1

GIFTS

I had to practice learning how to be at ease, consciously thinking about the words "flexible," "relaxed," "open," instead of about what I know. I had to remind myself to pay attention to what is happening, to just be a little bit more in there—outside of myself.

—Faculty member in the humanities[1]

By every measure of success, Professor Murray Mann's work as a faculty member at a large, R1, public university has been stunning. Dr. Mann is one of the world's most highly regarded scholars in the study of law and legal systems, publishing numerous books, articles, book chapters, and reviews in his field and giving talks all over the world. In addition, Dr. Mann has received strong evaluations for the large lecture and small seminar classes that he has taught to undergraduates for more than a quarter of a century. When he was an assistant professor—only five years out of a prestigious graduate school program in which he received no teaching training—the university recognized Dr. Mann's exceptional undergraduate teaching with a distinguished teaching award. His reputation as an excellent teacher extends to his work with graduate students, who speak of him as a generous mentor capable of both nurturing their creativity and critiquing their work in ways that push them to deeper intellectual engagement with their own and others' ideas.

Little external pressure is imposed on most faculty members at large universities to make changes in their teaching, but for faculty members with Dr. Mann's level of success, there is no pressure at all. Now a full professor whose reputation draws brilliant young scholars to the university, Dr. Mann could easily pull his yellowed notes from his battered briefcase, give the same lectures he gave 15 years ago, and focus

100% of his time on his research—an image of professors that many people believe represents the reality at large U.S. universities. However, Dr. Mann's story takes him in a very different direction from that image of college faculty. Dr. Mann describes his direction as "increasing frustration and insecurity about my capacity to teach effectively—the opposite trajectory of what should be."

For years, Dr. Mann focused his teaching on his lectures. In his words: "In the lecture format, it was all about putting out a great performance and teaching relevant, important materials so the students really felt they learned something. And it worked. So I never thought much about teaching." But after he won a distinguished teaching award, Dr. Mann began to "deconstruct" his own teaching. As he described it, "That led me to a whole lot of experiments." Currently, Dr. Mann spends much of the 80 minutes in his large lecture classes getting his students to participate actively in constructing the class. Although he still does some lecturing, he describes it as "less traditional lecturing," adding:

> I try to get the students to do that for me, so I start with an outline—"Here's what we have been talking about so far. Here's where we got to last time." And then I say, "But it's more complicated than that and here's why." Then I ask them what they think about that. Or I might say, "Here's the concept of legal mobilization—can someone talk about that?" I introduce a segment of the class and conclude a segment of the class to bring some greater order to the class. The class averages about 150 students. I walk around when I ask them for their ideas. I am not as skilled at this kind of format as I was as a lecturer. Once I wrote my lecture, I could spend a half hour looking at it before walking in and giving the lecture without looking at the notes very much. What I find in this new format is that I spend far more time on it.

Dr. Mann said that integrating active learning strategies such as these takes more time because he feels he has to prepare for a wide range of possible directions the class may take on any given day. In his words:

> I try to change the reading material on a regular basis, if for no other reason than to keep [students] from being able to copy

papers from another class, for instance. I spend a lot of time dealing with those instrumental problems. But even when I'm using material I've used before, I have a terrible problem of over-preparing—over-preparing in such a way that I tend to paralyze myself. I don't know where discussion is going to go, so I feel that I have to be prepared to answer all possible turns of discussion and re-familiarize myself with all the literature in a way I didn't have to do in the lecture format. And in being over-prepared, my head is often too full of knowledge. I haven't really worked that out yet. At this point I shouldn't be preparing like that for a class I've taught 20 times. I also think that level of preparation makes me less light on my feet than I should be.

Although research on best practices in college teaching (Bain, 2004), on assessing classroom learning (Angelo & Cross, 1993), and on student engagement (Barkley, 2010) suggests that Dr. Mann's shift from a focus on lecturing to a focus on engaging active student learning in his class is the right direction, it is not a direction that he has always felt comfortable with. As he puts it: "Trying to make the communication between students work is much more uncertain, much more episodic than a lecture class is. It does make you more vulnerable. So strangely I feel more insecure all the time, especially in the large class."

