977, 1996) adds the ability to effectively organize and present ideas in writing and in discussion and to deal with simple statistical data and statistical reasoning to mathematical or quantitative competence. The attainment of these competencies is not threshold or significant accomplishments.

Beyond such basic skills, academic competence centers on academic achievement in a major field of study (Banta, 1985; Astin & Panos, 1969, 1977, 1993; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). More specifically, meeting the requirements for a major constitutes a threshold indicator of major academic field competence, whereas the mastery of the vocabulary, facts, and principles in one or more selected academic fields represents a significant accomplishment (Bowen, 1977, 1996).

### **Development of Cognitive Skills and Intellectual Dispositions**

Pascarella and Terenzini (1991, 2005) assert that cognitive skills transcend the learning of specific subject matter knowledge. Cognitive skills endure beyond such subject matter knowledge acquisition as they represent an assortment of general intellectual skills and competencies (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991, 2005). The development of such cognitive skills constitutes significant indicators of student success.

Critical thinking (Astin & Panos, 1969; Astin, 1977, 1993), analytical and problem-solving skills (Astin, 1993), and the ability to analyze and synthesize knowledge (Warren, 1978; Pace, 1979; Bowen, 1977, 1996) are general terms used to describe such cognitive skills. Pace (1979) offers one elaboration as he views critical thinking as logic, inference, and the nature and limitations of knowledge. Bowen (1996) calls such cognitive skills rationality. He delineates rationality as a cluster of cognitive skills such as the ability to weigh evidence and evaluate facts and ideas critically. Willingham (1985) adds dealing with facts in contrast to simply memorizing them. Reasoning, the evaluation of information, and the development of defensible arguments constitute further perspectives on general cognitive skills (Willingham, 1985). An additional cognitive skill includes the formation of thinking methods or procedures, principles, and generalizations for practical application in a student's life after graduation (Lenning et al., 1974).

The development of intellectual interests, an orientation toward intellectual activities, and intellectual values and attitudes provide further marks of college student success. Such intellectual dispositions include the development of good academic work habits (Willingham, 1985), the development of an interest in intellectual and cultural matters (Feldman & Newcomb, 1969), an increase in intellectual activity (Feldman & Newcomb, 1969), and the acquisition of such attitudes and values as intellectual tolerance, intellectual integrity, wisdom, and lifelong learning (Bowen, 1977, 1996).

Bowen (1977, 1996) describes intellectual tolerance as an openness to new ideas and a willingness to question orthodoxy. Feldman and Newcomb (1969) view intellectual tolerance as being less dogmatic in one's thinking and being receptive to new ideas. Other aspects of intellectual tolerance include intellectual curiosity, an ability to deal with complexity and ambiguity, freedom of the mind, and an understanding of the limits of knowledge and thought (Bowen, 1977, 1996).

The development of intellectual integrity includes an inclination to seek and speak the truth, meticulous attention to inquiry and accuracy in the reporting of results, and a comprehension of the notion of truth and its contingent nature (Bowen, 1977, 1996). To Bowen, wisdom as an indicator of student success connotes a balanced perspective, judgment, and prudence.

The development of a proclivity for lifelong learning represents another marker of college student success. Bowen (1977, 1996) views lifelong learning as a love of learning that manifests itself in a continuation of intellectual interests after leaving college and which includes a knowledge of how to learn.

## **Occupational Attainment**

Threshold markers of college student success for occupational attainment include getting a sense of direction regarding a career (Willingham, 1985), being stable in the choice of a career (Astin, 1977; Astin & Panos, 1969), and obtaining employment in a career after graduation (Astin, 1977; Astin & Panos, 1969). More difficult to attain indicators of success include obtaining a job in the same field as one's college major and receiving career training directly applicable to a job after graduation (Pace, 1979). To Willingham (1985), success entails receiving professional training for the work a student aspires to do. Bowen (1977, 1996) labels these indicators *economic productivity*.

Other indicators of student success in occupational attainment include experiencing job satisfaction (Astin, 1977; Astin & Panos, 1969), obtaining a job classified as professional, semiprofessional, or managerial (Pace, 1979), and outstanding job performance (Ewell, 1985). Indices of outstanding job performance include level of responsibility, income, and awards or special recognition (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). These indicators apply after college students have graduated and represent a significant level of accomplishment.

Other indicators of student success that represent significant levels of accomplishment include having a job in which there is an opportunity to use one's special abilities, having the opportunity to be creative and original, and having an opportunity to attain social status and prestige (Feldman & Newcomb, 1969). This group of markers of student success also manifest themselves after college graduation.

## **Preparation for Adulthood and Citizenship**

College attendance shapes social skills and personal habits important for adult living (Feldman & Newcomb, 1969; Bowen, 1977, 1996). The development of such skills and habits supplies us with a set of indicators of college student success.

The development of skills necessary for functioning in the middle and upper middle class (Becker, 1964; Feldman & Newcomb, 1969) represents one set of indicators of student success. These social skills include manners, poise, how to present oneself and one's ideas in an acceptable manner, and how to lead a group (Feldman & Newcomb, 1969). Such personal habits include meeting deadlines, starting and finishing tasks, budgeting one's time, and effort and doing several things at one time and keeping them straight (Feldman & Newcomb, 1969). The attainment of these social skills and personal habits lie between threshold and notable accomplishments.

Bowen (1977, 1996) delineates other social skills and personal habits important for adulthood. These include personal qualities needed for a stable family, knowledge and skills needed for child rearing, sensible lifestyle choices, and the judicious allocation of time among work, leisure, and other activities. He also adds a knowledge of basic principles necessary for physical and mental health and knowing how and when to use professional health care. These additional markers of student success form a middle ground between threshold markers and makers denoting significant accomplishments.

Various manifestations of citizenship provide further markers of student success. A threshold mark of success related to citizenship entails understanding and having an interest in civic and political affairs (Pace, 1979). Bowen (1977, 1996) provides types of knowledge and skill needed for citizenship. The acquisition of these types of knowledge and skills through college attendance supply us with additional indications of student success that occupy the middle ground between the extremes of

threshold and notable accomplishments. Such types of knowledge and skills include a knowledge of government and its procedures, the ability to deal with bureaucracies, and an ability to evaluate propaganda and political arguments. Other indicators identified by Bowen include a disposition toward observance of the law and the development of an awareness of major social issues. A more extensive marker of success involves the development of a sense of responsibility for participation in community and civic affairs (Pace, 1979). Moreover, participation in local and national politics (Astin, 1977; Astin & Panos, 1969), especially appointment or election to office, denotes a higher level of accomplishment or success.

### **Personal Accomplishments**

This category of indicators of college student success involves extracurricular achievements. Threshold markers include work on the college newspaper staff, service as a student member on a college or university committee, and participation in one more intercollegiate athletic teams (Astin, 1977).

More important indications of student success include election to student office (Astin, 1977), election by students to serve in positions of major responsibility (Willingham, 1985), and selection by the college or university to serve as a residential hall advisor or an admissions tour guide (Willingham, 1985). Having a major part in a play, publication of original writings, and authoring or co-authoring an article in a scholarly publication (Astin, 1977) represent additional significant student accomplishments.

### **Personal Development**

Personality development and adjustment and moral and philosophical development (Baird, 1976) constitute two primary realms of markers of student success associated with personal development. For some students, the attainment of these markers of success symbolizes a threshold level; for other students, their attainment represents a notable accomplishment.

Many indicators of student success associated with personality development and adjustment exist. Pascarella and Terenzini (1991, 2005) differentiate two forms of psychosocial personal development. One form pertains to internal, psychologically oriented attributes, whereas the other form involves an individual's orientation toward the external world.

Indicators of student success associated with internal psychosocial development include the development of interpersonal and intellectual self-esteem (Astin, 1977) and being able to make one's own decisions (Pace, 1979). Others consist of self-discovery, development of personal identity, attainment of psychological stability and self-sufficiency, and development of self-understanding and emotional maturity (Bowen, 1977, 1996; Feldman & Newcomb, 1969). Willingham (1985) adds the clarification of one's values as a signifier of student success among college students. Bowen (1977, 1996) augments these types of indicators by delineating such aspects of personal self-discovery as the development of a knowledge of one's own talents, interests, aspirations, and weaknesses. He also delineates additional indices of student success centered on psychological well-being such as a sense of security, self-reliance, decisiveness, and the ability to express emotions in a constructive manner.

Further indices of student success involving internally focused psychosocial development consist of attributes Bowen (1977, 1996) labels *adaptability*. These attributes encompass the ability to cope with problems in a versatile and resourceful way, the ability to learn from experience, and the development of a capacity to accept change.

Externally centered markers of success regarding psychosocial personality development and adjustment incorporate skills in relating to other people, developing tolerance and understanding of other people, learning how to get along with other people (Pace, 1979), and the formation of friendships and loyalties that endure (Pace, 1979), as well as development of skills and confidence in interacting with different kinds of people (Willingham, 1985). Students also view the development of a meaningful relationship with another person as an indicator of student success (Willingham, 1985).

