**5**

*This chapter distinguishes among the concepts and practices of scholarly teaching and the scholarship of teaching. It focuses on the ongoing cycle that begins with the scholarly process and can lead to improved teaching practice, scholarly publications, and presentations.*

# Scholarly Teaching and the Scholarship of Teaching

*Laurie Richlin*

Ever since the Carnegie Foundation's publication of *Scholarship Reconsidered* (Boyer, 1990), faculty, administrators, and faculty development professionals have worked to understand and implement the idea of appropriate faculty scholarship. Unfortunately, the concept of a scholarship of teaching has become mixed up with the act of teaching itself. This confusion was made greater with the publication of the follow-up volume, *Scholarship Assessed* (Glassick, Huber, and Maeroff, 1997), which attempts to describe the criteria by which Boyer's four types of scholarship should be judged. In *Scholarship Assessed,* the authors propose six standards that any work done by academics must meet in order to be considered scholarly; the work must be characterized by clear goals, adequate preparation, appropriate methods, significant results, effective presentation, and reflective critique (p. 36). Perhaps inadvertently, however, the authors treat the scholarship of teaching differently than they do the scholarships of discovery, integration, and application. For the other three scholarships, they "asked university presses, scholarly journals, and granting agencies about the criteria they ask reviewers to use in evaluating manuscripts and proposals" (p. x). For the scholarship of teaching, they did not go to the pedagogical journals in higher education but, instead, turned their attention to how the process of teaching was evaluated through review of campus teaching evaluation documents. A parallel example in one of the other scholarships—discovery, for instance—would have been to review how a biologist organized a laboratory or how a psychologist set up an experiment, rather than how the resulting scholarship would be evaluated by peers (Richlin, 1993a). Although research processes are important to review (and surely extensive review is

done by both grant-making and accrediting organizations), they are not scholarship but scholarly work (that is, scholarly biology and scholarly psychology). The scholarship of biology or the scholarship of psychology can be read in each discipline's peer-reviewed journals and heard at its disciplinary conferences. It is the same with the scholarship of teaching: indicators of excellence are found in the criteria used by journals and conferences to select their articles and presentations.