Why would faculty members with Dr. Mann's considerable success continue to make changes to their teaching, especially when such changes require them to devote hours of extra time to the teaching aspects of their work, take them outside their comfort zones and away from the practices that have been successful in the past, and are rarely noticed or rewarded by the institutions in which they work? Why would any faculty member—not just those with Dr. Mann's stature—do that?

College Teaching Realities

It isn't as though faculty have been trained to make changes in their teaching. As Dr. Mann's experience illustrates, new PhDs often have had little teaching experience, and their graduate programs have not encouraged them to think about teaching before they become faculty members (Nyquist et al., 1999). Instead, their graduate school

experience has trained them to be thoughtful researchers—to use the methods and practices of their respective disciplines effectively and to have faith in the values in their fields. This work is neither small nor unimportant. Indeed, top quality research is critical to our society. It is the work of discovery, of creating knowledge, of generating solutions. It is complex, difficult work, requiring imagination and full understanding of what came before it, as well as a sense of new pathways into an invisible future. That graduate study can prepare students to continue the work of knowledge creation is miraculous.

But while graduate school has prepared students to discover new knowledge, in most cases it has not prepared them to teach or to think about changes in their teaching work. Even those who have worked as teaching assistants (TAs) in graduate school are likely to have had few opportunities to teach a class of their own or to have taught the same class more than once. Instead, most TAs lead small discussion sections attached to large classes; the main purpose of their work is to help the students meet *someone else's* goals for student learning. Sometimes professors give their TAs detailed "playbooks" about how to conduct sections, and sometimes they provide loose guidelines. However, in most cases, the work that the graduate student TAs are doing in sections is the result of decisions made by the faculty members who are teaching the class to which the TAs are assigned.

Often that experience is rich and profound. Graduate students can learn a great deal by working with professors who are well-respected scholars and teachers and by interacting with undergraduates in a number of ways. Graduate student TAs also often make significant contributions to the faculty member's learning and to the course's success. In contrast, the experience of being a TA can sometimes be challenging, particularly when faculty members are unclear about course expectations and are not open to their TAs' experience in sections or ideas about the course.

However, no matter whether the TA experience is good or bad, in most cases there are limits to what graduate students can learn about teaching in their roles as TAs who are leading discussion sections for faculty members' classes. Working as a TA does not give graduate students the difficult experience of winnowing a gigantic subject area into the small packages necessary for a 10- or 12-week class. It does not require them to identify goals for up to 700 students' learning or the experience of sifting through a wealth of possible readings and other

media to arrive at the few that can be covered in a short space of time. Unless they are teaching their own classes, TAs usually do not have to create assignments that address the learning goals they have identified or to shape and deliver class time day after day that is both instructive and engaging for all 700 students. The TA experience usually does not require them to think about the outcomes, both daily and over the course of the quarter or semester, in order to determine what to change tomorrow or next year to make the class better. Furthermore, TAs usually do not have to walk into the classroom a year later, meet an entirely different population of students, and try it again. Without such experiences, it is difficult for graduate students to know themselves as teachers, to reflect on their teaching work, and to put new practices into play in order to improve that work.

Furthermore, in most cases, the teaching graduate students do is not structured to help them develop into good teachers, but, rather, to help their academic institutions fulfill their undergraduate teaching missions (Austin, 2002; Deresiewicz, 2011). Often, the more highly ranked the institution is, the fewer opportunities faculty had as graduate students for teaching or teaching instruction. In the words of two University of Washington (UW) faculty members:

> I didn't even think about [teaching in graduate school]. I thought about the graduate courses that I took and why I liked them and why I didn't like them. But I didn't think about undergraduate teaching at all. A lot of us didn't TA. Nobody talked about teaching; the faculty didn't talk about teaching. And when I called my advisor when I realized that I was going to have to start teaching, it was like, "Stan, what do I do?" And he said, "Don't work on your classes over the summer. You won't get your own research done. Just wait till the semester starts." I was teaching two large undergraduate classes, and it was the worst advice I have gotten—and followed—in my life. (Faculty member in the social sciences)

> I was in the College of Engineering there, and it was pretty classic, as far as my understanding of a classic engineering PhD goes, where the focus was solely on research. I actually did TA work, where I had to do just one-on-one office hours and grading, so I didn't actually teach a section. I only substituted for

my professor once, and that was a frightening experience. (Faculty member in engineering)