Bowen (1977, 1996) furnishes additional externally focused markers of student success involving psychosocial personality development and adjustment. An orientation toward the future and a capacity for human understanding constitute these particular clusters of markers of college student success. The development of an ability to plan ahead, the development of a tendency to be prudent in taking risks, and the formation of a realistic view toward the future are indicators associated with an orientation toward the future. The psychosocial externally focused attribute that Bowen called a capacity for human understanding includes such markers as the development of skills in communicating with others, that is, the formation of empathy, thoughtfulness, and an attitude of respect and cooperation toward others in general and individuals from different backgrounds in particular.

In addition to internally and externally centered psychosocial indices of student success, Baird (1976) denotes moral and philosophical development as a second broad category of signifiers of student success associated with personal development. More specifically, Pace (1979) points to the development of moral capacities and ethical standards. Bowen (1977, 1996) elaborates further by identifying the development of a valid, internalized, and undogmatic set of values and moral principles, the development of moral sensitivity and courage, and the formation of a social consciousness, and a commitment to social responsibility.

These eight domains of student success provide considerable clarity to the meaning of student success. Such clarity provides a foundation for the development of a theory of faculty professional choices in teaching role performance that enhances student success.

### **Student Course Learning: A Fundamental Contributor to Student Success**

Student course-level learning constitutes a fundamental contributor to the attainment of markers of student success encompassed by six of the eight domains of student success described above. These six domains are academic attainment, acquisition of general education, development of academic competence, development of cognitive skills and intellectual dispositions, occupational attainment, and preparation for adulthood and citizenship. Although the achievement of specific markers of student success within each of these six domains may depend on course content, course-level learning remains paramount. For student success associated with the domains of personal accomplishments and personal development, student course-level learning plays, at best, an indirect role.

Because of its fundamental role in the attainment of college student success associated with six of the eight domains of success delineated in this report, student course-level learning emerges as the primary focus of faculty teaching role performance. The next section of this report concentrates on the identification of potential sources of influence on faculty teaching role performance and on those aspects of teaching role performance that may influence student course-level learning.

## Faculty Teaching Role Performance

As indicated above, this section of the report centers on a literature-based delineation of potential sources of influence on faculty teaching role performance. However, I first concentrate on those aspects of faculty teaching role performance that enhance student course-level learning. This section, like the previous section, plays an important part in the formulation of the theory of faculty professional choices in teaching role performance that forms the ultimate objective of the report.

Faculty engage in teaching role performance within a system of external and internal influences (Braxton, 2002). Thus, the categories of plausible sources of influence outlined in this segment of the report range from student peer groups to state-level policies and practices. These possible sources of influence emerge from existing literature.

Moreover, “complex” best describes the professorial task of undergraduate college teaching role performance. Faculty teaching role performance includes such tasks as designing courses, preparing to teach, choosing pedagogical practices, assessing course activities, following the tenets of good teaching practices, engaging in the scholarship of teaching, and adhering to norms that proscribe inappropriate teaching behaviors. Professional preferences and choices determine how faculty perform these tasks. These teaching tasks contribute to student course-level learning. I describe each of these aspects of faculty teaching role performance below.

### Pedagogical Practices

Pedagogical practices range from faculty teaching skills to approaches or methods of teaching. Faculty members motivated to teach well acquire and apply such teaching skills and methods of instruction. Pascarella and Terenzini (1991, 2005) delineate teaching skills that positively influence student subject matter learning. These teaching skills, which faculty can acquire, include having a good command of the subject matter, explaining the course material clearly, structuring the course and using course time well, and using examples to identify key points. Further, research conducted in the 1990s continues to verify the effectiveness of these teaching skills (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Research shows the effectiveness of such pedagogical methods or approaches as cooperative and collaborative learning (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). However, these approaches require considerable planning and are sometimes difficult to implement in ways true to the specifications of the approach found in the literature.

In contrast, active learning requires much less faculty effort and time to implement. Moreover, research also demonstrates the efficacy of active learning in enhancing student course learning (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Anderson & Adams, 1992; Chickering & Gamson, 1987; Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991; McKeachie, Pintrich, Yi-Guang, & Smith, 1986). Active learning entails any class activity that “involves students in doing things and thinking about the things they are doing” (Bonwell & Eison, 1991, p. 2). Class discussions, debates, role-playing, and pair-group work are good examples of active learning.

Active learning need not be restricted to courses with small student enrollments. Faculty typically teach courses with large enrollments using the lecture method. However, faculty teaching such course can adopt the methods of “enhanced lectures” (Bonwell, 1996; Sutherland & Bonwell, 1996). Enhanced lectures use short mini-lectures followed by active learning activities (Bonwell, 1996).

In addition to enhanced lectures, the type of questions faculty ask students during class provide another way to actively engage students in their learning. Higher order thinking questions actively engage students in the content of their courses. Higher order questions require students to analyze, synthesize, or evaluate course content (Fischer & Grant, 1983; Braxton & Nordvall, 1985).

Higher order questioning by faculty members also may develop the higher order thinking abilities of students. Bloom (1956) hypothesized that careful instruction requiring students to use higher order thinking skills leads to the development of such skills.

### **Course Assessment Practices**

The assignments faculty give to students for the purpose of awarding grades portray what I mean by course assessment practices. Examinations, term papers, and other written exercises constitute typical graded course assignments.

Student course learning can result from student engagement in graded course assignments. Some research evidence shows that students' prior knowledge of the types of questions that will appear on an examination influences the way they study for the exam (Milton, 1982; Milton & Eison, 1983); further, a knowledge that there are expectations for them affects their learning (Ford, 1981). However, the use of assignments as a learning device requires that faculty carefully design such course assignments.

The level of understanding of course content provides a powerful framework for designing graded assignments. The level of understanding of course content required by students to receive a satisfactory grade on an assignment also influences students' learning of course content. The level of understanding of course content also provides a basis for setting the level of academic rigor for a course (Nordvall & Braxton, 1996). Bloom's (1956) *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Cognitive Domain* provides a schema for the design of course examination questions, instructions for term papers, and other written exercises that signify the level of understanding of course content displayed by students. Categories of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives range from the lowest to the highest level of understanding: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. The higher the level of understanding of course content that students must demonstrate on examinations, term papers, and other written assignments, the greater the level of student course learning achieved.

### **Good Teaching Practices**

Chickering and Gamson (1987) describe seven principles of good practice for undergraduate education, and a robust body of research shows that faculty adherence to these principles positively impacts student learning (Sorcinelli, 1991). Thus, faculty members who make a professional choice to apply these seven principles in their day-to-day teaching role performance enhance student learning of course content. Encouragement of student-faculty contact, encouragement of cooperation among students, encouragement of active learning, provision of prompt feedback, time on task, communication of high expectations, and respect for diverse talents and ways of knowing constitute the seven principles.

The encouragement of faculty-student contact entails frequent interaction between students and faculty both in and out of class. Frequent faculty-student contact enhances student motivation and involvement.

The second principle of good practice encourages cooperation among students. The sharing of ideas among students and reacting to the ideas of other students yields a positive effect on student learning.

The third principle centers on the encouragement of active learning. I previously discussed the importance of active learning as a pedagogical practice.

Appropriate feedback on student performance on course assignments enables students to appraise their understanding of course content. Opportunities for such feedback should be frequent. The provision of prompt feedback forms the fourth principle of good practice.

An emphasis of time on task constitutes the fifth principle of good teaching practice. Time on task is the amount of time devoted to learning course content.

The sixth principle involves the communication of high expectations. This principle entails both setting high standards for students, but also expecting them to meet them.

The seventh principle, respect for diverse talents and ways of knowing, recognizes that students have different skills and abilities and ways of learning. The enactment of this principle requires faculty to give students opportunities to show their skills and styles of learning to their best advantage.

### **The Scholarship of Teaching**

The development and improvement of pedagogical practices depicts the goal of the scholarship of teaching (Braxton, Luckey, & Helland, 2002). Classroom research and the development of pedagogical content knowledge provide a foundation for the development and improvement of pedagogical practices (Paulsen, 2001; Braxton, Luckey, & Helland, 2002; and Paulsen & Feldman, in press). Classroom research consists of systemic inquiries conducted to increase insight and understanding of the relationship between teaching and learning (Cross, 1990). Moreover, faculty engaged in classroom research use their own classrooms for such research. Faculty members engaged in classroom research focus on topics that emerge from their own teaching (Cross & Angelo, 1988). Ideally, faculty conducting classroom research use the results of their research to improve their own teaching and thereby student learning (Cross & Angelo, 1988). Classroom research becomes scholarship when the findings are put in such a form that they can be assessed by peers, are publicly observable, and exist in a form amenable to distribution and exchange with peers (Hutchings & Shulman, 1999).