Most recently, Kreber and Cranton (2000) compound, rather than simplify, the definition of the scholarship of teaching as they argue, "We contend that the scholarship of teaching includes both ongoing learning about teaching and the demonstration of teaching knowledge." Kreber and Cranton's goal is to show that faculty who commit to the scholarship of teaching engage in three different kinds of reflection on both theory-based and experience-based knowledge as it relates to questions of instructional design, pedagogy, and the broader curriculum. It remains unclear, however, to what extent the authors discuss what should more precisely be called *scholarly* teaching and to what extent they really are concerned with the *scholarship of* teaching.
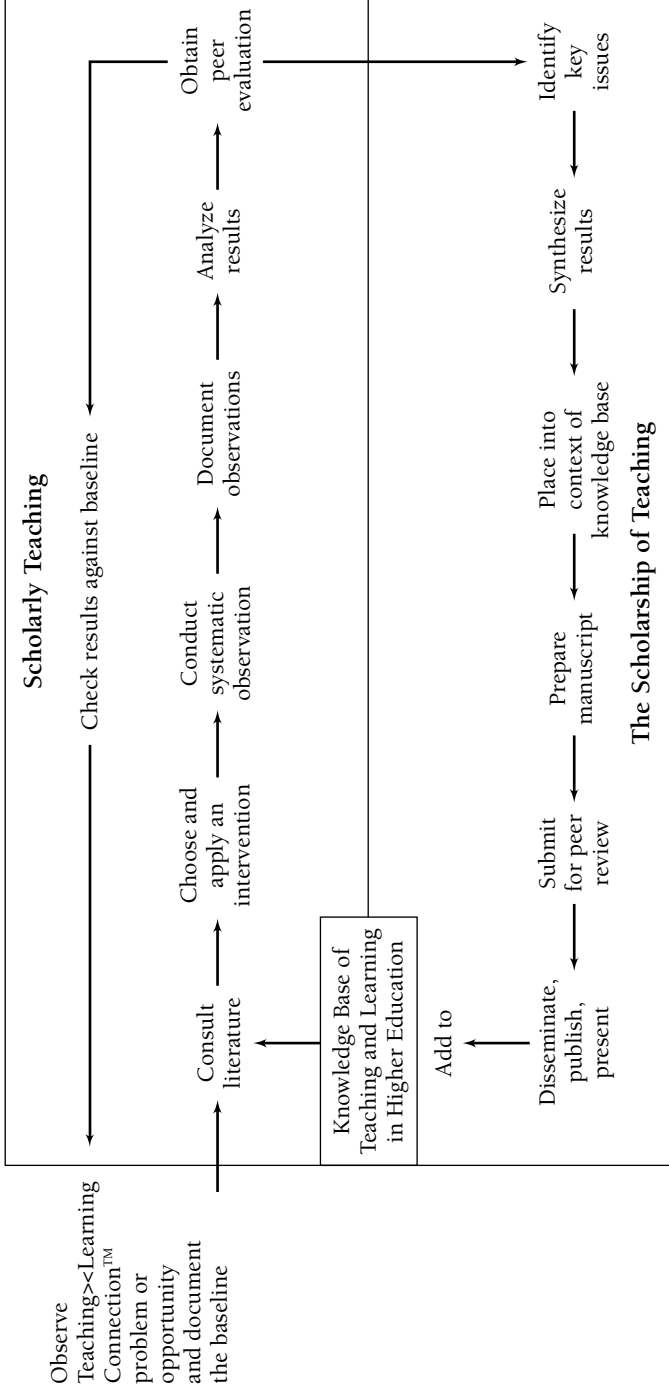
The Delphi panel (see Chapter One) agreed strongly (MDN = 7.0; IQR = 1.0) with the statement that there is "lack of broadly acceptable definitions for the *scholarship of teaching, scholarly teaching, excellence in teaching, expert teacher,* and *research on teaching and learning*" (see Exhibit 1.3, item 1). This chapter addresses some of these issues and discusses them in relation to items 4, 12, and 31 of Part II of the Delphi Questionnaire. The goal is to clarify and give examples for the concepts scholarly teaching and the scholarship of teaching.

## The Ongoing Cycle of Scholarly Teaching and the Scholarship of Teaching

The concept of the scholarship of teaching, as discussed by Boyer (1990) and Glassick, Huber, and Maeroff (1997), actually involves two different activities: scholarly teaching and a resulting scholarship (Richlin, 1993a, 1998). As shown in Figure 5.1, scholarly teaching and the scholarship of teaching are closely interrelated. However, they differ in both their intent and product. Because both scholarly teaching and the scholarship of teaching are vital to the life of the academy, it is important to clarify and operationalize each of them. In my view, the purpose of scholarly teaching is to impact the activity of teaching and the resulting learning, whereas the scholarship of teaching results in a formal, peer-reviewed communication in the appropriate media or venue, which then becomes part of the knowledge base of teaching and learning in higher education.

**Scholarly Process.**  Two elements are essential to the scholarly process: (1) systematically observing the Teaching><Learning Connection™ and

**Figure 5.1. The Ongoing Cycle of Scholarly Teaching and the Scholarship of Teaching**

Scholarly Teaching

Observe Teaching><Learning Connection™ problem or opportunity and document the baseline → Consult literature → Choose and apply an intervention → Conduct systematic observation → Document observations → Analyze results → Obtain peer evaluation

Check results against baseline

Knowledge Base of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education

Add to

Disseminate, publish, present → Submit for peer review → Prepare manuscript → Place into context of knowledge base → Synthesize results → Identify key issues

The Scholarship of Teaching

(2) putting the results of a teaching intervention into context. Scholarly teaching includes only the former; the scholarship of teaching requires both. These are the two most difficult sticking points in the scholarly process.

The scholarly process begins with an observation, which identifies a problem or situation the teacher would like to improve or an opportunity the teacher would like to seize (Richlin, 1993a, 1998). A problem could be as simple as wanting to improve mathematics test scores on a midterm or as complicated as wanting students to improve their critical thinking skills. An opportunity could present itself in the form of newly available technology or equipment.