Furthermore, examining one's teaching and making changes to it often require that faculty step out of the position of authority, or in the words of the humanities faculty member whose quotation begins this book, out of what they "know." Learning to step away from what they know is not likely to have been part of most graduate students' experience. Programs may differ dramatically across the country, but nearly all are marked by a hierarchy with faculty advisors at the top holding complete power over the futures of the graduate students under them. According to many new faculty members, this structure, however kind the people in it may be, often makes graduate students feel compelled to display what they know at all times. In this structure, graduate students often feel that they are being judged—and usually found wanting—as the wonderful comic strip *Piled Higher and Deeper*, by Jorge Cham (1997–2012), frequently illustrates.

For these reasons, the graduate school structure does not foster in students the sense that it is safe to admit weakness or wise to yield authority to others (Kramer, 1998). Therefore, just as the graduate experience often has not provided new faculty with much training in teaching or in the kinds of experience that might lead to teaching improvement, neither has it typically given new PhDs the "flexibility" and "openness"—in the words that begin this chapter—required to teach well and to examine one's teaching work.

Yet after graduate school, these new PhDs are the people who create and sustain the best learning system in the world—the U.S. system of higher education (Times Higher Education, 2011). These are the people who find themselves asked to speak to, engage, and foster the learning of between two and 800 students in classes day after day. These are the people who are asked to ensure that all students in the room learn the same content, such as theories of crime, introductory biology, beginning acting techniques, Shakespeare's comedies, calculus, international political and economic interaction since 1945, how to build a bridge, and the medieval world.

In addition, these are the people who will help students develop a pack of skills—how to read scholarly and technical articles; how to write arguments and reports; how to think critically, creatively, and

scientifically; how to speak effectively about what they know; how to define and solve problems; how to find and use information—in ways that those students could not do before. These are the people who will literally change the structure of their students' brains; who will open interests, abilities, and passions in students that those students never imagined they had; who will profoundly move students whom they'll never meet; and who will set students on paths into academic and professional futures that they will love. The teaching work of faculty is so complex and demanding it sometimes seems as though we are asking them to write, conduct, and perform a symphony that will make 400 people laugh in the same place, cry in the same place, and leave the room with a shared understanding of the intricacies of the tune and with the ability to hum it perfectly, adding their own clever variations, for the rest of their lives.

Faculty members are asked to give this kind of performance not only with little previous experience and training in doing it; they have to do this work no matter who they are. If they are shy, as many faculty report they are, they still must face those many eyes, 30 to 50 times a term. In the words of one faculty member:

> When I started, I wasn't an outgoing person. I liked to be in an observatory all night long staring at stars, so lecturing time after time with 250 students and being able to make that work— I think my [own] growth has played a significant role. (Faculty member in the sciences/math)

If they have a fear of public speaking, as more than three-quarters of the U.S. population do (Lilienfeld, 2010), that fear does not excuse them from speaking to classes of students every day and then getting up and doing it again the next day. For example, the faculty member who made the following comment speaks to more than 100 students for four hours every week:

> Well, to be honest, I have a phobia about public speaking. I think my fear of public speaking is greater than most people's, so to get up in front of the class was one of the hardest things for me to do. (Faculty member in architecture/built environments, 300 level, 111 students)

Finally, there is little external pressure on faculty to do well at their teaching. It is true that emphasis on teaching has increased dramatically over the past few decades in higher education, with many faculty members having to demonstrate effective teaching in order to get tenure or promotions. However, particularly at large public research institutions, the measures of effective teaching that administrators review are often confined to a few questions on a few course evaluations. Also, at most institutions, faculty who are remarkable researchers will not be booted out by a few mediocre teaching evaluations. In fact, at most institutions of higher education, if there are no complaints from students, college administrators have little knowledge of what faculty are doing in their classrooms. In the words of Derek Bok (2006):

> However much professors care about their teaching, nothing forces them or their academic leaders to go beyond normal conscientiousness in fulfilling their classroom duties. There is no compelling necessity to reexamine familiar forms of instruction and experiment with new pedagogic methods in an effort to help their students accomplish more. (p. 32)