Pedagogical content knowledge acknowledges that collegiate level teaching is both domain and subject specific (Shulman, 2002). Shulman (1987, p. 8) clarifies the meaning of pedagogical content knowledge by stating that “pedagogical content knowledge is of special interest because it identifies the distinctive bodies of knowledge for teaching. It represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction.” Thus, one focus of pedagogical content knowledge is the identification of ways to make subject matter understandable to students (Shulman, 1986).

Faculty members committed to improving their own teaching may engage in the development and refinement of pedagogical content knowledge for the courses they teach. Other faculty may focus on the development and improvement of pedagogical content knowledge to improve teaching in their particular academic discipline. The development and refinement of pedagogical content knowledge becomes

scholarship when the results of such efforts are put into a form amenable to review by peers and is made public so that peers can share and exchange this work (Hutchings & Shulman, 1999).

### **Adherence to Teaching Norms**

College and university faculty members enjoy considerable autonomy in the professional choices they make in their undergraduate teaching role performance (Braxton & Bayer, 1999; Braxton, Bayer, & Noseworthy, 2002). Without norms, faculty are free to make unconstrained and idiosyncratic choices in their teaching (Braxton, Bayer, & Noseworthy, 2002). Norms function to assure that college and university faculty members make choices in their teaching that protect the welfare of students as clients of teaching role performance (Braxton & Bayer, 1999). Norms perform this function by delineating prescribed and proscribed patterns of behavior (Merton, 1968, 1973).

A normative structure for undergraduate college teaching exists. This empirically derived normative structure consists of six inviolable patterns of proscriptions for teaching role performance pertinent to students (Braxton & Bayer, 1999). Inviolable norms refer to those patterns of behaviors that faculty believe should be severely sanctioned (Braxton & Bayer, 1999). This normative structure consists of the following six inviolable normative orientations that pertain to students as clients of teaching role performance: condescending negativism, inattentive planning, moral turpitude, particularistic grading, personal disregard, and uncommunicated course details.

The norm of *condescending negativism* rebukes the treatment of both students and colleagues in a condescending and demeaning way. The norm of *inattentive planning* censures a lack of planning for a course (e.g., required texts routinely are not ordered in time for the first class session; a course outline or syllabus is not prepared). The norm of *moral turpitude* prohibits depraved, unprincipled acts by faculty. The norm of *particularistic grading* condemns uneven or preferential treatment of students in the awarding of grades. Disrespect for the needs and sensitivities of students (e.g., profanity in class, poor hygiene by faculty) defines the norm of *personal disregard*. *Uncommunicated course detail*, the sixth normative pattern, castigates the failure of faculty members to inform students of important particulars about a course during the first day of class (e.g., changing class location to another building, changing class meeting time without consulting students, not informing students of the instructor's policy on missed or make-up examinations).

Research tends to demonstrate that faculty violations of these six inviolable normative patterns negatively affect the academic and intellectual development of students (Braxton, Bayer, & Noseworthy, 2004). Thus, faculty who heed these six inviolable normative orientations positively influence the academic and intellectual development of students. Academic and intellectual development provide an index of student course learning.

**The Influence of Student Peer Groups.** Student peer groups also affect the teaching role performance of college and university faculty members. More specifically, the values, norms, and behaviors of student peer groups impact the professional choice faculty members make in their teaching. Student classroom incivilities and student normative support for good practices in undergraduate education constitute ways student peer groups influence faculty teaching role performance.

Student peer groups exert considerable influence on student behavior (Pascarella, 1985; Weidman, 1989; Kuh, 1995). Any group of students with which individual students seek membership, acceptance, and approval constitutes a peer group (Astin, 1993; Newcomb, 1966). Accordingly, student peer groups

develop in such settings as residence halls, organized clubs and activities, intercollegiate and intramural athletics, and the classroom.

Some scholars assert that peer groups affect the level of student engagement in their courses by setting expectations for the study habits of group members (Baird, 1988; Kuh, 1990; Newcomb, 1966). Student peer groups wield their influence on students through the beliefs, language, norms, practices, and values that develop within a given peer group (Kuh and Whitt, 1998).

### **Classroom Incivilities**

Student behavior in the form of classroom incivilities negatively influences the teaching role performance of college and university faculty members. Two broad categories of incivilities spring from the work of Boice (1996): disrespectful disruptions and insolent inattention (Caboni, Hirschy, & Best, 2004; Hirschy & Braxton, 2005). Disrespectful disruptions take the form of active behaviors that negatively influence the learning of other students in the class such as talking while the instructor or other members of the class are talking, interrupting others while they are talking, reading the newspaper during class, receiving cellular telephone calls, and departing the class before being excused by the professor. Insolent inattention is exemplified by students who fail to pay attention in class.

Research tends to show that both disrespectful disruptions and insolent inattention negatively affect student perceptions of their academic and intellectual development (Hirschy & Braxton, 2005). These two forms of classroom incivilities also negatively influence faculty teaching role performance. Boice contends that inappropriate faculty classroom behaviors give rise to student classroom incivilities. Likewise, student classroom incivilities might prompt faculty to violate norms for undergraduate college teaching (Braxton & Bayer, 1999). Because student incivilities harm student learning and irritate faculty, faculty members may also experience less motivation to teach well.

Research tends to demonstrate that students espouse a normative pattern that proscribes insolent inattention but not disrespectful disruptions (Caboni, Hirschy, & Best, 2004). Given the existence of a norm that rebukes insolent inattention by students, faculty members will encounter insolent inattention less frequently than disrespectful disruptions.

### **Support for Good Teaching Practices**

As previously indicated, Chickering and Gamson (1987) describe seven principles of good practice for undergraduate education. Although faculty play a direct role in the implementation of these practices, their implementation may also depend on student support (Caboni, Mundy, & Duesterhaus, 2003). Four of the seven good teaching practices require student normative support: time on task, the communication of high expectations, the encouragement of faculty-student contact, and the encouragement of cooperation among students (Caboni, Munday, & Duesterhaus, 2003). More specifically, Caboni, Mundy, and Duesterhaus assert that student normative support fosters the successful enactment of one or more these four good teaching practices by faculty members. In contrast, a lack of student normative support for one or more of these good teaching practices reduces the likelihood of their successful execution by faculty.

Caboni, Mundy, and Duesterhaus (2003) found student normative support for three of these four good teaching practices. The three good teaching practices benefiting from student normative support are the encouragement of faculty-student contact, cooperation among students, and communication of

high expectations. Time on task failed to receive student normative support. Support and the lack of support for good teaching practices influence the choices faculty members make regarding the implementation of the good teaching practices delineated by Chickering and Gamson (1987).

**Organizational Influences.** Some scholars (Birnbaum, 1988; Ewell, 1985) hold that college and university administrators pay little attention to student learning. In contrast, Paulsen and Feldman (1995) point out that college teaching does not transpire in a vacuum. They add that college and university faculty members are members of an organization, and the culture of that organization can positively or negatively influence their teaching (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995). In addition, departmental administrative behavior indirectly influences student learning (Del Favero, 2002).

## Teaching Cultures

Teaching cultures place a high value on college teaching. Such cultures can occur at the level of the college or university or at the level of the academic department (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995). Eight characteristics derived from the research literature demarcate a teaching culture (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995).

The first defining characteristic entails commitment and support from high-level administrators of the institution. Senior administrators communicate the high value the institution places on teaching. They also accord high visibility to efforts focused on the improvement of teaching. Moreover, faculty must perceive that the high value being placed on teaching through words is not mere lip service. Other actions by senior administrators exhibit the high value the institution places on teaching.

The second defining characteristic of a teaching culture involves the pervasive involvement of faculty in every aspect of the planning and implementation of efforts to improve teaching. Such extensive faculty involvement contributes to the formation of shared values about teaching between faculty and administrators. Through extensive involvement and the sharing of values, faculty come to perceive that they possess ownership in the process.

The adoption of a broader definition of scholarship by the institution constitutes the third defining characteristic of a teaching culture. This particular characteristic finds manifestation in an institutional academic reward structure that places an appropriate balance between teaching and research. Such reward structures also give weight to faculty engagement in the scholarship of teaching, especially as it relates to the faculty member's academic discipline (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995).

The practice of a teaching demonstration or a pedagogical colloquium as part of the faculty selection process denotes the fourth salient characteristic of teaching cultures. Such a practice demonstrates the importance accorded teaching. A demonstration of a faculty candidate's teaching ability results from this practice. Shulman (1995) suggests three models for a pedagogical colloquium. The first model, the "course narrative or course argument" approach, involves the use of a syllabus by the faculty candidate to explain how he/she would teach a course, the topics to be covered, and the nature of the experience for both students and faculty. A faculty candidate displays his/her philosophy about teaching and learning through this model. The second approach entails a colloquium centered around an essential idea or topic. The candidate selects a difficult disciplinary concept for students to learn. The candidate describes the approaches he/she would use to help students learn the concept. The third approach is a "dilemma-centered colloquium." In this approach, a candidate is asked to "think out loud"

about a problem in teaching the discipline (e.g., the balance between breadth and depth in an introductory course).