Whatever Teaching><Learning Connection the professor wants to improve, the next and most critical step is to document a baseline of activity. For instance, what does the professor see in student behavior (poor test results, lack of class participation, and so on) that he or she wishes to change? Without this step, the professor has no way to ascertain later whether or not the change in teaching has made any difference.

The next important step is to study what others have done. This is an essential part of scholarly inquiry. Scholars in all disciplines begin with knowing the status of their field so that they can avoid duplicating ineffective practices and can build on what is already known: "As a scientific field, pedagogical scholarship must begin to 'stand on the shoulders of giants.' To accomplish this, it is essential that faculty hold themselves to the same high standards in their observations of teaching and learning as they have traditionally done in their disciplines. As the scholarship of teaching begins to develop, it seems natural that faculty will first consider methods of observation and of drawing conclusions similar to those in their disciplines. On the other hand, the natural setting—the roots—for this scholarship is in the social sciences. Unfortunately, academics in the natural sciences and humanities are not usually familiar with the basics of social science research; even social scientists who would never commit such errors when working in their fields often begin pedagogical studies without baselines or hypotheses, do not keep accurate records of interventions, and fail to report results past 'the students liked it'" (Richlin and Cox, 1990, p. 6).

**Scholarly Teaching.** After investigating what previously has been attempted to solve similar problems, a scholarly teacher then selects the teaching method that has the best chance of helping students achieve the learning objective. Once again, experienced teachers often do this implicitly, without making explicit why they have made their choices. To engage in the scholarly process, the teacher must justify the selection of method from what is known in the literature; it must be made explicit.

The application of the new method must be observed and recorded in a systematic way. Classroom assessment processes (Angelo and Cross, 1993) do exactly that (readers: be reminded of Paulsen's point in Chapter Two that, until very recently, the terms *classroom assessment* and *classroom research* have been used interchangeably). The professor should collect materials and

reflections from observation and student work, systematically document them in a course portfolio, and follow up by reflecting on and analyzing the results (Richlin and Manning, 1995). At this point, the first of two peer evaluations should take place. This evaluation, which is an assessment of the course, focuses on course materials and student work, and may also include observation of class sessions. After the first peer review, the professor compares the results to the baseline, to see whether or not the new method resulted in an improvement in the Teaching><Learning Connection. The application of new knowledge about teaching and learning to the professor's practice is the end product of scholarly teaching.

**The Scholarship of Teaching.**  The scholarship of teaching, in my view, builds on the end product of scholarly teaching. Having completed the process to the point of evaluating the results of the teaching intervention, the professor must decide whether or not to proceed with turning the findings into the scholarship of teaching. Clearly, this would depend on the significance of results. The professor may also consider, however, whether the extra effort to write up the material, subject it to another peer review, and disseminate the resulting manuscript would be worth the time required in terms of faculty rewards. Although some might argue that it is the responsibility of scholars to share the results of their investigations, the sad truth is that many departments and institutions do not count pedagogical scholarship as part of the faculty members' scholarly production.

The scholarship part of the process involves composing selected portions of the scholarly investigation and findings into a manuscript to be submitted to an appropriate journal or conference venue. This requires a second peer review, this time of the manuscript or proposal, by experts in both the discipline and the methods used, just as is done in disciplinary scholarship. If accepted for publication or presentation, the results and conclusions enter the knowledge base, completing the ongoing cycle.

This is not to say that all scholarly publication regarding teaching and learning in higher education must be research studies. Other types of scholarship include integration of the findings of others and inspiration in the form of reflection from experienced teachers. And this basic social science research model includes qualitative research where observation of teaching and learning behavior contributes to knowledge of the Teaching><Learning Connection.

## Institutional Programs That Encourage Teaching Scholarship

Three programs provide examples of ways by which institutions are encouraging faculty members to become scholarly teachers and contribute to the scholarship of teaching.