Yet in spite of these realities—little or no training to teach, a graduate school experience that does not encourage exploration of failure, ridiculously challenging teaching demands, and no external pressure to be great at teaching—faculty continually seek and explore ways to improve their teaching. As a nationally renowned scholar and UW faculty member for more than 35 years said, when asked if she were still making changes to her teaching:

> Yeah—it's hopeless. I keep making little changes and bigger ones. I keep thinking I'm going to be done, but, just like invasive species, teaching is never done! (Faculty member in the sciences/math)

Purpose of the Study and Key Findings

The purpose of the UW Growth in Faculty Teaching Study (UW GIFTS) was to determine how pervasive change was in faculty teaching, what kinds of changes faculty made, and why they made them. Our study

intentionally did not address "good teaching." In fact, although we are big fans of Ken Bain's book, *What the Best College Teachers Do* (2004), as well as of John Bransford et al.'s book, *How People Learn* (2000), we did not set out to discover whether the changes that faculty members were making led them to what others considered "best practices." Our interest was on what caused faculty to make changes in their teaching and what the directions of those changes might be. We believed it was possible, and even likely, that such change might lead faculty to *less* effective teaching as well as to better teaching, and we wanted to be open to all kinds of change.

Furthermore, we believe that "best practices" are defined, at least in part, by pedagogical contexts, as Shulman (1988) argued decades ago and as Bransford et al.'s (2000) work has supported. In the words of David C. Berliner (1991): "For many years pedagogical knowledge was studied as if there were generic teaching skills, as if such knowledge existed independent of the subject matter being taught. . . . But pedagogy and content are linked, and to separate them is to miss something about the intimacy of that relationship" (p. 147). If good teaching strategies are disciplinary, then generic "best practices" do not always make sense. Also, if good teaching strategies are disciplinary, then researchers from outside those disciplines—researchers like us—can hardly judge whether faculty members teaching classes in disciplines outside their own are engaging in the pedagogical practices best suited to their fields.

Perhaps our key finding in the UW GIFTS is that change in teaching was pervasive. For distinguished teaching award winners, brand new teachers, world-famous scholars, faculty with and without tenure, faculty teaching math and faculty teaching art classes—for all of them—change in teaching was a constant. This result buries the image of university professors lecturing from notes that have yellowed from 15 years of use. It challenges Derek Bok's (2006) argument that because they are not required to do so by college leadership, faculty do not move "beyond normal conscientiousness in fulfilling their classroom duties" (p. 32). Furthermore, it suggests that those who characterize faculty as dragging their feet in the face of change (Tagg, 2012) may be missing something important—especially the provosts at the institutions where faculty are teaching who characterize faculty as "resistant" to change (Kuh & Ikenberry, 2009). Given the finding that all faculty made changes to their teaching, what do we know about those changes?

What were they and why did faculty make them? Our study aimed to answer those questions.

A second key finding from the UW GIFTS is that reasons for change most often emerge from the interaction between the faculty member and the particular students and course she is teaching, rather than from sources external to the classroom. In other words, mandates for change are likely to have far less effect on teaching practice than are the faculty members' observations of their own students' behavior and performances in the classroom.

The purpose of this book is to present what we learned about change and growth in teaching from the UW GIFTS. This is a book of stories of change, of overlapping goals, of growth in and away from confidence. Primarily a qualitative study, the UW GIFTS can help new faculty think about their teaching work. Perhaps more important, our findings can help other institutions understand the ways their faculty are thinking about and changing their teaching, so that we can honor that work, as well as celebrate and nurture the analytical power and personal courage it takes to create, conduct, and perform the thousands of symphonies that faculty across the country are engaged in right at this moment.

Literatures

The UW GIFTS was an exploratory study, rather than a study that set out to validate theory or support hypotheses. We had some preconceptions about why faculty might make changes to their teaching, and most of those were structural. For example, we anticipated that faculty members might make changes to their teaching because they had been told to increase the size of the classes they were teaching. Beyond that kind of speculation, we had no hypotheses for change. Therefore, we needed to design a study that helped us understand the nature and full range of faculty experiences, as well as the meanings that change had for faculty (Merriam, 2001).