The fifth demarcating characteristic of a teaching culture involves frequent interaction, collaboration, and community among faculty about issues pertaining to teaching. Paulsen and Feldman (1995) indicate that intrinsic rewards from teaching emerge from frequent opportunities for faculty to talk with their peers about teaching. Collaboration with other faculty members in teaching is another important aspect of this characteristic of teaching cultures. Team-teaching is one method of collaboration (LaCelle-Peterson & Finkelstein, 1993). The formation of a community of college teachers constitutes another attribute of this particular defining characteristic. A community of college teachers involves the sharing of ideas about teaching, intellectual stimulation around teaching, and a reduction in isolation many faculty interested in teaching frequently experience (Aitken & Sorcinelli, 1994).

The existence of a faculty development program or campus teaching center marks the sixth defining characteristic of teaching cultures (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995). The presence of either of these efforts focused on the improvement of teaching signifies a high value placed on teaching.

Supportive and effective department chairpersons constitute the seventh delimiting characteristic of a teaching culture (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995). Such chairpersons communicate the high value they place on teaching. The actions of such department chairs include providing their departmental colleagues with information on how teaching is valued, how one can use their time most effectively and the basis for allocating rewards (Rice & Austin, 1990).

The eighth characteristic of a teaching culture require that a relationship between a rigorous evaluation of teaching and decisions about tenure and promotion exists (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995). To elaborate, departments that value quality teaching also value a rigorous process of peer and student evaluation of teaching. The outcomes of such evaluations carry some weight in tenure and promotion decisions.

### **Administrative Behaviors in Academic Departments**

The behavior of college and university administrators indirectly influence student learning. Del Favero (2002) postulates that administrative behavior indirectly influences student learning in a positive way if such behavior supports the work of faculty members and fosters a learning climate.

The academic department provides the optimal setting for the influence of administrative behavior on student learning (Del Favero, 2002). The work of academic department administrators consists of resource management, program support, and student services. In performing the tasks of these domains of work, departmental administrators guide the activities of the department toward the enhancement of student learning. Such pertinent activities include student evaluation of teaching, student advisement, cooperative instructional activities, and faculty assessment.

Administrators play an important role in the process of student evaluation of teaching by providing the results of course assessments in a prompt manner to faculty (Del Favero, 2002). Departmental administrators should also conduct periodic reviews of the procedures followed in conducting student evaluations of teaching. Such reviews should determine if these procedures accomplish the goals of student evaluations of teaching. Departmental administrators should also communicate information regarding the instructional improvement services of the institution's faculty development and teaching

centers. By engaging in these activities related to student evaluation of teaching, departmental administrators assist faculty in improving and refining their teaching role performance.

Although faculty members perform those primary advising roles that relate to student learning, departmental administrators facilitate the advising role of faculty by providing students and faculty with routine information related to degree requirements and particular courses. The responsibility for the development and maintenance of such systems rests with departmental administrators (Del Favero, 2002).

Departmental administrators also indirectly influence student learning by assisting faculty members in their development of new learning experiences for students (Del Favero, 2002). Time commitments of faculty members may prohibit them from developing new instructional experiences. Departmental administrators can provide needed support to faculty to lessen the burden of time constraints. Such support includes administrative support or a graduate teaching assistant. Department chairs must demonstrate a commitment to assisting faculty members interested in trying new pedagogical techniques.

The assessment of faculty work should center attention on the development of guidelines and procedures for faculty to document the linkages between their teaching, research and service role performance, and student learning (Del Favero, 2002). Departmental administrators play a vital role in such an effort by working with their chief academic affairs officer and other academic affairs officers to formulate mechanisms that allow faculty members to document their work that affects student learning.

**State-Level Policies and Practices.** Hearn and Holdsworth (2002) carefully point out that indirect best describes the influence of state-level policies and practices on student learning as institutional leaders and faculty play the key roles. Moreover, the college or university as an organization serves a mediating function between the enactment of such state-level policies and practices and individual college and university faculty members. Hearn and Holdsworth (2002) delineate various plausible ways in which state policies and practices indirectly influence faculty teaching role performance, which in turn affect college student learning. These policies and practices apply predominately to state-supported colleges and universities.

State funding practices constitute one category of possible influences on faculty teaching role performance. Hearn and Holdsworth (2002) describe performance funding and targeted budget allocations as such state-funding practices. Performance funding entails the allocation of funds to colleges and universities that meet specific educational goals. The goals used in performance funding include those identified as markers of student success associated with student course learning delineated in the previous section of this chapter. These performance goals include performance on professional examinations and job placement. Targeted budget allocations encompass a range of financial allocations ranging from capital spending for physical facilities to student financial aid. However, targeted allocations for technology and faculty development seem the most closely tied to faculty teaching role performance.

Other state policies and practice include institutional mission differentiation and accountability measures (Hearn & Holdsworth, 2002). Mission differentiation entails state-level assignment of varying missions to different colleges and universities. Such mission differentiation can possibly affect faculty teaching role performance when state higher education policies assign some colleges and universities the role of emphasizing undergraduate education as its primary mission (Jones & Ewell, 1993). In contrast,

vague and unspecific missions can negatively affect faculty teaching role performance (Jones & Ewell, 1993).

Program review and assessment or performance indicators constitute types of state-level accountability practices for holding higher education institutions accountable for performance (Hearn & Holdsworth, 2002; Alexander, 2001; Ruppert, 1994). Performance indicators often include student learning outcomes (Hearn & Holdsworth, 2002). The application of such performance indicators yields an influence on faculty teaching role performance. Hearn and Holdsworth (2002) assert that some state-level academic program reviews seek to improve instructional quality and strengthen student learning. Such program reviews also exert a positive influence on faculty teaching role performance.

Like the delineation of the eight domains of student success, these various sources of influence provide the foundation for the development of a theory of faculty teaching role performance. The next section of this report describes this theory. These sources of influence also carry implications for the development of policies and practices designed to improve the likelihood of undergraduate college student success. The last section of this report presents implications for policy and practice.

### **A Theory of Faculty Professional Choices in Undergraduate College Teaching Role Performance**

Role theory provides the conceptual foundation for a theory of faculty choices in undergraduate college teaching role performance (Sarbin & Allen, 1968). Role theory focuses on the enactment of roles in various social settings. Role expectations affect role enactment or role performance. Beliefs, duties, and obligations for the enactment of a particular social role define the meaning of role expectations. Individuals tend to comply with role expectations. Thus, the greater the clarity of such role expectations, the greater the degree to which an individual performs the focal role in a convincing and appropriate way.

#### **Role Theory Applied to Faculty Teaching Role Performance**

I extend role theory and its concepts of role enactment, role expectations, and clarity of role expectations to the case of faculty undergraduate teaching role performance. I also use key elements of Expectancy Motivation Theory (Mowday & Nam, 1997) as a helper theory. The extension of role theory to faculty teaching role performance gives rise to a theory of faculty choices in teaching role performance that contribute to undergraduate student learning. The formulations of this theory emanate from the extensions of role theory and expectancy theory as well as the various sources of influence on faculty teaching role performance described previously in this chapter. Thus, this theory emerges from the process of inductive theory construction. Inductive theory construction uses the findings of empirical research to derive new concepts, patterns of understanding, and generalizations (Wallace, 1971).

#### **Formulations of the Theory**

State higher education policies and practices convey expectations that shape the decisions and actions of the central administrations of state-supported colleges and universities. The president and chief academic affairs officer and other members of the central administration embrace an abiding concern for faculty teaching role performance and undergraduate college student learning when the policies and practices of their state ascribe a high value to the improvement of undergraduate college student learning

and faculty teaching role performance. Such state policies and practices convey clear expectations for the improvement of undergraduate education and faculty undergraduate teaching to the central administrators of state-supported colleges and universities.

State policies and practices such as performance budgeting, targeted budget allocations, institutional mission differentiation, outcomes assessment, and academic program review provide the vehicle for the expression of such a pattern of expectations. When performance funding practices reward institutions that meet goals for improvements in undergraduate college student learning, such actions transmit strong expectations for improved college student learning (Hearn & Holdsworth, 2002). States that target budget allocations for faculty development also clearly communicate expectations for the improvement of faculty teaching role performance (Hearn & Holdsworth, 2002). The specification of the missions of the various state-supported colleges and universities also play a role in the communication of expectations for faculty teaching and student learning when specific institutions are assigned the primary role of undergraduate education (Hearn & Holdsworth, 2002; Jones & Ewell, 1993). State outcomes assessment practices and program reviews that stress the importance of undergraduate college student learning also communicate the high expectations a state holds for undergraduate teaching and learning. The more of these state policies and practices that stress the importance of faculty teaching role performance and enhanced college student learning, the clearer the expectations transmitted.