**Miami University.**  One of the longest-running programs, which began in 1978 with a three-year Lilly Endowment junior faculty grant, is at Miami

University (Oxford, Ohio). In 1994, it won the Hesburgh Award from TIAA-CREF as the best faculty development program in the nation. The program includes a number of faculty learning communities: one for selected junior faculty (in their second through fourth years of teaching), one for senior faculty (teaching over seven years), and the others focused on specific topics such as teaching using groups, developing teaching portfolios, or building on diversity to enhance teaching (Cox, 1995, 2001). Each learning community enables its members to participate in a two-semester series of special activities and to pursue individual projects relating to teaching. In addition, members attend national conferences where the scholarship of teaching is presented, including the Lilly Conference on College and University Teaching, held on the Miami University campus. The university also cosponsors six regional Lilly Conferences through the International Alliance of Teacher Scholars and publishes the *Journal on Excellence in College Teaching,* a peer-reviewed, multidisciplinary journal providing a forum for the scholarship of teaching.

*Lilly Conference on College and University Teaching.*  An early outgrowth of Miami University's original grant from the Lilly Endowment is the Lilly Conference on College and University Teaching, held each November since 1980. In 1999, five hundred participants attended the conference in Ohio, representing 154 colleges and universities in the United States, Canada, and other countries; approximately 145 presenters shared their scholarship of teaching through panels, seminars, workshops, and plenary sessions. An additional one thousand faculty members participated in the regional conferences the same year.

Presentations for the conferences are selected through a peer review process, with review committees formed for each regional conference with faculty from cosponsoring institutions and members of the International Alliance of Teacher Scholars with expertise in relevant teaching-learning areas. Proposals may be interdisciplinary or specific to one or a group of disciplines. To have a proposal accepted, the faculty member must demonstrate excellence in at least one of the following categories:

*Research:* Reports important results from own experience or research; describes problem clearly; provides baseline data; and explains what was done and why

*Integration:* Integrates the research of others in a meaningful way; compares theories; critiques results; and provides context for future exploration

*Innovation:* Proposes innovation in theory, approach, or process of teaching; provides original, creative ideas based on research results from self or others; and outlines strategy for testing innovation's effectiveness

*Inspiration:* Provides inspiration for teaching excellence, combining personal values, insight, and experience to communicate enthusiasm and dedication to outstanding teaching

These criteria are listed in the call for proposals put out by the International Alliance of Teacher Scholars, Inc., every year.

Presentation proposals are reviewed with a decision tree (see Figure 5.2) that separates reports on teaching projects from philosophical or reflective presentations. For teaching projects, if the project has been completed and results are presented, the proposal is sent for peer review. If the project has not been completed or results are not available, the proposal is accepted for a poster session. Poster sessions are recommended for novice scholars of teaching to present ongoing teaching projects that have not been designed as research projects, have not been completed, or have not been connected to other knowledge in the field. In a poster session, the presenter does not have to make a formal presentation, but the printed material provided is designed and displayed in such a way that it gives readers an idea of the project that is under way and provokes discussion of the issues highlighted by the poster. Poster sessions provide an opportunity for faculty to display what they have done and to receive feedback on both their content and process. Philosophical or reflective presentation proposals from well-known exemplary teachers or scholars of teaching are sent to the committee for review, as are proposals for presentations that are inspiring or present a good argument. Proposals are rejected if they do not meet any of these criteria.