Although our study was not shaped prominently by a body of theoretical literature, we found a variety of literatures helpful to our thinking. For example, although the UW GIFTS was focused on change in teaching rather than on the relationship between belief, intention, and classroom practice, we read with interest the literature on those

relationships. Norton et al.'s (2005) study of 638 faculty members' responses to a survey on beliefs and intentions presented interesting results about the role of context in shaping intentions. Kane et al. (2002) provided an excellent critique of the research on faculty beliefs, intentions, and practices, which we address in chapter 2.

Studies, such as those of Hativa et al. (2001) and McAlpine et al. (2006), provide thoughtful attention to contexts and perspectives; however, while providing rich details on how faculty think about their teaching, their small sample sizes (four and two, respectively) make it difficult to draw conclusions about faculty at large. The UW GIFTS sought to provide a close, primarily qualitative look at a larger sample in the hope that the level of details sacrificed by increasing the scale would be balanced by our ability to make some general statements about change in teaching.

We found David Leslie's (2002) study on the relative value faculty place on research and teaching particularly important. Leslie analyzed data from 517,954 full-time faculty respondents to the 1992–1993 National Survey of Postsecondary Faculty (NSPF) on the importance of teaching and research. He found that "research university faculty . . . agree on average that both teaching effectiveness and research and publication should be the primary criteria for promotion" (p. 64).

In addition, Leslie noted that disciplinary differences in how faculty view criteria for promotion were stronger at research universities than they were at other institutions. Leslie also found that faculty in the fine arts placed the highest value on teaching in promotion decisions and faculty in the natural sciences rated teaching the lowest of the disciplinary groups. This is no surprise since the extensive research that faculty in the fine arts might engage in to prepare for the work they create is often "invisible" in the projects they produce, while the research that faculty in the natural sciences do is often highly visible and well funded.

Leslie's study is important to our work because it suggests that faculty at research universities make changes to their teaching for the same reason that faculty at more teaching-focused institutions make changes—because they think teaching matters. In the words of one of our faculty interviewees:

> My job is to help students learn. My job is to be an instructor, and I want to do a good job. If they don't learn, I haven't done a good job. (Faculty member in the sciences/math)

In fact, Leslie found that faculty at research institutions place as much value on teaching as they place on research, even though their institutions may privilege research over teaching in promotion decisions.

However valuable Leslie's work, great changes have occurred at R1s in the 18 years since the NSPF collected the data that Leslie analyzed in 2002. These changes raise the question of how accurate Leslie's findings are in relation to today's faculty. The NSPF data were taken before Barr and Tagg's (1995) article shifted the assessment focus from teaching to learning. They were taken before 9/11 and before No Child Left Behind changed the face of K–12 in the United States and knocked at the door of higher education in the guise of the Spellings Commission Report (U.S. Department of Education, 2006). They were taken before the U.S. economy collapsed, freezing faculty salaries, reducing the number of faculty at every state college and university in the country who were teaching the same or increasing numbers of students, and damaging faculty morale. They were taken before state threats to tenure and collective bargaining gained a foothold in the Midwest, further deepening faculty concern about their profession and its future. Obviously, although Leslie's important work helped guide our thinking, we need current research that takes up Leslie's question about the value university faculty place on teaching.

In this regard, the Faculty Survey of Student Engagement (Indiana University Center for Postsecondary Research, 2010) offers some help. The Faculty Survey of Student Engagement (FSSE) is the partner of the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE). The FSSE measures faculty members' estimates of students' participation in a number of educational practices and compares those estimates with student reports of their own participation. In addition, the FSSE surveys faculty members about how they spend their time. In 2010, 19,399 faculty responded from 154 baccalaureate-granting colleges and universities to the FSSE; 232 (about 12%) of those faculty members were from doctoral/research universities. Their responses to questions about how they spent their time confirm the importance of teaching that Leslie noted in the 2002 data he analyzed.