In those states that stress the importance of undergraduate college teaching and learning through their policies and practices, the leaders of individual state-supported colleges and universities will adopt a similar pattern of expectations. The greatest likelihood for leaders to embrace expectations for faculty teaching role performance directed toward the improvement of student learning occurs when a state employs all five of the above state policies and practices. In contrast, in those states that do not stress the importance of undergraduate college teaching and learning through their policies and practices, the leaders of individual state-supported colleges and universities follow their own pattern of expectations for faculty teaching role performance.

Regardless of the characteristics of state policies and practices, the expectations leaders of individual colleges and universities hold for undergraduate college teaching and learning wield a direct influence on faculty teaching role performance. The central administration plays an indirect role by contributing to the forging of an institutional “culture of teaching” (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995). Cultures shape the behaviors of their members through norms, values, practices, beliefs, and assumptions that members of the culture endorse (Kuh & Whitt, 1988).

The central administration fosters the development of an institutional teaching culture by communicating their commitment and support for excellence in faculty teaching role performance and by involving faculty in all aspects of the planning and execution of policies and practices designed to improve undergraduate teaching and learning (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995). In addition, institutional leaders contribute to the development of an institutional teaching culture by modifying existing academic reward structures to give more weight to teaching and by recognizing the scholarship of teaching as a legitimate form of scholarship (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995). Support for faculty development programs and centers for teaching constitute another way in which institutional leaders facilitate the development of an institutional culture of teaching. In addition to these ways, the implementation of the practice of requiring that all candidates for faculty positions must give a demonstration of their teaching (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995).

The more of these approaches to the development of an institutional culture of teaching that the leaders of the central administration use, the clearer the expectations for faculty to make professional choices in their teaching role performance that contribute to the learning of their students. Although all of

these ways of involvement in the forging of an institutional teaching culture clearly communicate institutional expectations for teaching role performance that enhances student learning, institutional academic reward structures that accord some weight to the scholarship of teaching clearly communicate a specific expectation for faculty engagement in the scholarship as a particular aspect of teaching role performance.

The involvement of the leaders of the central administration in the formation of an institutional culture of teaching also affects the administrative behavior of the chairpersons of academic departments. Although some department chairpersons convey clear expectations for faculty professional choices in their teaching role performance that contribute to student learning, others come to embrace such expectations for their departmental faculty colleagues because of the messages they receive from those actions of the leaders of the central administration that contribute to the development of an institutional culture of teaching.

The chairpersons of academic departments impart expectations for the teaching role performance of individual faculty members in several ways. Like leaders of the central administration, department chairpersons also encourage the development of an institutional culture of teaching. The frequent communication of the high value they place on undergraduate college teaching constitutes the primary way in which department chairperson foster the forging of an institutional and departmental culture of teaching (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995). Specifically, chairpersons clearly express their expectations for teaching role performance by communicating to departmental faculty members the weight good teaching receives in the allocation of faculty rewards (Rice & Austin, 1990). Chairpersons also disclose their expectations for teaching role performance by creating opportunities for faculty members in their departments to frequently meet to discuss problems and approaches to their undergraduate teaching (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995).

Chairpersons also transmit expectations for professional choices in faculty teaching role performance through the performance of their administrative duties (Del Favero, 2002). Chairpersons promote the improvement of teaching role performance by facilitating the prompt return of the results of student course assessments. Department chairs also encourage the improvement of teaching by informing departmental faculty members of the services of faculty development or teaching centers. Department chairpersons can also help faculty members try new pedagogical practices. Chairs assist such faculty members by providing release time to learn and develop new pedagogical practices. The greater the performance of those administrative duties that value undergraduate college teaching by chairpersons of academic departments, the clearer are the expectations for professional choices in teaching role performance that enhance student learning.

### **Faculty Motivation to Teach Well**

Because faculty members possess considerable autonomy in their teaching (Braxton & Bayer, 1999), they are free to make professional choices among those aspects of teaching that contribute to student learning. Clear expectations for faculty teaching role performance communicated by the formation of institutional teaching cultures, the actions of institutional leaders, and the actions of department chairpersons produce an inclination in faculty to follow such expectations. Clear expectations for teaching role enactment constitute a necessary, but not a sufficient, condition for faculty engagement in those aspects of teaching that require some effort. The choice of those aspects of teaching role performance that require some effort by faculty to enact requires some degree of faculty motivation to teach well. Bess (1997, p. xi) asserts that “teaching well and liking it is very hard to come by.” Teaching well requires focus, commitment, and an expenditure of considerable energy (Bess, 1997).

The various aspects of teaching role performance—choice of pedagogical practices, choice of course assessment practices, application of good practice in undergraduate education, engagement in the scholarship of teaching, and adherence to norms of undergraduate college teaching—vary on a continuum of low effort to high effort required by faculty members to perform them. At one extreme, faculty adherence to the norms of undergraduate college teaching requires a minimal degree of effort, whereas engagement in the scholarship of teaching requires a considerable degree of effort. Enactment of active learning and the seven good principles of undergraduate education described by Chickering and Gamson (1987) require more effort than norm adherence, but less effort than the scholarship of teaching. Although requiring less effort than the scholarship of teaching, cooperative and collaborative learning and asking students higher order thinking questions in class and on examinations requires greater effort than active learning or the use of good practices in undergraduate education. Because most faculty members are not trained in pedagogy as part of their doctoral studies (Braxton & Bayer, 1999), the choice to engage in the scholarship of teaching, ask higher order questions in class and on examinations, use active learning, and use cooperative and collaborative learning requires some learning by faculty members to implement them successfully. In contrast, the need to safeguard the welfare of students as clients of teaching role performance compels faculty to adhere to norms of undergraduate college teaching (Braxton, Bayer, & Noseworthy, 2004; Braxton & Bayer, 1999). This normative structure has been empirically derived from the perceptions of faculty (Braxton & Bayer, 1999). As a consequence, adherence to such norms requires little effort from faculty and produces a sense of self-worth and self-esteem in faculty members. Likewise, the use of the seven principles of good practice delineated by Chickering and Gamson (1987) requires little effort from faculty. The use of these practices also engenders a sense of personal accomplishment in faculty by contributing to the learning of students in their courses.

If faculty members perceive that they will receive valued extrinsic rewards for their performance of those aspects of teaching role performance that require effort, they will be motivated to expend the effort necessary to accomplish these teaching tasks. Such academic rewards as tenure, promotion, continued appointment, and increases in pay constitute such extrinsic rewards or outcomes of their efforts valued by faculty members. Thus, faculty members who perceive that they will likely receive a substantial increase in pay, be reappointed, receive tenure, or be promoted in rank are more likely to engage in the scholarship of teaching, ask students higher order thinking questions in class, write examination questions that require higher order thinking, and use such pedagogical practices as active learning, collaborative learning, and cooperative learning than are faculty who perceive that they are unlikely to receive such valued extrinsic outcomes from such teaching efforts.

This hypothesis springs from the formulations of expectancy theory. Expectancy theory focuses on accounting for how individuals make decisions between different or alternative activities. Expectancies take the form of beliefs or subjective probabilities that a specified outcome will likely follow from behavior (Mowday & Nam, 1997). The crux of expectancy theory reads like this: the greatest level of motivation to teach well occurs when individual faculty members perceive that their efforts will result in a higher level of teaching role performance and that higher levels of teaching role performance will result in a highly valued intrinsic or extrinsic outcome.

Three assumptions underlie expectancy theory. These assumptions take the following forms: individuals hold expectancies or beliefs about the outcomes of their behavior, individuals have preferences about the different outcomes of their behavior as some outcomes are preferred over others, and individuals behave self-interestedly in choosing among different tasks and levels of effort to expend in performing the chosen task (Mowday & Nam, 1997).

Level of performance or task accomplishment constitutes the most fundamental outcome of expectancy theory (Lawler, 1973). In terms of college and university faculty, the degree of effort expended by faculty members to teach well flows from their perception that they are likely to teach well if they expend the needed effort (Mowday & Nam, 1997).

Moreover, individual faculty members are also motivated to teach well if they perceive that such performance will lead to outcomes that are either extrinsic or intrinsic. Extrinsic outcomes are controlled by others and take the form of pay raises, awards, and promotions. Intrinsic rewards emanate from the individual. Examples of intrinsic rewards are self-esteem, personal growth, and a sense of accomplishment (Mowday & Nam, 1997). By extension, faculty members who observe student course learning also receive a sense of accomplishment or receive an intrinsic reward. Valence of outcomes or the value the individual faculty member places on the outcome constitutes the third element of expectancy theory (Mowday & Nam, 1997).

## **Recapitulation**

Expectations for faculty teaching role performance that enhance undergraduate student course learning emanate from the external environment and from the college or university as an organization. State policies and practices such as performance budgeting, targeted budget allocations, institutional mission differentiation, assessment of outcomes, and academic program reviews convey clear expectations for student course learning to the leaders of colleges and universities. Leaders of state colleges and universities heed these clear expectations from state policies and activities. In turn, institutional leaders convey such expectations through their actions directed toward the development of an institutional culture of teaching.