**Figure 5.2.  Lilly Conference Proposal Review Decision Tree**
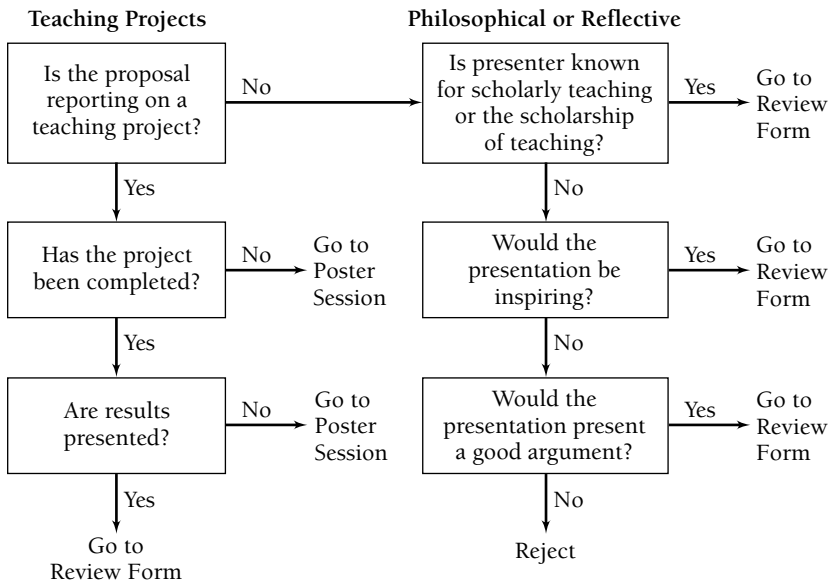
On the review form, reviewers on the committees rate each proposal unsatisfactory, acceptable, or excellent on the following aspects: importance of the topic, clarity of objectives, appropriateness of objectives, clarity of activities, appropriateness of activities, clarity of description, and appropriateness of description.

*The Journal on Excellence in College Teaching.*  The journal began publication in 1990 and currently publishes three issues per year. It provides a written forum for discussion by faculty about all areas affecting teaching and learning, and gives faculty the opportunity to "share proven, innovative pedagogies and thoughtful, inspirational insights about teaching" (Miami University, 1999). Manuscripts must display excellence in at least one of the categories listed above for the Lilly Conferences: research, integration, innovation, or inspiration.

The editorial board selects reviewers from nominations; they represent a wide array of disciplines and institutions. They assess each manuscript on the quality of writing; organization of ideas; importance of the problem; creativity; quality or completeness of the literature it reviews; conceptual grounding; research design and method; quality and representativeness of data; suitability of data analysis; presentation of data analysis; discussion of limitations; adequacy of conclusions or implications; and relevance to the journal criteria (Miami University, 1999). The acceptance rate for manuscripts is approximately 12 percent, with the majority of submissions rejected because of the lack of research design (Richlin and Cox, 1994).

**University of Georgia.**  The University of Georgia (UGA) also has two learning communities that focus on scholarly teaching. The Lilly Teaching Fellows Program, established in 1984, is open to ten junior faculty members (in the first through third year of teaching). Lilly teaching fellows develop instructional improvement proposals to implement during their fellows year. The Senior Teaching Fellows Program provides eight experienced faculty (who have been at UGA at least five years and have the rank of associate or full professor) an opportunity to focus on undergraduate education and share ideas with other innovative teachers outside their own discipline. The senior fellows also design and implement an instructional project to strengthen courses and teaching methods.

The Georgia Governor's Teaching Fellows Program, sponsored jointly by the Institute of Higher Education and the Office of Instructional Support and Development at UGA, was established in 1995 by the Honorable Zell Miller, governor of Georgia from 1990 to 1998, to provide Georgia's higher education faculty, both public and private, with expanded opportunities for developing important teaching skills in a scholarly way. The program creates a statewide community of scholars that engage in collegial dialogue about teaching. Many of the teaching fellows submit proposals for peer review to present their findings at the Lilly Conference held in Georgia each year.

**Samford University.**  The newest of the three programs is the problem-based learning (PBL) initiative at Samford University (Birmingham, Ala.),

part of an endowment grant from the Pew Charitable Trusts. The Samford PBL team of academic advisors, faculty leaders, and student leaders serve as advisors and supporters of the PBL project. Using disciplinary peer teams, Samford faculty members investigate PBL and other strategies in their disciplines and design units to include PBL in a particular course. Faculty collect data systematically, and each peer team reflects on the process and analyzes the results. Faculty members then change the courses based on the data collected and collect further data after making those changes. This process is a perfect example of scholarly teaching.