Table 1.1 shows those results. As the table shows, faculty member FSSE respondents from "all doctoral/research universities" reported spending an average of 34.8 hours on classroom teaching activities per week and about 10 hours on research. In other words, the time that faculty members at research institutions spent on teaching activities

Table 1.1. 2010 FSSE results on faculty time

Activity	Hours Spent per Week
Teaching undergraduate students in class	8.8
Grading papers and exams	6.5
Giving other forms of written and oral feedback to students	5.8
Preparing for class	8.7
Reflecting on ways to improve my teaching	5.0
Research and scholarly activities	10.2
TOTAL	45

was, on average, more than three times the amount of time they reported spending on research.[2] Certainly, this level of time commitment indicates that faculty members at research institutions care about their undergraduate teaching.

Robert Menges' (2000) article on shortcomings of the research on teaching in higher education was also important to our study. Menges identified four areas in educational research that need to be more useful in answering critical questions about teaching. The UW GIFTS falls into the first of those questions, which asks why faculty teach the way they do and how theories and research on teaching inform what faculty do. Menges notes that the research conducted on faculty teaching in the 1990s was mainly quantitative, and that recently, research is beginning to recognize the importance of context in teaching. Menges felt that attention to contexts and perspectives "requires moving beyond surveys" (p. 8), which the UW GIFTS sought to do.

In addition to studies of how faculty think about and value teaching, we found the literature on how faculty were trained to teach—or rather *not* trained to teach—valuable. Fairweather and Rhoads (1995), for example, raised the question of how faculty are socialized into their roles as teachers, a subject discussed by Austin (2002) and Nyquist et al. (1999) as well. Nyquist et al. (1999) was also valuable for clarifying the emotional path of graduate study.

We also looked at literature on incentives and change. The work of Alfie Kohn (1999) was instructive, and the study by Ariely et al. (2009) on whether increased monetary rewards bring about improved performance was fascinating. Ariely and his colleagues tested the arguments that monetary incentives improve motivation and effort and that those improvements result in improved performance with residents of a rural town in India, MIT undergraduates, and students at the University of

Chicago. In all three cases, the highest rewards produced lower performance on all tasks, which included tasks that depended primarily on motor skills, tasks that focused on concentration, and those that required creativity. Ariely et al.'s results offer some insight into our finding that faculty members continue to think about and change their teaching even though they are not rewarded for doing so.

Finally, although the UW GIFTS was exploratory rather than theory driven, constructivist perspectives that argue that learning and knowledge are created in social contexts make the most sense to us in relation to our findings. As Peter Ewell (1997) noted, learners—whether students, faculty, or staff—are not merely "receptacles" of knowledge; they shape their own learning in individual ways. Also, as Shepard (2000) notes, "an important aspect of individual learning is developing experience with and being inducted into the ways of thinking and working in a community of practice" (p. 1074).

At institutions such as ours, it is easy to observe knowledge being constructed in social contexts. Every day, teams of researchers from our institution learn from each other and work together to create robotic contact lenses, knowledge about the effects of global warning on marine life in Puget Sound, and new insights into Jane Austen. This work is built on the work of others and often includes the participation of colleagues from institutions across the world. Furthermore, this process of socially constructing meaning does not exclude undergraduates. Research at our own institution, for example, has examined some of the ways that undergraduates enter disciplinary communities of learners, become acculturated to their practices and values, and participate in the construction of new knowledge—a process that begins very early for some students (Beyer et al., 2007; Beyer and Graham, 1990, 1992, 1994). The disciplinary communities that undergraduates join include participants from across and outside the U. S., and involve "conversations"—real-time and delayed—with earlier thinkers, learners, and knowledge creators.

While we embrace social constructivist theories, we would not place ourselves in the "sect"—in D. C. Phillips' (1995) words—that would argue that all knowledge is "entirely a matter of sociopolitical processes or consensus" (p. 11) and that neither nature nor individuals outside social groups offer opportunities for or impose constraints on knowledge creation. In Phillips' continuum, we are closer to the center.

However, although we see evidence of social constructivist theories around us and although our study findings, in some ways, may serve as

evidence for these theories, we did not set out to validate them, nor do we examine our findings through that lens. Even so, we believe that it is important to note that we have that lens and have likely been influenced by it.