Institutional leaders also influence the administrative behavior of the chairpersons of academic departments. Chairpersons of academic departments convey clear expectations for faculty teaching role performance that contribute to student course learning through the performance of administrative duties related to teaching and by actions directed toward the development of a teaching culture. The clear expectations for faculty teaching role performance directed toward enhanced student course learning that institutional leaders and department chairpersons convey to faculty members predispose individual faculty members to conform to such expectations for their teaching. However, faculty must possess some degree of motivation to teach well to engage in those aspects of teaching that require some effort. If faculty perceive that they are likely to receive such valued outcomes as an increase in pay, tenure, or promotion, then they are likely to engage in such aspects of teaching role performance that require effort to successfully implement.

The following seven testable hypotheses emerge:

1. In those states that stress the importance of undergraduate college teaching and learning through their policies and practices, the leaders of the central administration of individual colleges and universities are more likely to adopt a similar pattern of expectations than in states that do not emphasize the importance of college teaching and student learning in their policies and practices.
2. The greater the number of state policies and practices directed toward the improvement of undergraduate student course learning, the greater the likelihood that the leaders of the central administration of individual colleges and universities in such states will embrace clear

expectations for faculty teaching role performance directed toward the improvement of student learning.

3. In those colleges and universities where the leaders of the central administration engage in approaches to the development of an institutional culture of teaching, the greater the likelihood that individual faculty members will perceive that such leaders hold expectations for the professional choices they make in their teaching role performance that enhance student learning.
4. The greater number of approaches to the development of an institutional culture of teaching that the leaders of the central administration use, the clearer the expectations that faculty make professional choices in their teaching role performance that contribute to the learning of their students.
5. The more chairpersons of academic department perform administrative duties and take actions that value undergraduate college teaching and contribute to the development of a culture of teaching, the clearer are the expectations communicated to departmental faculty members to make professional choices in teaching role performance that enhance student learning.
6. The clearer the expectations for faculty to make professional choices in their teaching role performance that contribute to student learning conveyed by the central administration of a college or university and by chairpersons of academic departments, the more likely faculty members will adhere to the norms of undergraduate college teaching and will use the seven principles of good practice in their teaching.
7. Faculty members who perceive that they will be extrinsically rewarded (e.g., receive a substantial increase in pay, be reappointed, receive tenure, or be promoted in rank) are more likely to engage in the scholarship of teaching, ask students higher order thinking questions in class, write examination questions that require higher order thinking, and use such pedagogical practices as active learning, collaborative learning, and cooperative learning than are faculty who perceive that they are unlikely to receive valued extrinsic outcomes from such teaching efforts.

### **Recommendations for Testing This Theory**

This theory fits the category of a middle-range theory as defined by Merton (1968), who differentiated between grand and middle-range theory. Grand theory seeks to explain a wide range of phenomena, whereas middle-range theories endeavor to explain a limited range of phenomena. In the case of this theory, one seeks to explain the professional choices college and university faculty members make in their teaching role performance.

I offer five recommendations for the robust testing of this theory. I recommend topics for research rather than such methodological issues as the measurement of the various constructs embedded in the seven hypotheses delineated above. I entrust the research community interested in conducting the recommended research with making such necessary methodological decisions. The five recommendations are as follows:

1. Hypotheses one and two should be tested in different states. The states selected should vary in their use of performance funding, targeted budget allocations, mission differentiation, and outcomes assessment and program review. States that do not engage in any of these policies and practices should be included. State-supported colleges and universities of those states selected to test these two hypotheses should also be chosen.

2. Hypotheses two through seven should be tested in a range of different types of colleges and universities. The current categories of the Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2005) offer a basis for the selection of different types of colleges and universities. These categories include doctorate-granting institutions (research universities, very high research activity; research universities, high research activity; and doctoral/research universities), master's colleges and universities (larger programs, medium programs, and smaller programs), baccalaureate colleges (arts and sciences, diverse fields, and baccalaureate/associate's) and associate's colleges (2-year colleges). A range of such colleges and universities is necessary because of possible variation in support for each of these hypotheses across different types of institutions of higher education. For example, leaders of the central administration of teaching-oriented colleges and universities may engage in approaches to the development of an institutional culture of teaching to a greater extent than leaders of the central administration of research-oriented universities.

Moreover, institutional type may also affect the choice of different aspects of faculty teaching role performance made by faculty members. Espousing the norms of undergraduate college teaching, engaging in the scholarship of teaching, asking students higher order thinking questions in class, and writing examination questions that require higher order thinking constitute aspects of faculty teaching role performance that may vary across different institutional characteristics. To elaborate, academic biologists tend to espouse greater disdain for some of the norms of undergraduate college teaching (e.g., condescending negativism, particularistic grading, personal disregard, uncommunicated details) than do faculty members in the disciplines of mathematics, history, and psychology (Braxton & Bayer, 1999). Because of their levels of disdain for such teaching norms, academic biologists may comply with these norms to a greater extent than academics in other disciplines. Moreover, faculty engagement in the scholarship of teaching varies across different types of colleges and universities as faculty members in liberal arts colleges tend to engage more in the scholarship of teaching than do faculty members in research-oriented universities (Braxton, Luckey, & Helland, 2002). The choice of asking students higher order thinking questions in class and writing examination questions that require higher order thinking may also vary across colleges and universities of varying degrees of undergraduate admissions selectivity (Braxton & Nordvall, 1985; Braxton, 1993; Nordvall & Braxton, 1996).

3. Individual faculty members should be the unit of analysis for tests of hypotheses six and seven. As previously indicated, hypothesis six postulates that faculty members who perceive that the central administration and chairperson of their academic department expect faculty to make choices in their teaching that contribute to student learning are more likely to adhere to the norms of undergraduate teaching and use of the seven principles of good practice in their teaching. Hypothesis seven posits that faculty will engage in those teaching practices that require greater effort if they perceive that they will likely receive a valued extrinsic reward for their teaching efforts. Faculty members from different academic disciplines should be selected as the differences among academic disciplines on a wide range of phenomena are "profound and extensive" (Braxton & Hargens, 1996, p. 35). Academic disciplines differ on their level of consensus on such factors as theoretical orientation, appropriateness of research methods and the importance of various problems (Kuhn, 1962, 1970; Lodahl & Gordon, 1972; Biglan, 1973). Physics and chemistry provide good examples of high consensus disciplines, whereas political science and sociology are low consensus academic disciplines (Biglan, 1973).

Differences in teaching occur between faculty in high- and low-consensus academic disciplines. Faculty in low-consensus disciplines tend to be more oriented toward teaching, spend more time on teaching, express a greater interest in teaching, and receive higher student course evaluations than do faculty members in high-consensus academic disciplines (Braxton & Hargens, 1996). Academics in low-consensus academic fields also display a greater affinity for practices and activities that improve undergraduate education than do academics in high-consensus fields (Braxton, Olsen, & Simmons, 1998). In addition, faculty members from low-consensus disciplines tend to ask more questions requiring the synthesis of course content on their examinations than do faculty members in high-consensus disciplines (Braxton & Nordvall, 1988). Thus, the choices of different aspects of teaching role performance made may vary between individual faculty members in academic disciplines exhibiting high and low levels of consensus.

4. The characteristics of individual faculty members may also influence their choice of the various aspects of teaching role performance. Gender and tenure status make up two of the characteristics of faculty that tests of hypotheses six and seven should encompass.

To elaborate, women faculty display a greater commitment to teaching than do men (Bayer & Astin, 1975; Boyer, 1990; Boice, 1992; Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). Gender differences in perceptions of good teaching also obtain. Women faculty members view a concern for the self-esteem of their students and a minimal emphasis on grades as characteristics of good teaching (Goodwin & Stevens, 1993). Women faculty also express more agreement with such undergraduate teaching norms as condescending negativism and personal disregard than do men (Braxton & Bayer, 1999). Consequently, gender differences on choices of different aspects of undergraduate teaching role performance might occur.

The tenure status of individual faculty members may also affect their choices of aspects of teaching role performance to enact. More specifically, new assistant, or untenured, professors tend to view good teaching as “good content” and place much emphasis on lectures that convey facts and principles (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995). They also display a hesitation to seek assistance in the improvement of their teaching. These proclivities of untenured faculty members may negatively affect their choices of those aspects of teaching role performance that contribute to student course learning.

5. The values, beliefs, norms, and behaviors of student peer groups may affect the professional choices faculty make in their undergraduate college teaching role performance. Student classroom incivilities and student normative support for good practices in undergraduate education form the ways student peer groups affect faculty teaching role performance.