Each team also produces a detailed course portfolio that includes the data and reflections, all of which are reviewed externally by carefully selected scholars of teaching in higher education. The course portfolio includes the following sections: introductory information, the design of the course, problems (for PBL), assessment, a reflective statement about the course, and a free section in which the instructor and team can include supplementary information. On the basis of the reviewers' feedback, the instructor and team prepare the portfolio for publication as the scholarship of teaching.

**The Doctor of Arts Degree: An Attempt to Encourage Graduate Students to Develop Teaching Scholarship.** An early national attempt to encourage a scholarship of teaching was the Doctor of Arts (D.A.) degree, which was introduced in the 1960s and intended to replace the traditional Ph.D. for graduate students who were interested in becoming college professors. The purpose of the D.A., according to the Council of Graduate Schools (1970), was to "provide for the development of research skills so that the teaching scholar can maintain the quality of his own scholarship and can utilize the results of research in the classroom." The dissertation, the council said, "may take several acceptable forms . . .[including] significant research in teaching problems and the organization of new concepts of course work" (p. 15). In their survey and analysis of twenty-one D.A. programs in the United States, Koriath and Merrion (1992) found that evaluating the D.A. dissertation required "a committee, principal advisor for the paper, preparation of a prospectus, oral defense, and dissemination through University Microfilms International" (p. 77), a process typical for evaluating Ph.D. dissertations.

The success of encouraging graduate students to work in the scholarship of teaching depends on the willingness of doctorate-granting departments to award the doctorate for pedagogical dissertations and the willingness of hiring departments to hire those graduates. A survey conducted in 1990 (Richlin, 1993b) exploring the willingness of departments to grant a Ph.D. for a pedagogical dissertation and the willingness of departments to hire a candidate whose dissertation was pedagogical in nature yielded quite thought-provoking results. Approximately two-thirds of department chairs and deans at doctoral-granting institutions said they would not award the Ph.D. for dissertations on the way knowledge in their

field was taught or learned. Hiring departments, however, showed considerably more interest in pedagogical dissertations, with over two-thirds willing to hire such graduates.

## Where Scholarly Teaching and the Scholarship of Teaching Get Stuck

Over the past dozen years, I have reviewed a great number of submissions for scholarly teaching and the scholarship of teaching. I work as a consultant with each year's group of junior faculty at Miami University, helping them form and complete their teaching projects; as executive editor of the *Journal on Excellence in College Teaching,* reviewing all submissions to that journal; as reviewer for the national Lilly Conference, and reviewer and director for all regional Lilly Conferences; and as a reviewer for the Samford PBL portfolios.

As the meetings with the junior faculty have gone on over the years, I have felt it necessary to make more explicit up front what will be required for the project to be considered scholarly (see Exhibit 5.1 for the current guidelines). The most difficult areas are the ability to clearly define the problem, establish a baseline, research and find out what others have done, and be open to different interventions. Like their colleagues who submit manuscripts to the *Journal on Excellence in College Teaching* and proposals to the Lilly Conferences on College and University Teaching, most of the junior scholars begin with their solution (for example, "I need to use the Web in my course," or "I want to use more group work") rather than with a problem that calls for a solution. The most generous vision of this is that they are demonstrating an implicit problem-solving ability. If the intervention they want to implement is an opportunity, rather than a solution to a carefully analyzed problem, they have an additional responsibility to go back and identify the learning objectives and explore whether those will be better met through their new method. The project qualifies as scholarly only if faculty do this identification and exploration.

### Exhibit 5.1.  Miami University Guidelines for the Design and Description of Your Teaching Project

1. *The problem or question*

    What is the problem (or opportunity) you wish to address with your project?

    Describe what you see in your students' behavior that you wish to change, for example, aspects of content (such as test scores), process (such as ability to work in a group), or climate (such as morale). Be as specific as possible in what you have seen.

    List the learning objectives that students will be able to achieve better after you implement your project. Put them in active statements, such as, "After completing this course, you will be able to define (analyze, identify, and so on)."

2. *Context*

   What have others done to address this problem? Early in the program, you may not have much of an answer here; in fact, investigating the literature may be part of your project. What topics will you investigate on databases such as ERIC?