Our Paths

When we began this study, we had a fairly good idea that many faculty members would say that they had made changes to their teaching. In spite of persistent public images of tweed-coated, sleeve-patched professors giving the same lectures year after year, our own experience as faculty members has been marked by change in our teaching and by conversations with colleagues about changes in theirs. Furthermore, our research on graduate students and underrepresented minority students (Taylor et al., 2009; Taylor & Antony, 2000), on undergraduate learning (Beyer et al., 2007), and on students' ratings of their academic experience (Gillmore & Greenwald, 1998; Greenwald & Gillmore, 1997), as well as our years of working closely with faculty, gave us evidence that change in faculty teaching was fairly constant.

However, while we knew that faculty members were likely to report changes to their teaching, we did not know the extent of those changes, nor did we have any certainty about why they made such changes. Therefore, our own paths through the UW GIFTS were marked by surprise and gratitude.

Organization

This book includes the following four major sections and chapters:

I. Overview
   Chapter 1—GIFTS—provides a summary of the study's rationale, purpose, key findings, and academic context.
   Chapter 2—How Was the Study Conducted?—presents information on our study sample, methods, and the generalizability of the study.
II. Summary of Findings
   Chapter 3—What Courses Did Faculty Describe?—presents a numerical picture of the courses that faculty interviewees described.

Chapter 4—What Changes Did Faculty Make to Their Courses?—presents results of the changes faculty members described making to their classes, as well as findings regarding "big directions" of change in their teaching.

Chapter 5—Why Did Faculty Make Changes to Their Courses?—discusses reasons for the changes faculty made and presents an image of the change process.

III. Themes

Chapter 6—What Allowed Faculty to Teach "from the Self"?—addresses one of the major themes of change in the study, the movement away from content and toward bringing the self into the classroom.

Chapter 7—What Did Faculty Say about Students?—addresses a theme of change that crossed faculty responses to many questions—the move to seeing students as new learners.

Chapter 8—What "Research" Methods Did Faculty Use?—discusses the many kinds of informal research faculty members engaged in to identify whether students were learning what faculty members hoped they were learning.

Chapter 9—Were There Differences across Groups?—reports analysis of differences in the responses of several subgroups in the faculty that comprised the UW GIFTS and includes differences between the responses of faculty of color and white faculty, between faculty in three disciplines, and between faculty members and graduate students.

IV. Conclusions

Chapter 10—Learning in the Act of Teaching—summarizes the findings in the UW GIFTS

In addition, the book's appendices include interview and focus group protocols for adaptation or use by other institutions of higher education.

Throughout these chapters, we make extensive use of quotations from faculty interviewees to illustrate and clarify our findings. Faculty quotations also show the complexities of our findings, the blurred lines between our categories and themes, and give voice to the unique experiences and remarkable hearts and minds of college teachers.

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How Was the Study Conducted?

> I tell them research is about being curious and having questions that are
> researchable.
> —Faculty member in the social sciences

As we noted in chapter 1, the UW GIFTS was an exploratory study rather than a study that set out to validate theory or support hypotheses. Our research questions were simple:

Without external pressure to do so, do faculty make changes
to their teaching?
If so, what kinds of changes do they tend to make?
Why do they make those changes? What sources of information trigger or inspire the changes faculty make?

Faculty Sample

Our sample of 55 faculty members came from three sources. First, we contacted department chairs, described our proposed study, and asked them to recommend faculty members we might interview who were known in the department to be "thoughtful about teaching." We invited 67 chairs, representing all departments that offered undergraduate majors, to submit names, and 30 chairs (45%) did so, sending us the names of 91 faculty members. We invited 50 faculty members from this group, a randomized sample stratified by department, professional level (full, associate, and assistant professors; senior lecturers and lecturers), gender, and ethnicity. We stratified the sample in order to increase diversity in those areas. In our email message inviting this

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group of faculty to participate in the UW GIFTS, we told faculty members that they had been identified by their chairs as thoughtful teachers. Twenty-five (50%) of the chair-selected faculty whom we contacted agreed to be interviewed. These 25 faculty members comprised 45.5% of our sample, as figure 2.1 shows.
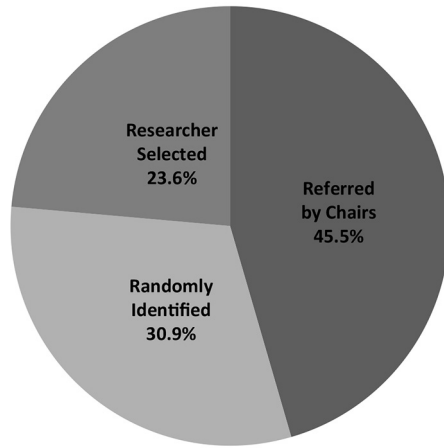
Second, we invited the participation of 140 faculty whom we randomly selected