Students who display such classroom incivilities as disrespectful disruptions (e.g., talking while the instructor or other members of the class are talking, interrupting others while they are talking, reading the newspaper during class, receiving cellular telephone calls, and departing the class before being excused by the professor) and insolent inattention (e.g., students who fail to pay attention in class) (Caboni, Hirschy, & Best, 2004; Hirschy & Braxton, 2005) may lead faculty members not to select those aspects of teaching role performance that require some level of time commitment and psychological energy to perform. Such student classroom incivilities might also provoke faculty to violate norms for undergraduate college teaching (Braxton & Bayer, 1999). However, the existence of student norms that rebuke either of these categories of classroom incivilities might prevent or reduce the effects of such incivilities on faculty choices in their teaching role performance. Students tend to rebuke insolent inattention, but not disrespectful disruptions (Caboni, Hirschy, & Best, 2004). Consequently, academics may experience insolent inattention less frequently than disrespectful disruptions in their classrooms.

Student normative support for such good practices as the encouragement of faculty-student contact, cooperation among students, and communication of high expectations (Caboni, Mundy, & Duesterhaus, 2002) may encourage faculty members to enact such good principles of undergraduate education. The asking of higher order thinking questions to students in class and on course examination questions may also occur as professional choices of faculty members because of student normative support for the communication of high expectations for student attainment.

### **Recommendations for Policy and Practice**

The theory of faculty professional choices in teaching role performance advanced in the previous section of this chapter takes the form of an explanatory and a predictive theory. The formulations and hypotheses of this theory also provide a blueprint for the generation of policies and practices. The various influences on faculty teaching role performances presented in the section Faculty Teaching Role Performance also afford a foundation for the policies and practices recommended herein. These recommended policies and practices pertain to state higher education public policymakers, the central administration of colleges and universities, and the chairpersons of academic departments.

#### **State Higher Education Public Policymakers**

I propose one overarching recommendation and four specific recommendations for enactment by state higher education public policymakers. Consistent with the theory advanced in this report, the implementation of this set of recommendations would clearly communicate to the central administration of state-supported colleges and universities the high value a state accords to faculty teaching role performance directed toward the improvement of undergraduate college student course-level learning. Accordingly, this set of recommendations applies primarily to state-supported colleges and universities.

The overarching recommendation is that state public policymakers should use **all** of the mechanisms Hearn and Holdsworth (2002) propose as indirect influences on student learning: performance funding, targeted budget allocations, mission differentiation and academic program reviews, and assessment of performance. This recommendation flows from the first and second hypotheses of the theory of faculty professional choices in teaching role performance put forth in the previous section of this report. These two hypotheses denote that the use of all of these policies and practices communicate clear expectations for faculty teaching role performance directed toward the improvement of undergraduate college student learning to the central administrations of state-supported colleges and universities.

I also offer four specific recommendations for state higher education public policymakers to convey in a strong and clear way their expectations for faculty teaching role performance directed toward the improvement of undergraduate college student learning. These more specific recommendations also flow from the first and second hypotheses of the theory of faculty professional choices in teaching role performance posited in this report.

1. Performance funding policies should continue to set performance goals for student learning. However, I recommend that performance goals should also include those aspects of teaching that require some degree of effort by faculty. Thus, additional financial resources should be allocated to those state-supported colleges and universities that have a sufficient number of faculty who engage in such aspects of teaching role performance.

Moreover, such performance funding policies should stipulate that the central administration of those state-supported colleges and universities that meet faculty teaching performance goals use these additional financial resources to give above-average increases in the annual salaries of individual faculty members who engage in the scholarship of teaching, ask students higher order thinking questions in class, write examination questions that require higher order thinking, and use such pedagogical practices as active learning, collaborative learning, and cooperative learning, all of which require some degree of effort. Thus, this recommendation shifts the focus of performance funding away from student learning to faculty teaching role performance. This particular recommendation flows from hypothesis seven, which postulates that faculty will engage in such teaching practices if they perceive that they are likely to receive a value reward for their efforts.

2. Hearn and Holdsworth (2002) point out that targeted budget allocations encompass a range of financial allocations from capital spending for physical facilities to student financial aid. They view targeted funds for faculty development as likely to indirectly influence student learning. Accordingly, I recommend that states use targeted budget allocations *specifically* for funding faculty development activities at the institutional level. Given that most college and university faculty members were not trained in pedagogy as part of their graduate studies (Braxton & Bayer, 1999), faculty development workshops and seminars funded by state targeted budget allocations should focus on using and refining such pedagogical practices as active learning, collaborative learning, and cooperative learning. Such workshops and seminars should also center on developing the ability of faculty members to ask students higher order thinking questions in class and write examination questions that require higher order thinking. Faculty development workshops and seminars funded through state funds should also discuss such dimensions of the scholarship of teaching as classroom research and the development and refinement of pedagogical content knowledge. Through such a discussion, individual faculty members may choose to engage in the scholarship of teaching.

Through participation in such faculty development activities, individual faculty members come to perceive that student learning will occur if they engage in these targeted aspects of teaching role performance. This assumption underlies expectancy theory, a helper theory to the formulation of the theory of faculty professional choices in teaching role performance advanced in this report.

3. State higher education policymakers should seriously engage in the differentiation of the missions of state-supported colleges and universities. State-supported collegiate institutions classified as master's degree colleges and universities of the Carnegie Classification of Institutions award master's degrees but offer a range of baccalaureate programs. Although such institutions offer the master's degree, state higher education policy documents should clearly state that undergraduate college teaching makes up the primary mission of such state-supported colleges and universities. Such mission clarification and differentiation should positively influence faculty teaching role performance in such colleges and universities (Jones & Ewell, 1993).

4. Such state accountability practices as academic program reviews and performance indicators include indices of student learning outcomes (Hearn & Holdsworth, 2002). State higher education policies should also stipulate that academic program reviews and performance indicators document the various ways faculty at state-supported colleges and universities engage in those aspects of teaching role performance that contribute to student learning. Such documentation might include indices of faculty adherence to the norms of undergraduate college teaching, use Chickering and Gamson's (1987) seven principles of good practice in their teaching, engage in the scholarship of teaching, ask students higher order thinking questions in class, write examination questions that require higher order thinking, and use such pedagogical practices as active learning, collaborative learning, and cooperative learning.

## Central Administration of Colleges and Universities

I advance seven recommendations for implementation by the central administration of individual colleges and universities. These recommendations apply to both private and state-supported colleges and universities. Decisions concerning the implementation of these seven recommendations should extensively involve faculty members given that considerable faculty involvement in such decisions contributes to the formation of shared values about teaching between faculty and administrators (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995). Because of such extensive involvement and the sharing of values, faculty perceive that they possess ownership in the process. This perception of ownership would help assure successful implementation of the recommendations and contribute to the development of an institutional teaching culture.

As a set, these seven recommendations suggest that the leaders of the central administration expect institutional faculty members to make those choices in their teaching that contribute to student course-level learning. Likewise, the implementation of these recommendations also clearly imparts such expectations to the chairpersons of academic departments. Hence, these seven recommendations stem from hypotheses three and four of the theory of faculty professional choices in teaching role performance advanced in this report. As previously stated, hypothesis three postulates that faculty members are more likely to perceive that members of the central administration hold expectations for their teaching if the leaders of the central administration contribute to the development of an institutional culture of teaching. Moreover, the greater the number of approaches used by the central administration to forge an institutional culture of teaching, the clearer their expectations for faculty professional choices in teaching that contribute to student learning. Such is the crux of hypothesis four. These seven recommendations are as follows:

1. The president, chief academic affairs officer, and academic deans of colleges and universities desiring faculty teaching role performance directed toward the improvement in student course learning should express their commitment and support for excellence in undergraduate teaching. Public speeches, speeches made before university assemblies, memoranda, and day-to-day conversations of such members of the central administration should express the high value the institution places on teaching directed toward the improvement of student learning. The expression of such a strong sentiment concerning excellence in undergraduate teaching contributes to the development of an institutional culture of teaching (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995). Thus, the enactment of this recommendation conveys the clear expectation that the faculty should make professional choices in their teaching that contribute to student course learning.

2. Institutional policies regarding the search process for faculty appointments should require that candidates present a teaching demonstration or a pedagogical colloquium as part of the on-campus interview process as an index of a faculty candidate's teaching ability. The adoption of such a policy shows the importance a college or university accords teaching. The implementation of this recommendation also contributes to the development of an institutional teaching culture (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995). In a previous section of this report, three models for pedagogical colloquia delineated by Shulman (1995) were described. These models offer some possible approaches to this policy that colleges and universities might consider.

3. Student course-rating instruments should contain items that index faculty engagement in those aspects of teaching role performance that contribute to student course learning. More specifically, items reflective of faculty adherence to the normative orientations for undergraduate college teaching, use of active learning practices, use of cooperative or collaborative learning techniques, adherence to the seven principles of good practice in undergraduate education, asking of student questions in class that require

more than recognition or recall or course topics, and examination questions that require higher order thinking should be among the items included on student course-rating instruments.

The inclusion of such items serves several purposes. First, it communicates a clear message about institutional expectations for undergraduate teaching that enhances student course learning. Second, it provides colleges and universities with an estimate of how frequently faculty members at the institution engage in these teaching practices. Third, the data obtained from such items, when collected on a routine basis, can be used for academic program reviews, performance funding reports and institutional communications—public speeches, newsletters, and newspaper articles—about the importance of teaching at an institution. Fourth, the data collected can be used for faculty personnel decisions such as annual salary adjustments, tenure, and promotion.