3. *Proposed solution*

   Indicate how you plan to solve the problem or answer the question. Describe what you will do to change or improve the behavior you described in 1.

   Are you doing anything differently than others have attempted? Why or why not? Why do you propose that your approach will succeed better than prior attempts or will work better with your students or course?

4. *Evaluation*

   How will you determine the success and effectiveness of your solution and the impact of your project? Do you plan to determine pre- and postresults? How will you know that the behavior of your students has changed or improved? Note: You may not be able to obtain your results by the end of your program year. However, you should have a plan in place to evaluate your project and report on the results. Remember, "You cannot save by analysis what you bungled by design" (Light, Singer, and Willett, 1990).

5. *Timeline*

   Indicate the dates of project initiation and completion for each step of your design, implementation, and evaluation.

## Conclusion

Although a decade has passed since the idea of a scholarship of teaching entered the lexicon of American higher education, the concept remains intertwined with the activities of scholarly teaching. Only by separating the different activities and focusing on the scholarly process can we give each the honor and rewards it deserves.

## References

Angelo, T. A., and Cross, K. P. *Classroom Assessment Techniques: A Handbook for College Teachers.* (2nd ed.) San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1993.

Boyer, E. L. *Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate.* Princeton, N.J.: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1990.

Council of Graduate Schools. *The Doctorate of Arts Degree.* Washington, D.C.: Council of Graduate Schools, 1970.

Cox, M. D. "The Development of New and Junior Faculty." In W. A. Wright and Associates (eds.), *Teaching Improvement Practices: Successful Strategies for Higher Education.* Bolton, Mass.: Anker, 1995.

Cox, M. D. "Faculty Learning Communities: Change Agents for Transforming Institutions into Learning Organizations." In D. Lieberman and C. Wehlburg (eds.), *To Improve the Academy: Resources for Student, Faculty, and Institutional Development,* no. 19. Bolton, Mass.: Anker, 2001.

Glassick, C. E., Huber, M. T., and Maeroff, G. I. *Scholarship Assessed: Evaluation of the Professoriate.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1997.

Koriath, K. L., and Merrion, M. M. "Preparing the New Professoriate: The Doctor of Arts Revisited." *Review of Higher Education,* 1992, (*16*)1, 63–83.

Kreber, C., and Cranton, P. A. "Exploring the Scholarship of Teaching." *Journal of Higher Education,* 2000, *71,* 476–495.

Light, R. J., Singer, J. D., and Willett, J. B. *By Design: Planning Research on Higher Education.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1990.

Miami University. "Manuscript Submission Guidelines." Oxford, Ohio: Miami University, 1999.

Richlin, L. "The Ongoing Cycle of Scholarly Teaching and the Scholarship of Teaching." Closing plenary presentation at the thirteenth annual Lilly Conference on College and University Teaching, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, Nov. 1993a.

Richlin, L. "Openness to a Broader View of Scholarship." In L. Richlin (ed.), *Preparing Faculty for New Conceptions of Scholarship.* New Directions for Teaching and Learning, no. 54. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1993b.

Richlin, L. "Scholarly Teaching and the 'Scholarship of Teaching': Where Boyer Gets Muddled." Paper presented at the national conference of the Professional and Organizational Development Network, Snowbird, Utah, Oct. 1998.

Richlin, L., and Cox, M. D. "The Scholarship of Pedagogy: A Message from the Editors." *Journal on Excellence in College Teaching,* 1990, *2,* 1–8.

Richlin, L., and Cox, M. D. "Enhancing Faculty Publishing Opportunities Through Understanding the Criteria and Standards for the Scholarship of Teaching." Paper presented at the Politics and Processes of Scholarly Publishing conference, University of South Florida, St. Petersburg, Mar. 12, 1994.

Richlin, L., and Manning, B. *Improving a College/University Teaching Evaluation System.* San Bernardino, Calif.: Alliance, 1995.

*LAURIE RICHLIN is president of the International Alliance of Teacher Scholars, director of the Regional Lilly Conferences on College and University Teaching, and executive editor of the Journal on Excellence in College Teaching.*