Figure 2.1. Sample composition

from a list of all UW faculty but stratified in the same ways as our chair-selected group. We told this group that they had been randomly selected for participation in the study. Seventeen (12.1%) of those faculty members agreed to be interviewed, comprising 30.9% of our final sample. As the difference in volunteer rates of these two groups makes clear, having been identified as "thoughtful about teaching" by one's chair appeared to make faculty members more willing to be interviewed than did random selection.

Third, as figure 2.1 shows, researchers directly invited 13 (23.6% of the sample) faculty members to participate. Some, but not all, of these participants had reputations as effective teachers. We selected these faculty members based on a number of factors, such as increasing the number of faculty of color or the number of faculty in the humanities participating in the study. However, the main factor in our selection of this group was that we knew them from previous experiences, and we found them interesting.

Nine (16.4%) of the faculty members in the study had won distinguished teaching awards from the university, one during the course of the study. Of those nine, seven were faculty members whose names had been given to us by department chairs; one was a faculty member who was randomly selected from the complete list of UW faculty; and one was a faculty member whom we had selected to interview.

Demographics and Departments

In terms of gender, 29 (52.7%) of the participants were female and 26 (47.3%) were male. The sample of interviewees in UW GIFTS was comprised of the following ethnic groups:

Four African American faculty members (7.3%)
Three Asian faculty members (5.4%)
48 Caucasian faculty members (87.3%)

In addition, these faculty members represented the following kinds of academic appointments:

14 professors (25.5%)
12 associate professors (21.8%)
16 assistant professors (29.1%)
8 senior lecturers[1] (14.5%)
5 lecturers (9.1%)

The disciplinary areas represented by this group of faculty included the following:

Arts (4 faculty members, 7.2%)
Architecture/built environments (3 faculty members, 5.5%)
Business (3 faculty members, 5.5%)
Engineering (3 faculty members, 5.5%)
Humanities (11 faculty members, 20.0%)
Sciences (11 faculty members, 20.0%)
Social sciences (16 faculty members, 29.1%)
Other, including forest resources, informatics, and oceanography (4 faculty members, 7.2%)[2]

Teaching Training in Graduate School and Experience Teaching

In terms of teaching training, we asked 54 of the 55 faculty participants whether they had received any direct instruction in teaching while they

were in graduate school, and, if so, to describe the kinds of training they had received. We defined teaching training as deliberate instruction. We did not include general observation of others' teaching as teaching training, and, in fact, faculty members in the study often had both good and bad things to say about such observations, as this faculty member's comment illustrates:

> I grew up in the days when faculty didn't care about lectures, especially in physics at [the university where I studied]. I mean the undergraduate lectures in physics were just horrible, un-believably bad. These people would drone on and walk into a classroom with a textbook and without saying a word, spend 20 minutes of student time, copying a table from the textbook onto the blackboard. Twenty minutes of silence while they copy something that we already had, and they point at it as if revelation is now occurring. Now, chemistry at [this same institution] had a very different tradition. A fellow named [Professor X] who founded something called the College of Chemistry [there], really thought teaching undergraduates was important and in the sixties the quality of undergraduate teaching of chemistry was very high, partly because of a tradition [he] started. (Faculty member in the sciences/math)

Using our definition of "deliberate" instruction in teaching, 63% of the faculty in the UW GIFTS said that they had received no instruction in teaching as graduate students. (Two faculty members said they had no training as graduate students but noted that they had taken classes on teaching as undergraduates.) When institutions were funded so well that they could fully support all graduate students with fellowships or when students were given individual fellowships because they were considered more promising than other graduate students, they neither received instruction in teaching nor had teaching experience—not even experience serving as teaching assistants for faculty members in their fields. Two faculty members' comments illustrate the group of "no" responses to this question.

> No—my advisor was completely negligent in teaching and in giving teaching advice, and they were the worst teachers I've ever seen. This was at [X University], and they are the best