4. Centers for teaching and faculty development programs should offer workshops or seminars on such topics as Chickering and Gamson's (1987) seven principles of good practice in undergraduate education, active learning, collaborative learning, cooperative learning, writing examination questions that require an understanding of course content beyond recall and recognition, asking students questions in class that require an understanding of course content beyond recall and recognition, and the norms of undergraduate college teaching. As an outcome of participation in such workshops and seminars, faculty members will perceive that the energy they expend to enact these various aspects of teaching role performance will result in student course learning. Such an outcome resonates with the formulations of expectancy theory, a helper theory to the theory of faculty professional choices in teaching role performance presented in this report.

5. Symposiums or colloquiums on undergraduate college teaching should become a routine feature of both institutional and departmental life. Although speakers external to the institution can be selected, the basic idea is to provide institutional faculty members with an opportunity to make presentations on and discuss various topics related to undergraduate college teaching.

The results of the pursuit of the scholarship of teaching should constitute a major item for such symposia or colloquia. Moreover, such symposia or colloquia provide faculty with an opportunity to discuss teaching with one another. Paulsen and Feldman (1995) indicate that frequent opportunities for faculty to talk with their peers about teaching contribute to the developing of a culture of teaching. Such interactions might also involve the sharing of ideas about teaching. In addition to the formation of a culture of teaching, intellectual stimulation around teaching and a reduction in isolation many faculty interested in teaching feel may also ensue from such interactions (Aitken & Sorcinelli, 1994).

Such symposiums or colloquia on undergraduate college teaching convey expectations for faculty teaching role performance that promotes student course learning. Thus, this recommendation bolsters the fourth hypothesis of the theory that posits that the more approaches used by the central administration to develop an institutional culture of teaching, the clearer are their expectations for faculty to make professional choices in teaching that enhance student learning.

6. The academic reward structures of colleges and universities should accord recognition to the scholarship of teaching as a proper form of scholarship. Moreover, other aspects of teaching role performance that contribute to student course learning should also receive some weight in the academic reward structure. Put more forcefully, faculty who expend effort to enact those aspects of teaching role performance that contribute to student learning should perceive that they will receive a valued outcome for their efforts. Such outcomes include an increase in annual salary, tenure, promotion, or reappointment.

Thus, this particular recommendation originates from the formulations of expectancy theory, which functions as a helper theory to the theory of faculty professional choices in teaching role performance offered in this report. This recommendation also springs from the seventh hypothesis of this theory, which anticipates that faculty will engage in those teaching practices that require greater effort if they perceive that they are likely to receive a highly valued extrinsic reward such as tenure, promotion, or an increase in annual salary.

7. The evaluation of the performance of chairpersons of academic departments should give some weight to the ways in which department chairpersons clearly convey their expectations for faculty teaching role performance directed toward the improvement of student course-level learning to their departmental faculty colleagues. The chief academic affairs officer and academic deans should use the chairperson's performance on these dimensions to make annual salary adjustments and for reappointment decisions. These various dimensions are listed in the next section of this report. This recommendation arises from the fifth and sixth hypotheses of the theory of faculty professional choices in teaching role performance advanced in this report. The fifth hypothesis holds that the more a department chairperson performs administrative duties and takes actions that value undergraduate teaching and contribute to the development of a culture of teaching, the clearer are the expectations communicated to departmental faculty members to make teaching choices that enhance student learning. The sixth hypothesis postulates that the clearer the expectations for faculty to make professional choices in their teaching that foster student learning made by the central administration and chairpersons of academic departments, the more likely faculty members will adhere to the norms of undergraduate college teaching and use the seven principles of good practice in their teaching.

### **Chairpersons of Academic Departments**

Paulsen and Feldman (1995) posit that chairpersons of academic departments contribute to the development of a teaching culture. Moreover, the theory advanced in the previous section of this report also delineates ways in which a department chairperson influences the professional choices faculty make in their teaching role performance. The recommendations I put forth for implementation by chairpersons of academic departments embody these various influences. Likewise, the enactment of these recommendations by chairpersons of academic departments conveys their expectations for their faculty colleagues to make choices in their teaching role performance that enhance student course-level learning. These recommendations also spring from hypotheses five and six of the theory of faculty professional choices in teaching role performance postulated in this report. As stated above, the fifth hypothesis posits that the more departmental chairpersons perform administrative duties, take actions that value undergraduate teaching, and contribute to the development of a culture of teaching, the clearer are the expectations communicated to departmental faculty members to make teaching choices that enhance student learning. The sixth hypothesis predicts that the clearer the expectations for faculty to make professional choices in their teaching that foster student learning made by the central administration and chairpersons of academic departments, the more likely faculty members will adhere to the norms of undergraduate college teaching and use the seven principles of good practice in their teaching. These recommendations also provide the dimensions for the evaluation of the performance of department chairpersons discussed above.

1. Chairpersons should communicate on a day-to-day basis the high value they place on undergraduate teaching. Memoranda and other written communications by the chairperson, documents or department reports that delineate and place a priority on department goals, the placement of teaching-related items on the agenda for departmental meetings, statements about teaching made during faculty meetings, and informal conversations with departmental faculty members provide opportunities for

department chairpersons to express the high value they place on undergraduate college teaching to the faculty members of their departments.

2. Ample opportunities and space for departmental faculty members to frequently meet to discuss problems and approaches to their undergraduate teaching should be developed (Paulsen & Feldman, 1995). Such opportunities include departmentally focused symposia on teaching as well as less formal events and situations.

3. Chairpersons should inform their faculty of the services of faculty development or teaching centers (Del Favero, 2002). They should also encourage their faculty members to participate in workshops and seminars focused on various teaching topics sponsored by their institution's center for teaching or faculty development program.

4. Chairpersons should encourage departmental faculty to try new teaching methods or approaches. Chairpersons should give release time or course load reductions to faculty members who want to learn and develop new pedagogical practices for their undergraduate courses.

5. Chairpersons should initiate efforts to assure the prompt return of the results of student course assessments (Del Favero, 2002). Their prompt return reinforces the value placed on teaching that a chair seeks to communicate.

6. Chairpersons should reward departmental faculty members for engaging in those aspects of teaching role performance delineated in this report. In particular, the recommendations chairpersons make for such faculty personnel decisions as annual salary increases, reappointment, tenure, and promotion should reflect efforts by departmental faculty members to make choices in their teaching role performance that enhance student course learning. The seventh hypothesis of this report's theory of faculty professional choices in teaching role performance gives rise to this particular recommendation.

### **Recap of Recommendations for Policy and Practice**

As previously indicated, the formulations of the theory of faculty professional choices in teaching role performance advanced in this report provide the foundation for the recommendations for policy and practice advanced herein. The communication of clear expectations for faculty teaching role performance to individual college and university faculty members underlies all of these recommendations. Moreover, some recommendations strive to reduce the level of time, commitment, and energy faculty members must expend to engage in those aspects of teaching role performance delineated in this report. Recommendations advanced for state higher education public policymakers, for the central administration of colleges and universities, and for the chairpersons of academic departments share this particular purpose. Some recommendations attempt to shape faculty perceptions that they will receive a valued extrinsic reward for their performance of those aspects of teaching role performance that require a commitment of time and effort.

## Closing Thoughts

In closing, I offer three thoughts.

1. The notion of student success involves factors that lead students to select one college over others. The college choice process plays a role in both retention and the success a student experiences. Student retention also constitutes an important gateway to success (Braxton, 2003). Student departure limits the possibility of both individual and institutional success in attaining desired outcomes of college attendance. Although student retention and graduation form markers of student success, the meaning of student success extends considerably beyond these two well-recognized indicators. From the literature on the intended and actual outcomes of college attendance, eight domains of college student success emerge: academic attainment, acquisition of general education, development of academic competence, development of cognitive skills and intellectual dispositions, occupational attainment, preparation for adulthood and citizenship, personal accomplishments, and personal development. These eight domains and the specific indicators within them provide substantial clarity to the meaning of college student success. These domains differentiate student success well beyond student persistence and graduation. These domains clearly indicate that multiple ways exist for college students to demonstrate success.

2. The theory of faculty professional choices in teaching role performance put forth in this report explains how faculty elect to engage in particular aspects of teaching role performance. However, prescriptive rather than descriptive best describes this theory. The formulations of the theory explain how faculty might make professional choices if the elements of the various formulations of the theory existed in reality. This theory describes those elements that should exist at the level of state higher education public policy makers and individual colleges and universities.

3. Student success in the form of course learning depends to a large extent on the implementation of the recommendations for policy and practice set forth in this chapter. The implementation of the vast majority of these recommendations at the level of state policy-makers, the central administration of individual colleges and universities, and the chairpersons of academic departments must occur for individual faculty members to make those professional choices in their teaching that contribute to student learning.

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